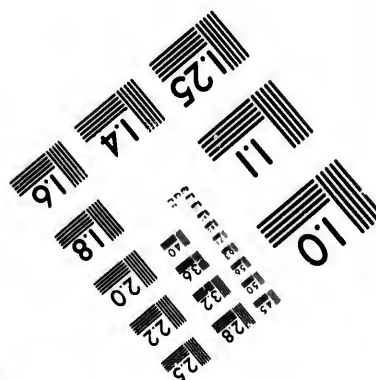
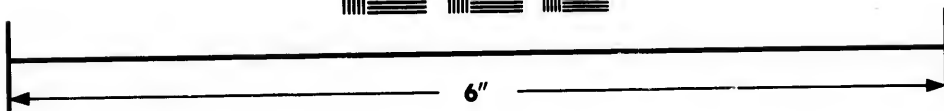
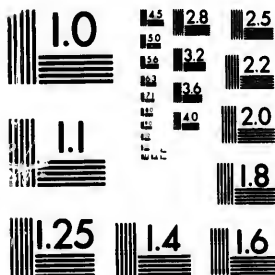


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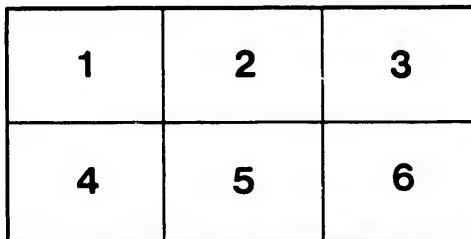
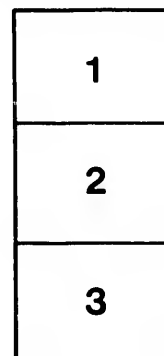
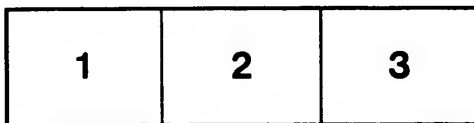
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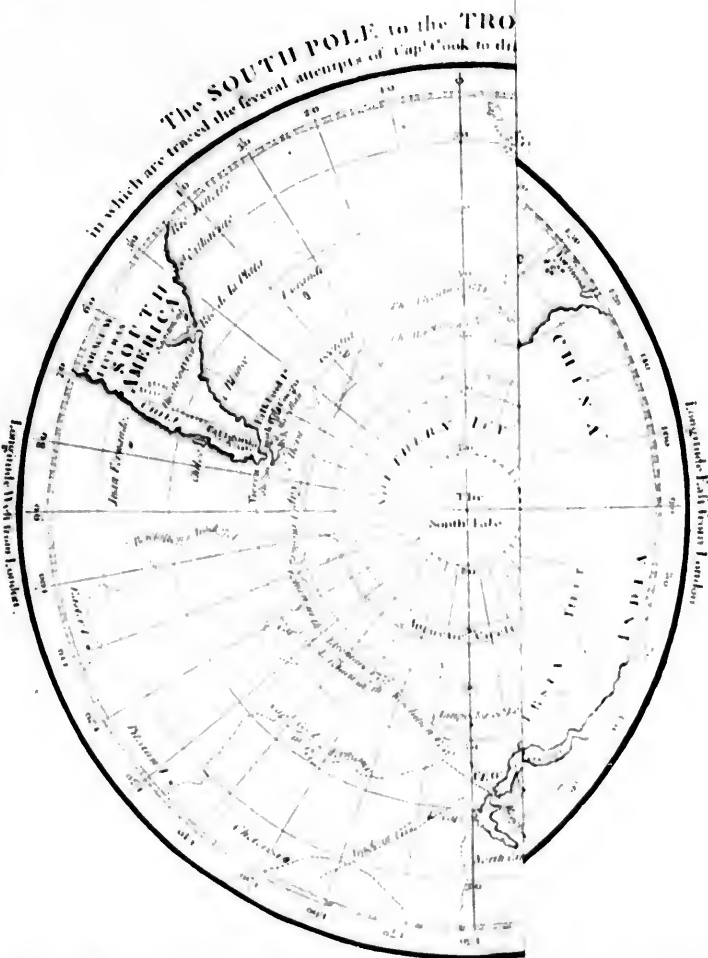
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OR A
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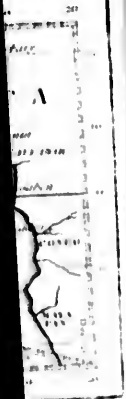
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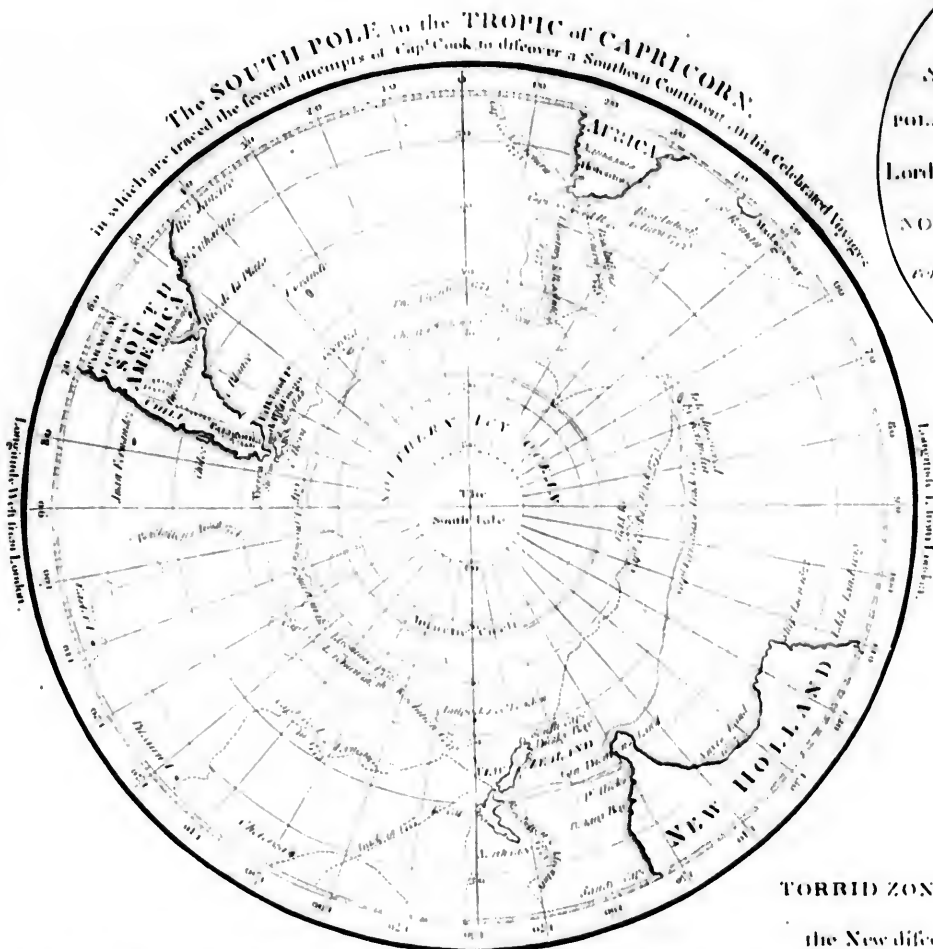
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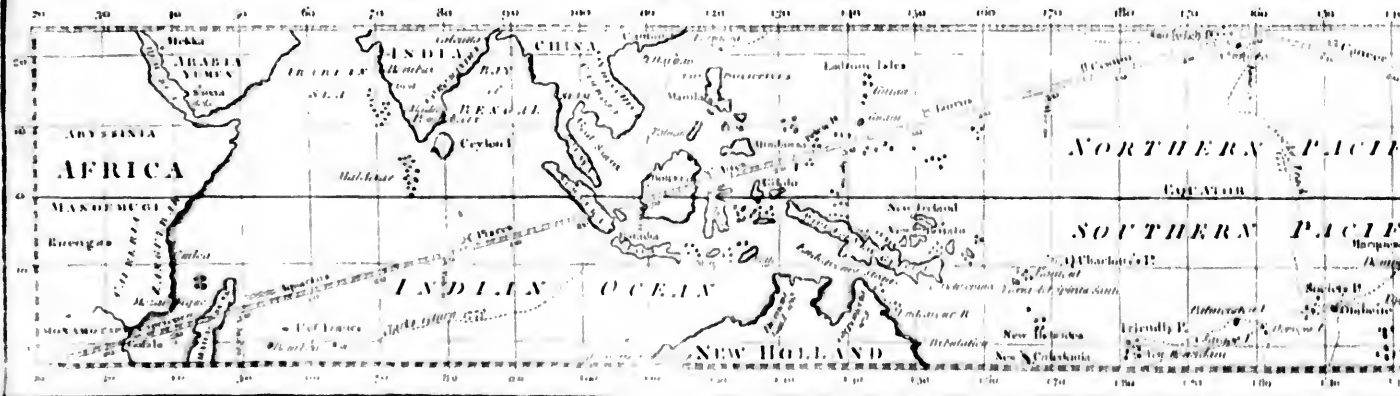
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with the
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UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY
LONDON

THE HISTORY OF THE
UNION OF GREAT BRITAIN
AND IRELAND
IN THE YEAR 1707
BY
JAMES O'BRYEN
ESQ.
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P R E F A C E.

THE great popularity and excellence of this work render it totally unnecessary to pass any encomium upon it here. So universally known are the merits of Guthrie's System of Geography, that to expatiate upon them now would be both needless and superfluous: we shall therefore only remark those undeniable advantages which must result from a New Edition, and in consideration of which, we were prompted to exert our utmost abilities to accommodate the Public with one, which we presume, for accuracy and improvement, will receive their general approbation.

A work of this nature, notwithstanding it redounds much to the credit and genius of its original Author, certainly admits in the course of time of being continually enriched by the discoveries which are continually made; it is natural to expect from a geographical composition, a faithful account of all those important articles which have recently occurred, during the late Expeditions and Voyages of our eminent Navigators and Travellers, who have lately explored many distant lands, and happily effected such discoveries as are really useful and interesting:—indeed without those relations, no System of Geography can be accounted complete; at least it cannot be so satisfactory as one which unites therewith History and Commerce, and contains the most recent information. When therefore we consider the continual revolution of human affairs and states, we must allow that many alterations and additions are absolutely necessary to enhance the value of such an esteemed undertaking.

In respect to the alterations, they are such as were unavoidably required to admit of the additions, which were so highly essential. In uniting several particulars, and introducing such accession of matter, as must certainly be expected from a New Edition, we were not only obliged to expunge the overflowing superfluities of former ones, but likewise to make such transpositions as were absolutely necessary for the sake of connection. The additions, which consist of all the recent discoveries, in this Edition, precede those parts with which former editions have commenced. Our motive for this was not only to pay due honor to our eminent navigators, who have lately explored such dangerous and immense tracts, and brought home information, that both redounds to their own credit, and the advantage of the Public; but likewise on account of their being in a great measure a clue to the succeeding matter, whereby our Readers may with greater facility become acquainted with our New Geographical, Historical, and Commercial System. These additions will not only be found considerable, but exceedingly interesting, as they comprise every remarkable circumstance that is related in the accounts of Captain Cook, and all the late Journals of the Voyages of Captains Phillips, King, Ball, Hunter, White, Dixon, Portlock, &c. &c. &c. They are succeeded by the important Histories and Descriptions of ASIA, AFRICA, AMERICA, and EUROPE; here also are incorporated, several particulars relative to these four principal parts of the World, which have been hitherto unknown, and for which we are indebted to the communications and labours of several ingenious travellers, particularly Brissot, Hodges, Blythe, &c. &c.

In our survey of Asia, we owe no inconsiderable improvements to the Travels of Mr. Franklin, in Persia; the Abbè Grosier's History of China; Dr. Robertson's Critical Survey of India, &c. &c. We have likewise endeavoured to be as copious as possible in our discussion of Africa, of which so little hitherto has been certainly known: We have therefore been the more diligent in our inquiries, and abstracted all the most valuable information that could be found in the Travels, Memoirs, &c. of

Mr.

Mr. Vaillant, Major Rennell, and others. Our relation of America we presume will be found both satisfactory and complete, seeing we have not only carefully examined the works of the celebrated Morfe, but likewise applied to several other authentic sources, which have amply assisted our endeavours, and enabled us to give the best information in the most full and explanatory manner. We have been carefully attentive to, and remarkably full in our account of, Europe, which occupies no inconsiderable part of our volume, and strictly accurate in all our other descriptions. To complete the whole, a copious Treatise upon Astronomy is added, chiefly extracted from the labours of the celebrated Ferguson, Dr. Herschell, and other famous astronomers; to this is subjoined, a New Chronological List of remarkable Events, Discoveries, and Inventions, from the earliest period to the present time; as also a Genealogical Table of all the Sovereigns in the World.

Considerable as our additions may seem, yet our Readers may be assured, that the omissions, in order to make room for them, are such as the nicest critic must allow to be immaterial: the parts expunged were generally such as were not founded on authenticity, and did not tally with our recent accounts; others were mere tautologies, and therefore could be well spared; upon the whole, however, the present edition is in every department more copious than any other, and the Public are now presented with a New Historical and Commercial System of Geography, which contains every interesting particular in the most explicit manner, without making too voluminous a size, or being reduced to an insignificant abstract.

To the original Author, the ingenious Guthrie, is certainly due not only the plan, but the groundwork of this great undertaking; from our improvements, however, we hope to derive some credit, having, with unremitting attention, applied ourselves to the arduous task, and by the most laborious researches, endeavoured to complete the great object in view. The extremes of prolixity and brevity are equally avoided, and all the errors of former editions removed, and their deficiencies supplied. To enter into any specious preamble for introducing a new Edition of this useful and popular undertaking, would be in our opinion both arrogant and presumptive. An age so enlightened and refined as the present, becomes soon sensible of what is rational and worthy of attention—for us, therefore, to prescribe, would be the height of presumption, and to expatiate upon our merits, an insult to the understanding of our Readers, who are undoubtedly the most capable of judging, and therefore the most proper to decide. To their candid inspection, we shall of course submit the fruits of our perseverance and labour, which, if accounted ripe and salutary, will be an ample compensation for the pains we have taken: and we doubt not, since in these polite days, the study of Geography is now become both universal and fashionable, and which, doubtless, has tended in a great measure to assist and promote the refinement of the present age, that this work will receive not only the approbation, but the patronage, of a discerning Public; and as it includes all the most recent observations and discoveries, which have been made by our late eminent Navigators and Geographical Travellers, which are in any degree interesting and worthy of insertion, that consequently THIS Edition, being the LAST, will have the preference of ALL OTHERS, and be entitled to a candid examination. Those who have consulted the former editions, will be most capable of seeing the superiority of the present, and relying on our own assiduity, improvements, and accuracy (so far we must presume), we are convinced that every impartial Reader will, on a fair and unbiassed scrutiny, perceive the several advantages of this New Edition: resting on this hope, and assured of public favour, we shall wave any further preface discourse, and leave the work, now in maturity, to speak for itself, doubting not, but it will receive that encouragement and popularity which so distinguished it in its infant state.

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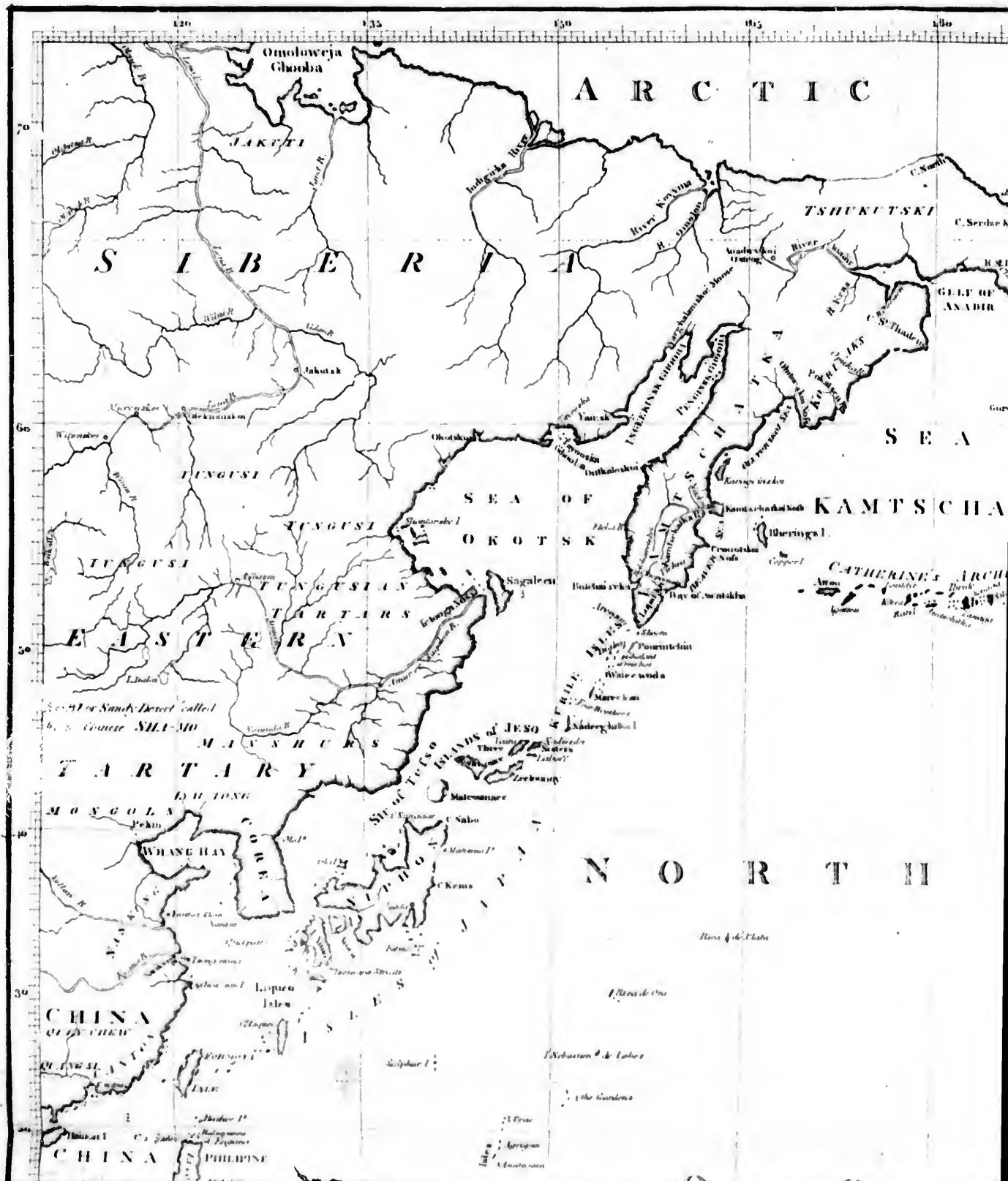
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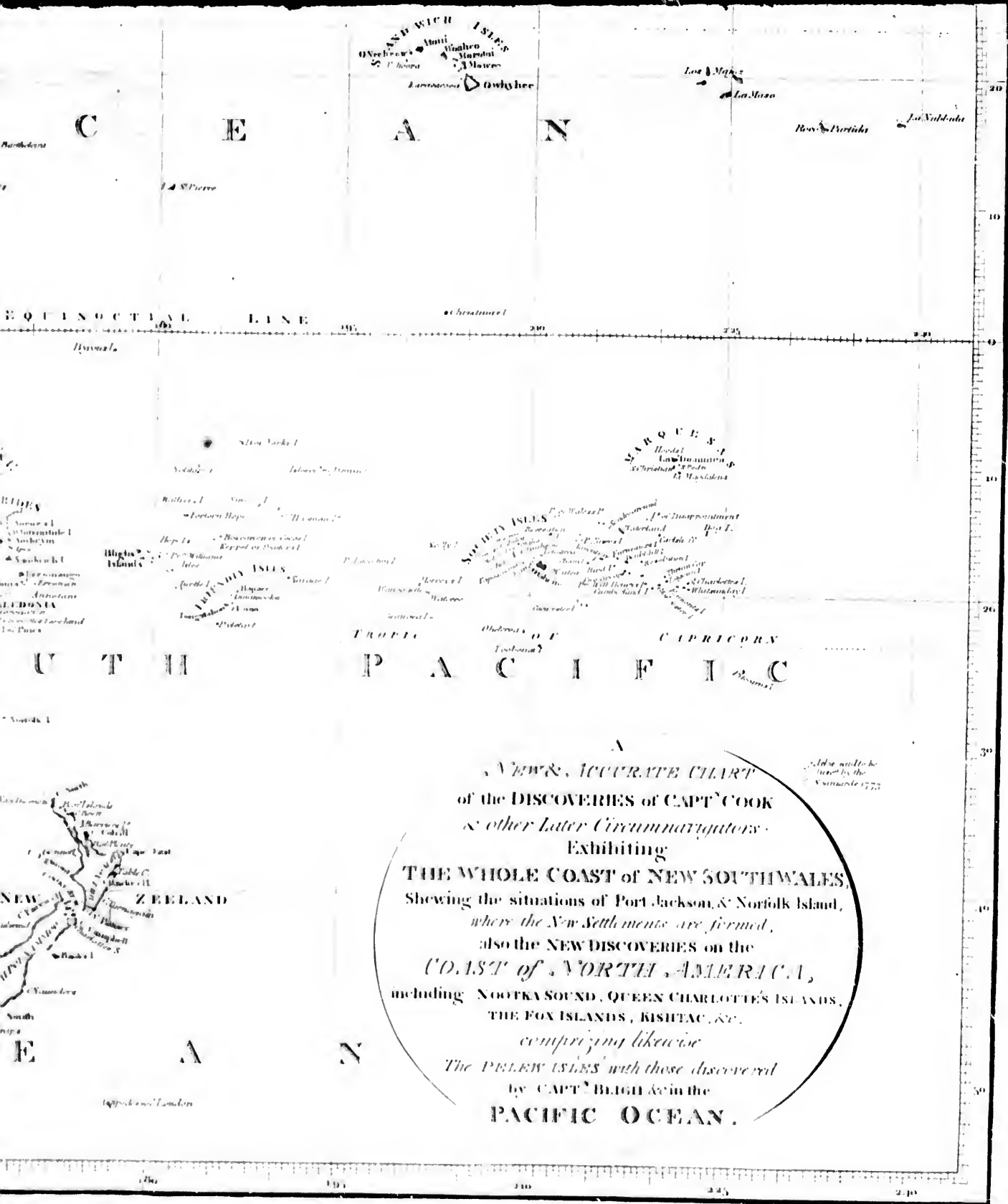
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A VIEW & ACCURATE CHART
of the DISCOVERIES of CAPT. COOK
& other Later Circumnavigators
Exhibiting
THE WHOLE COAST of NEW SOUTH WALES,
Shewing the situations of Port Jackson, & Norfolk Island,
where the New Settlements are formed,
also the NEW DISCOVERIES on the
COAST of NORTH AMERICA,
including NOOTKA SOUND, QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLANDS,
THE FOX ISLANDS, KISITAC, &c.
comprising likewise
The PELEW ISLANDS with those discovered
by CAPT. BLIGH & in the
PACIFIC OCEAN.

*John Mitchell
Surveyor General
Sydney 1777*

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A NEW
COMPLETE AND AUTHENTIC
SYSTEM
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BOOK I.
NEW DISCOVERIES.

INTRODUCTION.

IN the Disposition of a Plan of GEOGRAPHY, as there will always be a wide Field open before the Writer, it is a nice Part of his Business to determine, from what Part he shall begin his Literary Journey. However, as is already hinted in the Preface, the Curiosity of People in general, the Importance of the Subject, and other Circumstances, have induced us to begin with the NEW DISCOVERIES, though in Date more modern than any other Articles. The Expedition planned by the ENGLISH GOVERNMENT for the Transportation of CONVICTS, and the planting a COLONY in a Part of that immense Tract in the *Southern Clime*, called NEW HOLLAND; in particular, having excited the CURIOSITY of the PUBLIC, and given rise to many Speculations respecting its Consequences, will be sufficient Authority for our beginning this Work with a particular Description of NEW HOLLAND, comprehending PORT-JACKSON, where the Operations for forming the Colony commenced; BOTANY-BAY, the Spot first destined for the Establishment of the Colony; NORFOLK-ISLAND, another Settlement, and all the Places in that Quarter which have been visited by the late NAVIGATORS. These Accounts will comprise, in the whole, a general VIEW of the COUNTRY, its Productions, Inhabitants, &c. as displayed in the NARRATIVES not only of the celebrated Captain COOK, but the Accounts of Captains KING, BALL, HUNTER, and all those who have lately explored this immense Tract.

CHAP. I.

NEW HOLLAND.

General Description of it, and its Discovery by Captain COOK. Particular Account of BOTANY-BAY, PORT-JACKSON, NORFOLK-ISLAND, &c. including the latest Discoveries, by Captains KING, BALL, and HUNTER.

THIS immense tract in the southern clime, called New Holland, from its having been chiefly explored by Dutch navigators, was never ascertained as an island or continent, till Captain Cook, with an ardour and perseverance peculiar to himself, and which distinguished him from predecessors of every

country, explored it on the easternmost coast in 1770, and discovered it to be an island of vast extent, reaching from 10 to 44 degrees south, and between 110 and 154 degrees east of London.

The respective parts on this coast being discovered by different navigators at different periods of time, they had names given them by those who discovered them. Thus, the first land discovered in these parts was called Eendragt (or Concord) Land, from the name of the vessel in which the discovery was made in 1616, in 24 deg. 25 min. south. The next situated in 15 deg. south, was called Arnheim and Diemen, by Zeehen, who discovered it in 1618, though not the same part with that afterwards called Diemen's Land, by Tasman, which is the southern extremity of the island, in latitude 43 degrees,

groes, and was discovered in 1642. Jan Van Edels gave his name to a southern part discovered by him in 1619. A coast that communicates to Leawen's land towards the westward, and a part of the western coast, near the tropic of Capricorn, was called De Witts, from Peter Van Nuits, who discovered them in 1627, as was the great gulph of Carpentaria, between 10 and 20 degrees south, from Peter Carpenter, a Dutchman, who discovered it in 1628. Dampier, an Englishman, sailed from Timor in 1687, and coasted the western parts of New Holland. In 1699, as the Dutch suppressed their discoveries, he left England in order to explore this country, and sailing along the western coast, from 28 to 15 degrees, saw the land of Eendragt and of De Witt. Returning to Timor, he set out from thence to prosecute his design, explored the isles of Papua, sailed round New Guinea, discovered the passage that bears his name, afterwards gave the appellation of New Britain to a considerable island that forms this passage, and then returned to Timor by the way of New Guinea. Captain Cook, in consequence of his discovery, gave it the name of.

NEW SOUTH-WALES.

This country is in general low and level, and, upon the whole, rather barren than fruitful, yet the rising ground is chequered with woods and lawns, and the vallies and plains are, in many places, covered with herbage. The face of the country is by far most pleasing to the southward, the trees in that quarter being taller, and the herbage more verdant, than towards the northward; the grass in general is high but thin, and the trees, where largest, are seldom less than forty feet asunder. The whole eastern coast is well watered by small brooks and springs. Though there are no great rivers, these brooks might probably be increased in rainy weather; it being the height of the dry season when visited by Captain Cook.

Of timber-trees, there are but two sorts; the largest is the gum-tree, which grows all over the island; it produces a gum of a deep red; the wood is heavy, hard, and dark-coloured, resembling the lignum vitæ, with narrow leaves, like those of the willow. The other is a sort of pine, something like the live oak of America. Of palm-trees there are three sorts. There is also a kind of cherry-tree and trees with a red apple, as also trees with a soft bark, which is easily peeled off, and is the same with that used for calking ships in the East-Indies. Though there are but few esculent plants in these parts, they afford a variety of such as are adapted to gratify the curiosity of the naturalist.

In this country there were not many animals seen: the only tame ones were dogs. Of the wild species of quadrupeds, was a kind of opossum, about the size of a large rat, a creature with a membranous bag near the stomach, in which it conceals and carries its young when apprehensive of danger. There is a remarkable animal, called by the natives kangaroo, which, when

full grown, is as large as a sheep, some weighing upwards of eighty pounds. It goes in an erect posture, and its motion is by successive leaps or hops of a great length. The skin is covered with a short fur of a dark mouse or grey colour, except the head and ears, which are somewhat like those of a hare, which it also resembles in taste, but is deemed better flavoured. They have likewise an animal resembling a pole-cat, which the natives call *quoll*; the back is brown spotted with white, and the belly is unmixed white. It was also affirmed by some of Captain Cook's people, that they had seen some animals of the wolf and weazel kind; but as they were not caught, they cannot be described.

There are gulls, shaggs, solan-geese, or gannets, of two sorts, boobies, noddies, curleues, ducks, and pelicans of an enormous size. The principal land birds are brown hawks or eagles, crows, large pigeons, parrots, paroquets, cockatoos or doves, quails, bustards, herons, cranes, and many others. Here are serpents, of which some are venomous, others harmless, scorpions, centipedes, and lizards.

The most remarkable insect found in this country is the ant, of which there are several sorts; one is green, and builds its nest upon trees, by bending down several leaves, each of which is as broad as a man's hand, and gluing the points of them together, so as to form a purse. Thousands of these busy insects were seen uniting all their strength to hold the leaves in due position, while other busy multitudes were employed within, in applying the gluten, which is an animal juice, to prevent their returning back. Another kind burrows in the root of a plant which grows on the bark of trees, in the manner of mistletoe, and is about the size of a large turnip. When cut, it appears intersected by innumerable winding passages, all filled with these insects; yet the vegetation of the plant does not appear to suffer any injury. Another sort are black; their habitations are the inside of the branches of trees, which they render hollow by working out the pith, almost to the extremity of the twigs, yet the tree flourishes at the same time, as if it had no such inmates. These three species of ants are all furnished with stings, which cause a kind of pungent titillation; but it soon ceases. There is still another sort possessing no power of tormenting; they resemble the white ants of the East-Indies, and the construction of their habitations is still more curious than that of the former. They have two sorts, one suspended on the branches of trees, and the other built on the ground. The materials of the first seem to be formed of small parts of vegetables knaded together with a glutinous matter, with which nature has probably supplied them. Upon breaking the outside of this dwelling, innumerable cells, swarming with inhabitants, appear in a great variety of winding directions, all communicating with each other, and with several apertures that lead to other nests upon the same tree. Their habitations upon the ground are generally at the root of a tree. They are of different sizes, formed like an irregular sided cone, and

and sometimes more than six feet high. The outside is of well tempered clay, about two inches thick; and within are the cells, which have no opening outward. These structures are proof against any wet that can fall, which those on the trees are not, from the nature and thinness of their crust or wall.

Here are abundance of fish, and of various kinds, but unknown in Europe, except the muller and some of the shell-fish. Upon the shoals and reefs are great quantities of the finest green turtle in the world, and oysters of various kinds, particularly the rock and pearl oyster. In the rivers and salt creeks are alligators.

This extensive country appears to be very thinly inhabited; as the natives along the coast seldom appear in larger companies together than thirty. The inland parts are, most probably, quite uninhabited, as no part of the coast that was visited had any appearance of cultivation; and the wretched natives drew their whole subsistence from the sea. The whole tribe, with which any intercourse was established, consisted of twenty-one persons, twelve men, seven women, a boy, and a girl.

The men are of middle stature; their complexion is nearly of a chocolate colour, their features tolerable, their eyes pretty good, and their teeth rather even and regular. Their hair, which naturally grows long and black, they crop short; their beards grow bushy and thick, but they keep them short by singeing them. In general, they are clean limbed, and remarkably vigorous, active, and nimble. Their countenances are not without expression; but their voices are remarkably soft and effeminate.

Though both sexes go stark naked, as described by Captain Cook, yet they are not without their ornaments, the principal of which is a bone, which they thrust through the cartilage that divides the nostrils from each other, and reaching quite across the face, causes the wearer to snuffle, so as scarcely to be understood, and obliges him to keep his mouth constantly open in order to breathe freely. Besides this nose-ornament, they wear necklaces made of shells, bracelets of small cords wound two or three times about the upper part of the arm, and a string of human hair plaited, about as thick as a thread of yarn, tied round the waist. Some had large gorgets of shells hanging on the breast, and a few women had feathers on their heads stuck on with gum.

The natives paint their bodies both white and red, and draw a circle of white round each eye; they have holes in their ears; but were not seen to wear any thing in them. On their bodies were several large scars in irregular lines, apparently made by some blunt instruments, probably as memorials of grief for the dead.

Neither town nor village appeared in the whole country, nor did either art or industry appear in the construction of their houses, if they can be so called. They are built with pliable rods, not thicker than a finger, in the form of an oven, by bending them and sticking the two ends to the ground. The covering is of

palm leaves and pieces of bark, and the entrance by a large hole at one end, opposite to which the fire is made. Some of them are just high enough to sit upright in, but not large enough for a man to extend himself in any direction; so that the tenants of these hovels are under the necessity of coiling themselves up with their heels to their heads, in order to make room for three or four of them to sleep together. The warmer the weather, the slihter the sheds are constructed; one side is entirely open, and none of them are more than four feet deep. They are put up occasionally as exigence may require, and left behind them when they remove to another spot. When they take up their residence only for a night in a place, they put up no shed, but repose on the bushes and grass, which grows here to a great height.

Their utensils are a vessel made of bark to hold the water they fetch from springs, and a bag about the size of a moderate cabbage-net, which the men carry upon their backs with a string which passes over their heads. It contains paint, fish-hooks, darts, and bracelets, which compose the whole property of the richest men amongst them. Their fish-hooks, of which many are extremely small, are made with great nicety, and their mode of striking turtle is curious. For this purpose they have a wooden peg, about a foot in length, and well bearded. This fits into a socket at the end of a staff of light wood, in length about seven or eight feet, and about the thickness of a man's wrist. One end of a loose line, about three or four fathoms long, is tied to the staff, and the other end fastened to the peg. In order to strike the turtle, the peg is fixed into the socket, so that when it has entered the body, and is there retained by the barbs, the staff flies off, and serves for a float to trace their victim in the water.

Fish indeed is their chief food, though they sometimes contrive to kill the kangaroo, and birds of various kinds. They either broil or bake their provisions by the help of hot stones, like the inhabitants of the South-sea islands, for there is no appearance of their eating any animal-food raw. The only vegetable that can be considered as an article of food is the yam, though they may probably eat of those very few fruits the country produces.

To produce fire, they take two pieces of soft dry wood, one a round stick about eight or nine inches long, the other piece is flat. One end of the round piece they shape into a bluntish point, and make a hole in the flat piece. In this hole they twist the end of the stick, in the manner that we do a chocolate-mill, pressing it down in the hole as much as possible. By this method they get fire in less than two minutes, and from the smallest spark increase it with astonishing speed and dexterity. They will wrap up a spark in a little dry grass, which by moving will be fanned into a blaze. Thus a man will run on for miles, and without any fire visible in his hands, will, at a hundred yards or less, stoop down and leave fire behind him. The principal means of annoying their European visitors, was by setting fire to the high grass in the neighbourhood of the place where

where the tents were fixed, which being very dry, burnt with great rapidity, and did much damage.

Spears or lances of different kinds, some with four prongs, pointed with bone and barbed, are their weapons. The points are smeared with hard resin, which gives them a polish, and makes them enter deeper into what they strike. To the northward, the lance has but one point, the shaft is made of cane very straight and light, and from eight to fourteen feet long. These weapons are thrown with great force and dexterity; if intended to wound at a short distance, as from ten to twenty yards, simply with the hand, but if at the distance of forty or fifty yards, with a throwing stick, and that with so good an aim, that the natives are as sure of their mark as the most expert sportsman with a fowling-piece. These lances cannot be drawn out of a wound without tearing away the flesh, or leaving the sharp ragged splinters of the bone or shell which forms the barb behind them.

The canoes of this country make as wretched an appearance as their dwellings. Those on the southern part of the coast are made of one piece of bark, tied together at the ends, and kept open in the middle by small bows of wood. In shallow water, they push them on by a pole; in deeper, by paddles about eighteen inches long, two of which they use at a time. To the northward, they are made of the trunk of a tree hollowed out by fire. They are about fourteen feet in length, very narrow, and fitted with an out-rigger to prevent their over-setting. None of these boats will carry more than four people.

The only tools seen among them were an adze clumsily made of stone, some small pieces of the same substance in form of a wedge, a wooden mallet, and some shells and fragments of coral.

The New-Hollanders have no idea of traffic, for though they received the things that were given them, they appeared wholly insensible to all the signs that were made them that something was expected in return. Many of the trinkets that were given them were afterwards found negligently thrown away in the woods, like toys, the charms of which ceased with their novelty.

The cause of the small number of the human species which are to be met with throughout this country cannot be ascertained; but from their total ignorance of agriculture, commerce, and the means of procuring the comforts and conveniences of life, they appear such as Europeans would rank among the most miserable of the human species.

B O T A N Y - B A Y .

Its several Productions; also the Genius and Customs of the Inhabitants.

GOVERNMENT having formed a design to remove the great inconvenience which this country suffered, from the goals being so exceedingly crowded

with criminals, who had by the laws been sentenced to transportation, determined, for this necessary purpose, to establish a settlement on the east coast of New Holland; and as Botany-Bay was the only place entered by Captain Cook's ship, which could be called a harbour, it was fixed on as the most convenient place for the intended purpose.

This place was called Botany-Bay, from the great quantity of plants collected there; and the spot where our new settlement is made, lies in latitude 34 south, and in longitude from Greenwich 151 degrees 23 minutes. Captain Cook describes it as capacious, safe, and convenient; to be known by the land on the sea coast, which is nearly level and of a moderate height, with steep rocky cliffs next the sea, which have the appearance of a long island lying close under the shore. About the middle of this land lies the harbour, which, on approaching it from the southward, is discovered before the vessel comes abreast of it, but is not discovered so soon from the northward: the entrance is little more than a quarter of a mile, and lies to the W. N. W.

There are but two kinds of timber-wood here. The trees are as large, or larger than the English oak, and one of them has some resemblance of it. It is that which yields the reddish gum like dragons blood, and the wood is heavy, hard, and dark-coloured like *lignum vite*. The other, which grows tall and straight, is something like the pine; and the wood of it, which bears some similitude to the live oak of America, is likewise hard and heavy. There are a few shrubs and several kinds of palm: mangroves abound towards the head of the bay.

The country in general, as far as it was observed, is level, low, and woody. In the woods are great numbers of birds of exquisite beauty, particularly of the parrot kind; there were found also crows exactly similar to those in England. There is great plenty of water fowl towards the head of the harbour, where are large flats of sand and mud, but their species is chiefly unknown. One of the most remarkable was black and white, much larger than a swan, and in shape somewhat resembling a pelican. The banks of sand and mud produced great quantities of oysters, muscles, cockles, and other shell fish, which seem to be the chief subsistence of the inhabitants, who go in shoal water with their little canoes, and gather them up. Besides these, they catch other fish, some of which they strike with gigs, and some they take with hook and line.

Of their precise manner of life little can be known, as no connection was formed with them, for they never afforded an European navigator an opportunity for a party, nor would they touch any one article that was left in their huts (or any places they frequented) on purpose for them to take away.

From the place where the ship anchored in April 1770, which was abreast of a small village consisting of six or eight houses, as the men were preparing to hoist out the boat, they observed an old woman and three children

drum come out of the wood, where they had been to fetch materials for firing. She frequently cast an eye towards the vessel, but expressed neither in look or gesture the smallest degree of fear or surprize. Having kindled a fire, some men landed from four canoes that came in from fishing, and having hauled up their boats began to prepare their food, wholly unconcerned about the strangers, though within only half a mile of them. They had not yet seen one of them but what was stark naked, the old woman herself being destitute of the least covering.

A company set out from the ship (with Tupia, one of the natives of that clime, of the party) with a design of landing on the spot where they saw the people, hoping to meet no interruption, as they so little regarded their coming into the bay. But they found themselves disappointed, for as soon as they approached the rock, two of the natives came down, each armed with a lance about ten feet long, and a short stick which appeared to be used as a machine to assist them in throwing it. They seemed determined to defend their coast, though the party that landed were forty in number.

Tupia, above-mentioned, was a native of Otaheite, visited by Captain Cook previous to his arrival here. This man was so firmly attached to our people, from being almost constantly with them during their stay in his own country, that he often expressed a desire of going with them. To have such a person on board was certainly desirable, for many reasons. He was a man of the first rank in his country, and had great experience in navigation. By learning his language, and teaching him theirs, our people might derive much useful information; and as there was reason to apprehend there was great similarity (as appeared in the instance of New Zealand) between the languages of the natives of these southern climes, he might occasionally serve as an interpreter. In fine, as he was evidently a man of genius and science, Captain Cook gladly admitted him and his servant on board, on the ship's departure from Otaheite. But to return:

The Captain, with his wonted humanity, being desirous of preventing hostilities with such inequality of force, ordered the boat's crew to lie upon their oars, when they parlied by signs, and to procure their good will he caused nails, beads, and other trifles to be thrown to them, which they took up with apparent satisfaction. Signs were then made by the Europeans, that they wanted water, and every means used that could be devised to prevail with them to believe the innocence of their design. The natives waving to them being interpreted as an invitation, they put on the boat, but the men on shore resumed their posture of defence. One appeared to be a youth about nineteen or twenty, and the other a man of middle age. Captain Cook, now urged by necessity, fired a musket between them, upon the report of which, the younger dropped a bundle of lances, but, upon instantaneous recollection, snatched them up in great haste. Two discharges of

small-shot from the musket on the one party, and a discharge of a stone and a lance from the other ensued, in consequence of which the eldest of the natives was slightly wounded in the legs, but the Europeans received no hurt; when on the suggestion of Mr. Banks (now Sir Joseph) that the lances might be poisoned, it was deemed imprudent to venture into the woods. They then visited the huts, in one of which were some children hid behind a shield, and some bark. They were left in their retreat without knowing they had been discovered, and the visitors on their departure threw in some beads, ribbons, pieces of cloth, and other presents, in order to conciliate the inhabitants on their return. They took away with them all the lances they found lying about, to the number of fifty. They were in length from six to fifteen feet, had four prongs like a fish-gig, each pointed with a fish bone, and very sharp. They were smeared with a viscous substance, of a green colour, which favoured the opinion of their being poisoned; though it proved after to be a mistake, for it was discovered from the sea weed that adhered to them, that they had been used for the purpose of striking fish.

The canoes on the beach seemed to be the worst that had been seen. They were between twelve and fourteen feet long, and made of the bark of a tree in one piece, which had been drawn together and tied up at each end, the middle being kept open by sticks, which were placed from gunwale to gunwale as thwarts. It was now remarked that this boldness of the natives dwindled into a general trepidation; not only from the small-shot which had been discharged at the two champions who first defended the coast, but likewise the havock made by the small arms amongst the birds.

The Europeans having re-embarked in their boat, deposited their lances on board, and proceeded to the north point of the bay, but the inhabitants they had seen on their entrance, had by this time totally deserted it. Upon going on shore the following day in quest of water, a small stream was found fully answerable to their purpose. It was observed by some of the officers, upon revisiting the huts, that the beads, ribbons, &c. which had been left there the preceding night, remained in the very same place untouched, nor was there an Indian to be seen. Those also whom they saw upon a future excursion, fled at their approach, as they did upon every like occasion.

In process of time, Captain Cook, accompanied by Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and seven others, determined to make an excursion into the country, and having properly accoutred themselves for the expedition, set out and first visited the huts, near the watering place, where some of the natives daily resorted; and though they found the presents still remained untouched, they left other articles of more value, and then went up into the country. The soil was found to be either swamp or light sand, and the face of the country to be pleasingly

variegated by woods and lawns. The trees are tall, straight, and stand at such a distance from each other, that the whole country, or that part at least where the swamps do not interpose, might be cultivated without felling one of them. The ground between the trees is covered with grass, of which there is great abundance growing in tufts as large as can be grasped in the hand, which stand very close to each other. Many sheds of the natives, and places where they had slept on the grass, without any shelter, were seen; but only one of the people, who fled the moment he was discovered. Presents were left at all these places, with the same view as before, of producing confidence.

With respect to discoveries on this first excursion, it is noticed, that they had a transient and imperfect view of a quadruped about the size of a rabbit. An English greyhound, which was with them, got sight of it, and would probably have caught it, had he not been lamed by a stump that lay concealed in the grass. They afterwards saw the dung of an animal that fed upon grass, and which they judged could not be less than a deer; and the footsteps of another, which was clawed like a dog, and seemed about the size of a wolf. They also traced a small animal, whose foot resembled that of a pole-cat or weazle. Birds of various kinds were seen in their trees, some of them of exquisite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos, which flew in numerous flocks. The trees were not of many sorts, but it appeared that steps had been cut in some of them at certain distances for the convenience of climbing.

The same party made another excursion along the sea coast to the southward, and the next day gathered many plants, besides which they saw nothing worthy of notice. But Captain Cook, with his wonted perseverance, went with two ingenious gentlemen to the head of the bay, in order to explore that part of the country, and make further attempts to form some connection with the natives. Proceeding up the country to some distance, they found the face of it nearly the same with that which has been already described; but the soil was much richer, for instead of sand, there was discovered a deep black mould, which appeared very fit for the production of grain of any kind. In the woods was found a tree which bore fruit that in colour and shape resembled a cherry, the juice was agreeably tart, though it had but little flavour. Interspersed were some very fine meadows; some places were rocky, but those were comparatively few; the stone is sandy and fit for building.

A petty officer, having straggled a long way from his companions, met with a very old man and woman and some little children sitting under a tree by the water side, and though neither party saw the other till they were close together, the Indians shewed signs of fear, but did not attempt to run away. The man and woman were both grey headed with age, the hair on the man's head was bushy, and his beard long and rough, the woman's hair was cropped, and both of them were stark

naked. Another party afterwards went over to the north shore, and made an excursion a few miles into the country, proceeding afterwards in the direction of the coast. This part was found without wood, and somewhat resembling the marshes in England. The surface of the ground was covered with a thin brush of plants about as high as the knees: the hills near the coast are low, but others rise behind them, increasing by a gradual ascent to a considerable distance, with marshes and morasses between.

To the northward is Hervey's-Bay, in which was found a real mangrove, such as grows in the West-Indies, and the first of the kind met with in these seas. In the branches of this mangrove were many nests of a remarkable kind of ant as green as grass. There were also seen upon them great numbers of small green caterpillars, their foreheads were thick set with hairs, and they were ranged upon the leaves side by side like a file of soldiers to the number of twenty or thirty together. The hair of their bodies on touching them was found to have the quality of a nettle, and gave a much more acute though less durable pain.

A species of the bustard was found further to the northward, as large as a turkey, one of which weighed seventeen pounds and an half. Those who partook of it allowed it to be the best bird they had tasted since they left England; and in honour of it they called the inlet Bustard-Bay. It lies in latitude 24 degrees 4 minutes, and 151 degrees 42 minutes east. Here are oysters in great plenty; amongst others, the hammer oyster, and abundance of small pearl oysters, from whence Captain Cook took occasion to remark, "that if in deeper water there was equal plenty of such oysters at their full growth, a pearl fishery might be established here to very great advantage.

During the stay of the English in the harbour, they caused the British colours to be displayed on shore every day, and the ship's name and the date of the year to be inscribed on one of the trees near the watering place, to perpetuate the memory of their transactions; and on the 6th of May they set sail from New Holland.

Along the coast of New South-Wales the sea in all parts conceals shoals that suddenly project from the shore, and rocks that abruptly rise like a pyramid from the bottom for an extent of 22 degrees latitude, more than 1300 miles. Off Cape Tribulation our bold and hitherto fortunate adventurers very nearly escaped the miseries of shipwreck; for on the 10th of June 1770, at eleven o'clock at night, the ship suddenly struck against a coral rock and became immovable, except by the heaving of the surge, which beat her against the crags of the rock upon which she lay, and caused so violent a concussion, that it was with the utmost difficulty the ablest man on board could stand upon his legs. At length, after a series of hardships, fatigue, and danger, they were happily delivered, and the river which afforded them relief in this emergency was named *Endeavour River*.

Captain

Captain Cook, being resolved to determine whether this country did or did not join to New Guinea, in effecting his design braved such dangers as would have appalled the resolution of any man whose spirit for discovery had not absorbed all regard to personal safety. After much investigation he found the two countries to be divided by a narrow sea, which he therefore called *Endeavour Straights*.

The most northern promontory of the country is York Cape, in 142 degrees east longitude; 10 degrees 37 minutes south latitude. On a small island our countryman took possession of the whole eastern coast in right of his Majesty King George the Third, by the name of New South-Wales, on which account the island received the name of Possession-Island. Here the few inhabitants that were seen, both men and women, were also stark naked. Endeavour Straights are ten leagues long from north-east to south-west, and about five leagues broad. The north-east entrance of this passage is formed by New Holland, and the south-east by an assemblage of islands, which have been called the Prince of Wales's Islands, and probably extend near to New Guinea. Monsieur de Bougainville, the celebrated French navigator, who came just at the entrance of these Straights to the most south-east parts of New Guinea, called that sea, "The Gulph of the Louisiade," the Straights since navigated by Captain Cook being not known to exist.

Before we leave Botany-Bay, we presume the following short account of the proceedings in trying offenders in the criminal courts there (as related by Captain Hunter, in his Historical Journal) will be acceptable to our readers: "The judge-advocate issues his precept for the three senior naval officers, and their military officers, to assemble at the time appointed, dressed in their uniforms and their side-arms. When they are met, the judge-advocate administers an oath to the members, similar to that which is used at military courts-martial; afterwards, one of the members administers the same oath to the judge-advocate who presides at the court, and the rest take their seats according to their rank. The prisoner is then asked, whether he is guilty or not, and, as the general answer is, Not Guilty, the accusations against him are read, and witnesses are examined on oath to support or prove the charge; after which the prisoner enters on his defence, and brings evidence to prove his innocence: the court is then cleared, and the members consider what sentence to pronounce; if it be death, five out of the seven must concur in opinion. The governor can respite a criminal condemned to die, and the legislature has fully empowered him to execute the sentence of the law, or to temper it with mercy. Actions for debt, to a certain amount, are cognizable by this court, as are all other actions of common law, when they are decided according to the law of England, as nearly as the situation will allow.

PORT - JACKSON.

Description of the Country, and its Produce. Some Account of the Natives; their Disposition, Weapons, Ornaments, &c.

AS nothing was found in Botany-Bay to recommend it as a place on which to form an infant settlement; the governor, accompanied by Captain Hunter, and two other officers, soon discovered a large opening, or bay, about three leagues and a half to the northward of Cape Banks; and such was their account of the harbour, and the advantages attending the place, upon their return, that a resolution was formed of evacuating Botany-Bay, and fixing their residence here.

At day-break a general alarm was given, by the appearance of two ships, of considerable size, standing in for the mouth of the bay, it being the prevailing opinion that they were Dutchmen, sent to assert a claim to the country. The two strangers proved to be the Buffalo and Astrolabe, which sailed from Brest in June 1785, upon discoveries, and were commanded by Monsieur de la Peyrouse; M. de L'Angle, who commanded one of the ships when they left France, had been lately, when the ships were at the Islands of Navigators, murdered, with several other officers and seamen, by the natives, who had, before that unfortunate day, always appeared to be upon the most friendly and familiar terms with them. This accident, it seems, happened when their launches were on shore filling water, on the last day they intended remaining on those islands. While they were employed in filling their water-casks, having the most perfect confidence in the friendly disposition of the natives, the sailors had been attentive to the keeping the boats afloat. Some misunderstanding having also happened between some of the seamen and the natives, an insult had been offered by one or other, which was resented by the opposite party: a quarrel ensued, and the impossibility of moving the boats exposed the officers and crew to the rage of the multitude, who attacked them with clubs and showers of stones; and would inevitably have massacred the whole, if there had not been a small boat at hand, which picked up those who, depending on their swimming, had quitted the shore. Many of the natives were killed upon this occasion; and the loss of the ships was said to be fourteen persons killed, including Captain de L'Angle, and some other officers; several were much wounded, and the boats were entirely destroyed.

The passage from Botany-Bay to Port-Jackson was both speedy and pleasant. Having passed between the Capes which form its entrance, the fleet arrived at Port-Jackson, one of the finest and most extensive harbours in the universe, and at the same time the most secure, being safe from all the winds that blow. It is divided into a great number of coves, to which the governor has given different names. That on which the town is to be built is called Sydney-Cove. It is one of the

smallest

smallest in the harbour, but the most convenient, as ships of the greatest burden can with ease go into it, and heave out close to the shore. Tricomalée, acknowledged to be one of the best harbours in the world, is by no means to be compared to it. In a word, Port-Jackson would afford sufficient and safe anchorage for all the navies of Europe. During a run up the harbour of about four miles, in a westerly direction, a luxuriant prospect presented itself on the shores, covered with trees to the water's edge, among which many of the Indians were frequently seen, till the fleet arrived at a small snug cove to the southward, on the banks of which the plan of operations were destined to commence. On their arrival, the natives appeared tolerably numerous, from whence they had reason to conclude the country more populous than Captain Cook thought it, as they were assembled on the beach, to the south shore, to the number of not less than forty persons, shouting, and making many uncouth signs and gestures. As the boat, in which were the governor, some officers, and attendants, rowed up the harbour close to the land, for some distance, the Indians kept pace with her on the beach. When signs were made of a want of water, the natives directly comprehended the meaning, and pointed to a spot where it could be procured; on which the boat was immediately pushed in, and a landing took place. The Indians, though timorous, shewed no signs of resentment at our people's going on shore; and when an interview commenced, seemed highly entertained with their new acquaintance, from whom they accepted of a looking-glass, some beads, and other toys.

In the late expedition, the adventurers had several more interviews with the natives, which ended in so friendly a manner, that hopes were entertained of bringing about a connection with them. The first object of our people was to win their affection, and the next to convince them of our superiority. To this purpose an officer one day prevailed on one of them to place a target, made of bark, against a tree, which he fired at with a pistol, at the distance of some paces. The Indians, though terrified at the report, did not run away; but their astonishment exceeded their alarm, on looking at the shield which the ball had perforated. As this produced a little shyness, the officer, to dissipate their fears, and remove their jealousy, whistled the air of *Marlbrouk*, with which they appeared highly charmed, and imitated him with equal pleasure and readiness.

Upon this occasion an officer remarked, that he was afterwards told by Monsieur de Peyroust, the French commandant before mentioned, that the natives of California, and throughout all the islands of the Pacific Ocean, and, in short, wherever he had been, seemed equally touched and delighted with this little plaintive air.

Some of the officers one day met a native, an old man, in the woods. He had a beard of considerable length, which his new acquaintance gave him to understand, by signals, they would rid him of, if he pleased;

stroking their chins, and shewing him the smoothness of them at the same time. At length the old Indian consented; and one of the officers, taking a penknife from his pocket, and making use of the best substitute for lather he could find, performed the operation with great success, and, as it proved, much to the liking of the old man, who, in a few days after, reposed a confidence in our people, of which they had hitherto known no example, by paddling along-side one of the ships in his canoe, and pointing to his beard. Various arts were ineffectually tried to induce him to enter the ship; but as he continued to decline the invitation, a barber was sent down into the boat along-side the canoe, from whence leaning over the gunwale, he complied with the wish of the old man, to his infinite satisfaction. In addition to the consequences expected from this dawning of cordiality, it afforded proof, that the beard is considered by these people more as an incumbrance than a mark of dignity.

After transacting the necessary previous business, the commissions were upon an appointed day read, and possession was taken of the settlement in form. The marine battalion being drawn up, and the convicts assembled on the occasion, his Majesty's commission was read, appointing his Excellency Arthur Phillip, Esq. Governor and Captain-General in and over the territory of New South-Wales, and its dependencies; together with the acts of parliament for establishing trials by law within the same; and the patents, under the great seal of Great-Britain, for holding civil and criminal courts of judicature, by which all cases of life and death, as well as matters of property were to be decided.

The extent of this authority is defined, in the governor's commission, to reach from the latitude of 43 deg. 49 min. south, to the latitude of 10 deg. 37 min. south, being the northern and southern extremities of New Holland. It commences again at the 135th degree of longitude east, and proceeding in an easterly direction, comprehends all islands within the limits of the above specified latitudes in the Pacific Ocean. As the discoveries of English navigators alone are comprised in this territory, it is presumed, this partition will obviate all cause of future litigation between us and the Dutch. It appears from the commission, considered in the whole, that government have been no less attentive in arming Mr. Phillip with plenitude of power, than extent of dominion.

In order to enforce the rigour of the law, it was found necessary to restrain the violation of public security. A set of desperate and hardened miscreants leagued themselves for the purposes of depredation; and, as is generally the case, had insinuation enough to entice others, less versed in iniquity, to become instrumental in carrying it on.

About the middle of March, the French departed from this place, on the prosecution of their voyage; and that during their stay in that part, the officers of the two nations had frequent opportunities of testifying their mutual

mutual regard, by visits, and every token of friendship and zeal. The gentleman to whom we are indebted for this account, mentions Monsieur de Peyrouse with the highest respect, as an officer of eminent qualifications, and a man of exemplary humanity, of which he gave proof, in a striking, as well as laudable, instance of conduct, when ordered to destroy our settlement at Honduras in the last war. He always mentioned the name and talents of Captain Cook in the most feeling manner, and declared, with the utmost frankness and candour, that "our illustrious circumnavigator had left nothing to those who might follow in his track to describe or fill up." Being asked what reception he had met with when he touched at the Sandwich-Islands, his answer is highly worthy of notice: "During the whole of our voyage in the South-Seas, said he, the people of the Sandwich-Islands were the only Indians who never gave us cause of complaint. They furnished us liberally with provisions, and administered cheerfully to all our wants." It is remarked, upon this occasion, with equal candour, that Owhyhee was not one of the islands visited by that navigator.

Captain Hunter observes, "That with a small company he was one day on shore in another part of the harbour, making friendship with a party of the natives, when in a short time their numbers increased to eighty or ninety men, all armed with a lance and throwing-stick, and many with the addition of a shield made of the bark of a tree: some were in shape an oblong square, and others of these shields were oval; these were the first shields we had seen in the country; it has been since found that they are in general made of wood. The natives were much surprised at one of our gentlemen, who, pulling a pistol out of his pocket, that was loaded with ball, and standing at some distance, fired the ball through the thickest part of the shield; which they examined with astonishment, and seemed to wonder that an instrument so small should be capable of wounding so deep.

"The natives were noisy, but did not appear disposed to quarrel; we gave them such little presents as we had with us, with which they seemed well pleased; although we had much reason afterwards to believe that such trifles only pleased them as baubles do children, for a moment; for at other times we had frequently found our presents lying dispersed on the beach, though caught at by these people with apparent avidity at the time they were offered.

"While we were employed with this party, we observed at a distance a number of women, who were peeping from their concealments, but durst not gratify their natural curiosity, by appearing openly and conversing with us; as the men appeared here to be very absolute. I signified to the men, that we had observed the women, and that I wished to make them some presents, if they might be permitted to come forward and receive them. The men seemed unwilling to suffer them to advance; for we had frequently observed, that they took

particular care upon every occasion to keep the women at a distance, and I believe wholly from an idea of danger. They desired to have the presents for the women, and they would carry and deliver them; but to this proposal I positively refused to agree, and made them understand, that unless they were allowed to come forward, they should not have any.

"Finding I was determined, an old man, who seemed to have the principal authority, directed the women to advance, which they did immediately, with much good humour; and, during the whole time that we were decorating them with beads, rags of white linen, and some other trifles, they laughed immoderately, although trembling at the same time through an idea of danger. Most of those we saw at this time were young women, who I judged were from eighteen to twenty-five years of age: they were all perfectly naked, as when first born; are in general well made, not quite so thin as the men, but rather smaller limbed."

The account further observes, that the men, being armed, scarified, and painted, drew themselves up in a line on the beach, and each man had a green bough in his hand, as a sign of friendship; their disposition was as regular as any well disciplined troops could have been; and this party, it was apprehended, they designed entirely for the defence of the women, if any insult had been offered them. At this interview, two very stout men were also placed upon a rock, near to where the boats lay, as sentinels, for they never moved from the spot till the boats left the beach; so that it is probable they were ordered there to watch the motions of their visitors.

As the governor was exploring Broken-Bay, which is contiguous to Port-Jackson, he saw a great number of the natives. One of the females had formed an attachment to his great coat; and to obtain it she used a variety of means. First, she danced and played a number of antic tricks; but finding this mode ineffectual, she had recourse to tears, which she shed plentifully. This expedient not answering, she ceased from weeping, and appeared as cheerful as any of the party around her. We have introduced this incident, to shew that they are not a people devoid of art and finess, in order to obtain their ends; for though their women appeared with such few decorations, yet it was evident they had no aversion to finery.

The surgeon observed, at a repast, wherein he grouped with the natives, one of the women who sat next to him, observing that he had a white handkerchief in his hand, exhibited a number of lascivious airs, in order to obtain it. He therefore tore it into ribbons, being desirous of multiplying one present into many, with which he decorated her head and neck. On her admiring the buttons of his coat, as he had nothing else left, he cut them away, and tied them round her waist. Thus ornamented, and charmed with her acquirements, she turned away with a look of inexpressible archness and joy, which seemed to shew that, like the women in the South-Seas in general, they are fond of new ornaments.

He also observed, that there is no hospitality nor harmony among them; as appeared from their eating so greedily without regarding the accommodation of any about them; devouring the fish voraciously, which had been thrown on the fire and scarcely warm.

These people are very ravenous in their appetites, as appears from the following instance. One of the officers shot a bird, which fell at an old man's feet. The explosion at first greatly alarmed him; but perceiving no ill was intended, he soon got over his fears. The bird was then given to him, which, having barely plucked, and not more than half broiled, he devoured, entrails, bones and all.

A convict, who had been gathering what they call sweet tea, about a mile from the camp, met a party of the natives, consisting of fourteen, by whom he was beaten and wounded with the stick used in throwing their spears. They then made him strip, and would have taken from him his clothes, and probably his life, had it not been for the report of some muskets, which they no sooner heard than they ran away.

The following circumstances will convince us of the destructive nature of their weapons, and their skill and adroitness in the use of them. A convict, being in a state of convalescence, had obtained permission from the governor to go a little way up the country, to gather herbs, for the purpose of making tea. This man, after night set in, was brought to the hospital, with one of the spears used by the natives sticking in his loins. It had been darted at him as he was stooping, and while his back was turned to the assailant. The weapon was barbed, and stuck so very fast, that it would admit of no motion. The surgeon, after dilating the wound to a considerable length and depth, with some difficulty extracted the spear, which had penetrated the flesh nearly three inches. After the operation, the convict gave information, that he had received his wound from three of the natives, who came behind him at a time when he expected no person to be near him, except another convict, whom he had met a little before, employed on the same business as himself. He added, that after they wounded him, they beat him in a cruel manner; and stripping the clothes from his back, carried them off, making signs to him (as he interpreted them) to return to the camp. He further related, that after they had left him, he saw his fellow convict in the possession of another party of the natives, who were dragging him along, with his head bleeding, and seemingly in great distress; while he himself was so exhausted with the loss of blood, that instead of being able to assist his companion, he was happy to escape with his life.

They afterwards continued to avail themselves of every opportunity of exercising their cruelty on our people. An officer of the marines, who had been up the harbour to procure some rushes for thatch, brought to the hospital the bodies of two men employed as ruff-cutters, whom he found murdered by the natives in a shocking manner. One of them was transixed through

the breast with one of their spears, which was extracted with great difficulty and force. He had two other spears sticking in him to a depth which must have proved mortal. His skull was divided and comminuted so much, that his brains easily found a passage through. His eyes were out. The other was a youth, and had only some trifling marks of violence about him. This lad could not have been many hours dead; for when the officer found him among some mangrove trees, and at a considerable distance from where the other man lay, he was not stiff, nor very cold; nor was he perfectly so when brought to the hospital. The natives, whenever an opportunity offers, never fail to steal or destroy any of the live stock they can possibly get possession of. Nor are they less cowardly than cruel; for they always behave with an apparent civility when they fall in with men that are armed; but when they meet persons unarmed, they seldom fail to take every advantage of them; in consequence of which, many of the convicts have fallen sacrifices to these savages: but the soldiers they never assail, being always terrified at the sight of a red coat.

These people are very happy at grimace and mimicry; as an instance of which, it is remarked by the surgeon of the settlement, that, going upon an excursion, they observed a party of the natives sitting, and sat down near the bank, to watch their motions. To pass away time, one of the gentlemen sung several songs; and when he had done, the females in the canoes either sung one of their own songs, or imitated him, in which they succeeded beyond conception. Any thing spoken by our people they most accurately recited, and this in a manner in which the Europeans fell greatly short in their attempts to repeat the language after them, which shews the strength of their organical powers. Nor are they without ingenuity, as appeared from various figures observed by a party of our people on their excursion to the westward. These figures were cut on the smooth surface of some large stones, and consisted chiefly of representations of themselves in different attitudes, of their canoes, of several sorts of fish, and animals: and considering the rudeness of the instruments with which the figures must have been executed, they seemed to exhibit tolerable likenesses.

The natives are generally of the common stature; but their limbs are remarkably small. Their skin is of the colour of wood foot, or what would be called a dark chocolate colour. Their hair is black, but not woolly; it is short, but not cropt; in some lank, in others curled. Some parts of their bodies are painted red; and the upper lip and breasts of some of them are painted with streaks of white. Their features are far from disagreeable; and their teeth even and white. Their voices are soft and tuneable. It is remarked, that the deficiency of one of the fore teeth of the upper jaw, mentioned by Dampier, was seen in almost the whole of the men; but their organs of sight, so far from being defective, as that author mentions those of the inhabitants of the western side of the continent to be, are remarkably

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remarkably quick and piercing. They have bracelets upon the upper part of their arms, made of plaited hair. They are fond of ornament, though absolutely without apparel: and one of them, to whom was given an old shirt, instead of throwing it over any part of the body, tied it as a fillet round his head.

Both men and women go stark naked, and seem to have no more sense of indecency in discovering their whole body, than the inhabitants of England have in discovering their hands and face. Their principal ornament is the bone which they thrust through the cartilage that divides the nostrils from each other. What perversion of taste could induce them to think this a decoration, or what could prompt them, before they had worn it, or seen it worn, to suffer the pain and inconvenience that must of necessity attend it, is perhaps beyond the power of human sagacity to determine. As this bone is as thick as a man's finger, and between five and six inches long, it reaches quite across the face, and so effectually stops up both the nostrils, that they are forced to keep their mouths wide open for breath, and stifle so when they attempt to speak, that they are scarcely intelligible even to each other. The seamen, with some humour, called it the spritsail-yard; and, indeed, it had so ludicrous an appearance, that, till our people were used to it, they found it difficult to refrain from laughter. Besides the nose-jewel, they have necklaces made of shells, very neatly cut and strung together; bracelets of small cord, wound two or three times about the upper part of their arm; and a string of plaited human hair, about as thick as a thread of yarn, tied round the waist. Some of them have also gorgets of shells hanging round the neck, so as to reach across the breast.

Though these people wear no clothes, their bodies have a covering besides the dirt; for they paint them both white and red. The red is commonly laid on in broad patches upon the shoulders and breast; and the white stripes, some narrow and some broad: the narrow are drawn over the limbs, and the broad over the body, not without some degree of taste. The white is also laid on in small patches upon the face, and drawn in a circle round each eye. The red seemed to be ochre, but what the white was could not be discovered: it was close grained, saponaceous to the touch, and heavy. Besides the paint with which they besmear their bodies, they also use grease, or some stinking oily substance, for the same purpose. Some of them ornament their hair with the teeth of fish, fastened on by gum and the skin of the kangaroo.

No marks of disease or sores were found upon their bodies, but large scars, in irregular lines, which appeared to be the remains of wounds they had inflicted upon themselves with some blunt instrument, and which our people understood, by signs, to have been memorials of grief for their dead relations or friends.

They seemed to set so great a value upon such ornaments as they had, that they would never part with the

least article for any thing that could be offered; which was the more extraordinary, as the European beads and ribbons were ornaments of the same kind, but of better form, and more showy materials.

Though, as before observed, both sexes, and those of all ages, are invariably found naked, it must not be inferred from this, that custom so inures them to the change of the elements, as to make them bear, with indifference, the extremes of heat and cold; for they give visible and repeated proofs, that the latter affects them severely, when they are seen shivering and huddling themselves up in heaps in their huts, or the caverns of the rocks, until a fire can be kindled.

These people have no fixed habitations, for nothing can be seen like a town or village in the whole country. Their houses, if so they may be called, are constructed without art or industry. They are built with pliable rods, not thicker than a finger, in the form of an oven, by bending them, and sticking the two ends to the ground. The covering is of plain leaves, and pieces of bark; and the entrance by a large hole at one end, opposite to which the fire is made. Some of them are just high enough to sit upright in, but not large enough for a man to extend himself in any direction; so that the tenants of these hovels are under the necessity of coiling themselves with their heels to their heads, in order to make room for three or four of them to sleep together. The warmer the weather, the slihter the sheds are constructed. One side is entirely open, and none of them are more than four feet deep. They are put up occasionally, as exigence may require, by those people, who may be considered as a wandering herd, in quest of any place that would furnish them with a temporary subsistence, and therefore leave them behind them when they remove to another spot. When they take up their residence only for a night in a place, they put up no shed, but repose on the grass, which grows to a great height in this country.

A kind of oblong vessel was the only furniture belonging to these houses, that fell under observation; it was made of bark, by the simple contrivance of tying up the two ends with a withy, which, not being cut off, serves for a handle. Their chief utensil is a small bag, about the size of a moderate cabbage-net, which is made by laying threads loop within loop, somewhat in the manner used by ladies to make purses. This bag the man carries loose upon his back with a small string, which passes over his head. It generally contains a lump or two of paint or resin, some fish-hooks and lines, a few points of darts, and their usual ornaments, which include all the worldly treasure of the richest man among them.

They are utterly strangers to that useful branch of knowledge, the cultivation of the ground, and wholly depend for food on the few fruits they gather; the roots they dig up in the swamps; and the fish they pick up along shore, or contrive to strike from their canoes with spears. Fishing, indeed, seems to engross nearly the whole

whole of their time, probably from its forming the chief part of their subsistence, which, observation has proved, cannot be procured without the most painful labour, and unwearied assiduity. They sometimes indeed contrive to kill the kangaroo, and some birds; but these are so shy, that our people find it difficult to get within reach of them with a fowling-piece. The only vegetable that can be considered as an article of food is the yam.

Many of their fish-hooks are extremely small, but made with great nicety; and their mode of striking turtle is curious. For this purpose they have a peg of wood, about a foot in length, and well bearded. This fits into a socket, at the end of a staff of light wood, in length about seven or eight feet, and about the thickness of a man's wrist. One end of a loose line, about three or four fathoms long, is tied to the staff, and the other end fastened to the peg. In order to strike the turtle, the peg is fixed into the socket, so that, when it has entered the body, and is there retained by the barb, the staff flies off, and serves for a float to trace their object in the water.

In general they do not eat animal-food raw; but having no vessel in which water can be boiled, they either broil it upon the coals, or bake it in a hole by the help of hot stones.

No signs of any religion has been observed among them, yet they are not entirely ignorant of a future state, as they say the bones of the dead are in the grave, and the body (probably they mean the soul) is in the clouds: Wolarre-warré once asked the judge-advocate, if the white men went to the clouds also?

They put their dead for some time in a fire; after which they are laid at length in a grave, dug very clean out, the bottom being first very carefully covered with long grass, or fern; the body is then put in, and covered over with long grass, and the grave is then filled with earth, the mould rising above it as in England.

Wolarre-warré affirms, that there are apparitions in the country, which he calls *mané*. He describes them as coming up with a strange noise, and catching hold of any one by the throat. He made use of many words on this occasion, and pointed up to the sky. He also related, that these apparitions singe the beards and the hair: this he describes as a very painful operation, rubbing his face after every operation of the brand.

The sun, moon, and stars, they call *woré*, bad. A native girl among our people, once went into very violent convulsions on seeing a falling star, and said, that every body would be destroyed, though some who were about her observed, that she particularly alluded to the *Murray nevée*, the Sirius.

To give some idea of their language: the emu (*mar-vang*), the patagorang, and the menagine, a small animal, are all named *go-along*, which term is supposed to mean an animal, as Wolarre-warré uses it in contradistinction to a bird or a fish. On being asked if the emu was a bird (*binyan*) he shook his head, and said, *go-along*.

He calls Governor Phillip, *beanga*, father, and names himself *dooroo*, son. The judge and commissary he calls *babunna*, brother. Wolarre-warré sings a great deal, and with much variety. The following are some words which were caught: "E eye at wange-wandeliah chiangoo wandego mangenny wakey angoul barre boalah barrema." In counting the numerals, he cannot reckon beyond four; which he does in this manner: One, wogul or ya-ole; two, bulla and yablowxe; three, booroo, or brewé; four, cal-una-long. On laying down a fifth object, he named it with the rest, marry-diola. He calls the four principal winds by the following names: The north, boo-roo-way; the south, bain-mar-ree; the west, bow-wan; the east, gonie-mah. He throws the spear ninety yards with great force and exactness.

The following is the description of a family in New South-Wales: The natives sing an hymn, or song of joy, from day-break until sun-rise. They procure fire with infinite labour, by fixing the pointed end of a round piece of stick into a hole, made in a flat piece of wood, and twirling it round swiftly betwixt both hands, sliding them at the same time upwards and downwards, until the operator is fatigued, when he is relieved by some of his companions, who are all seated in a circle for that purpose, and each takes his turn in the operation, until fire is procured. This being a tedious process, it is no wonder that they are never seen without a piece of lighted wood in their hand.

When equipped for any exploit, the natives are armed with a shield, made of the bark of a tree, with which they very dexterously ward off any thing thrown at them. They have also a bludgeon, or club, about twenty inches long, with a large and pointed end; and sometimes a stone hatchet. These make up the catalogue of their military implements. But the principal means of annoying their European visitors was by setting fire to the high grass, which, being very dry, burnt with great rapidity, and did much damage.

The kangaroo is one of the most valuable animals produced in this island, it grows to a very considerable size; some of them weigh not less than 150 pounds. A male of 130 pounds weight has been killed, whose dimensions were as follow: Extreme length, seven feet three inches; length of the tail, three feet four inches and a half; length of the hinder legs, three feet two inches; length of the fore paws, one foot seven inches and a half; circumference of the tail at the root, one foot five inches. Notwithstanding this, the kangaroo, on being brought forth, is not larger than a rat. In running, this animal confines himself entirely to his hinder legs, which are possessed with an extraordinary muscular power. Their speed is very great, though not in general quite equal to that of a greyhound: but when the greyhounds are so fortunate as to seize them, they are incapable of retaining their hold, from the amazing struggles of the animal. The bound of the kangaroo, when not hard pressed, has been measured, and found to

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exceed twenty feet. At what time of the year they copulate, and in what manner, is not known. The testicles of the male are placed contrary to the usual order of nature.

When young, the kangaroo eats tender and well flavoured, tasting like veal; but the old ones are more tough and stringy than bull-beef. They are not carnivorous, but subsist altogether on particular flowers and grass. Their bleat is mournful, and very different from that of any other animal: it is, however, seldom heard but in the young ones. The female opossum has a pouch, or pocket, in which she carries her young. Some have been shot with a young one, not larger than a walnut, sticking to a teat in this pocket. Others with young ones no bigger than a rat; one of which was most perfectly formed, with every mark and distinguishing characteristic of the kangaroo. Of its natural history at present little is known: from which the author of the latest narratives of the transactions, discoveries, and remarks on this part of the globe, very pertinently infers, that, as so very little knowledge is as yet obtained of its habits, haunts, and customs, to attempt particular and accurate descriptions of it, might beget error, which time, or a fuller knowledge of its properties, would directly contradict. It is further added, that, with respect to mere conjectures (and such too often are imposed on the public for incontestable facts) it cannot be improper to suppress them.

The native dog of this country is much fiercer than the kangaroo. The chase, if in an open field (which is the place most frequented by that animal) is seldom more than eight or ten minutes; and if there are more dogs than one, seldom so long. As soon as the hound seizes him, he turns, and catching hold with the nails of his fore-paws, springs upon and strikes at the dog with the claws of his hind-feet, which are wonderfully strong, and tears him to such a degree, that it has frequently happened, that we have been under the necessity of carrying the dog home, from the severity of his wounds. Few of these animals have ever effected their escape after being seized by the dog, for they have generally caught them by the throat, and there held them until they were assisted, although many of them have very near lost their lives in the struggle. Some of the male kangaroos are of a very large size, and, when sitting on their haunches, were five feet eight inches high. Such an animal is too strong for a single dog, and, though he might be much wounded, would, except the dog had assistance at hand, certainly kill him. These dogs may be more fierce, but they do not appear to be so strong as our large greyhound. There was one seen in pursuit of a kangaroo by a person who was employed in shooting, who, mistaking the two animals, as they passed him to be of the kind he was looking for, he fired at the hindmost and brought him down; but when he came up, it proved to be a native dog. Of those dogs we have had many which were taken when young, but never could cure them of their natural ferocity.

Although well fed, they would at all times, but particularly in the dark, fly at young pigs, chickens, or any small animal which they might be able to conquer, and immediately kill, and generally eat them. The writer of this account tells us, he had one which was a little puppy when caught, but notwithstanding he took much pains to correct and cure it of its savageness, perceived it took every opportunity it met with, to snap off the head of a fowl, or worry a pig, and would do it in defiance of correction. They are a very good-natured animal when domesticated, but it is thought impossible to cure that savageness which all of them seem to possess.

The animals here partake, in a great measure, of the nature of the kangaroo. There is the kangaroo opossum, the kangaroo rat, &c. the formation of the four legs and feet of which bear no proportion to the length of the hind legs. There is a quadruped, which the natives call *quoll*. It resembles a pole-cat. The back is brown, spotted with white; and the belly white, unmixed. To beasts of prey our people were utter strangers; nor have they yet any cause to believe that they exist in the country. And happy it is for them that they do not, as their presence would deprive them of the only fresh meals the settlement affords, the flesh of the kangaroo. The only domestic animal they have is the dog, which, in their language, is called *dingo*, and much resembles the fox dog of England. These animals are equally shy of strangers, and attached to the natives.

There are many different kinds of bats, particularly one, which is larger than a partridge. Our people were not fortunate enough to take one, either alive or dead.

As most of the large trees are hollow, by being rotten in the heart, the opossum, kangaroo rat, squirrel, and various other animals which inhabit the woods, when they are pursued, commonly run into the hollow of a tree: in order therefore to make sure of them (which the natives seldom fail in) when they find them in the tree, one man climbs even the tallest tree with much ease, by means of notches at convenient distances, that are made with a stone hatchet: when he is arrived at the top, or where there may be an outlet for the animal, he fits there with a club or stick in his hand, while another person below applies a fire to the lower opening, and fills the hollow of the tree with smoke: this obliges the animal to attempt to make its escape, either upwards or downwards; but which ever way it goes, it is almost certain of death, for they very seldom escape. They also, when in considerable numbers, set the country on fire for several miles extent, which, it is generally understood, is for the purpose of disturbing such animals as may be within reach of the conflagration, whereby they have an opportunity of killing many.

Birds of various kinds are very numerous here, amongst which are many of exquisite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos. The water fowl are, gulls, shags; solan geese, or gannets, of two sorts; boobies, noddies, curlicus, ducks, pelicans of an

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enormous size, and many others. One of the most remarkable was black and white, much larger than a swan, and in shape somewhat resembling a pelican. The land birds are, crows, parrots, pigeons, doves, quails, bustards, herons, cranes, hawks, and eagles. But the bird which principally claims attention is the cassowary, a species of ostrich, approaching nearer to the emu of South-America than any other known. One of them was shot, at a considerable distance, with a single ball, by a convict employed for that purpose by the governor. Its weight, when complete, was seventy pounds; and its length, from the end of the toe to the tip of the beak, seven feet two inches; though there was reason to believe it had not attained its full growth.

On dissection, many anatomical singularities were observed: the gall-bladder was remarkably large, the liver not bigger than that of a barn-door fowl; and, after the strictest search, no gizzard could be found. The legs, which were of a vast length, were covered with thick, strong scales, plainly indicating the animal to be formed for living amidst deserts; and the foot differed from an ostrich's by forming a triangle, instead of being cloven. Goldsmith, whose account of the emu is the only one we can refer to, says, "that it is covered, from the back and rump, with long feathers, which fall backward, and cover the anus; these feathers are grey on the back, and white on the belly." The wings are so small as hardly to deserve the name, and are unfurnished with those beautiful ornaments which adorn the wings of the ostrich. All the feathers are extremely coarse; but the construction of them deserves notice: they grow in pairs from a single shaft, a singularity which the author we have quoted has omitted to remark. It may be presumed, that these birds are not very scarce, as several have been seen, some of them immensely large; but they are so wild as to make shooting them a matter of great difficulty. Though incapable of flying, they run with such swiftness, that our fleetest greyhounds are left far behind in every attempt to catch them. The flesh was eaten, and tasted like beef.

Here are in general excellent fish; but several of them partake of the properties of the shark, like the animals in some degree resembling the kangaroo. The land, the grass, the trees, the animals, the birds and the fish, in their different species, approach by strong shades of similitude to each other. A certain likeness runs through the whole. They are in general palatable, and some of them are very delicious. Upon the shoals and reefs are incredible numbers of the finest green turtle in the world, and oysters of various kinds, particularly the rock-oyster, and the pearl-oyster. The cockles are of such an enormous size, that one of them is more than one person can eat. There are also large muscels, and stingrays, which weigh no less than 336 pounds after the entrails are taken out. In the rivers and salt creeks are alligators. A shark of an enormous

size was found here, which measured, at the shoulders, six feet and a half in circumference. His liver yielded twenty-four gallons of oil; and in his stomach was found the head of a fish of the like species. The Indians, probably from having felt the effects of their voracious fury, testify the utmost horror on seeing these terrible fish.

Among the insects here, is a very peculiar kind of ant, as green as a leaf. They live upon trees, where they build their nests. These nests are of a very curious structure: they are formed by bending down several of the leaves, each of which is as broad as a man's hand: they glue the points of them together, so as to form a purse. The viscus used for this purpose is an animal juice, which nature has enabled them to evacuate. Their method of first bending down the leaves, our naturalists had not an opportunity to observe; but they saw thousands uniting all their strength to hold them in this position, while other busy multitudes were employed within, in applying the gluten that was to prevent their returning back. To satisfy themselves that the leaves were bent and held down by the efforts of these diminutive artificers, our people disturbed them in their work; and, as soon as they were driven from their station, the leaves, on which they were employed, sprang up with a force much greater than they could have thought them able to conquer by any combination of their strength. But though our people gratified their curiosity at the expense of these insects, the injury did not go unrevengeed, for thousands immediately threw themselves upon them, and gave them intolerable pain with their stings, especially those which took possession of the neck and hair, from whence they were not easily driven.

There are upon the leaves of the mangrove, great numbers of small green caterpillars; their foreheads are thick set with hairs, and they range upon the leaves, side by side, like a file of soldiers, to the number of twenty or thirty together; the hair of their bodies, on touching them, have the quality of a nettle, and give a more acute, though less durable pain.

With respect to the climate, it is undoubtedly very desirable to live in. In summer the heats are usually moderated by the sea breeze, which sets in early; and in winter the degree of cold is so slight, as to occasion but little inconvenience. It is remarked, as a circumstance peculiar to this country, that every part of it, even the most inaccessible and rocky, appears as if, at certain times of the year, it was all on fire. Indeed, in many parts, large trees are seen, the trunks and branches of which are evidently rent and demolished by lightning. The ground was so very dry and parched, that poles or pegs could not be driven into it without considerable difficulty and labour.

As the governor was invariably intent on exploring the country, he for that end formed a party, with unwearied industry, and great toil, traversing an extensive tract

tract of ground, which appeared, from such observations as could be made, capable of producing every thing which a happy soil and genial climate can bring forth. The face of the country was such as to promise success, whenever it should be cultivated; for the soil was found to be much richer than it was described by Captain Cook; as, instead of sand, they found a deep black mould, which seemed very fit for the production of grain of any kind. But such were the labour and difficulty attending the clearing of the ground, that, incredible as it may appear, it is a known fact, that ten or twelve men have been employed for five whole days in grubbing up a tree; and when this has been effected, the timber has only been fit for fire-wood; so that, in consequence of the great labour in clearing the ground, and the weak state of the people, to which may be added the scarcity of tools, most of those brought from England being lost in the woods among the grass, through the carelessness of the convicts, the prospect of future success is not the most promising, till they can so far clear the ground, as to produce a sufficient support for the new settlement; but, nevertheless, the richness of the soil will amply repay them, when this difficulty is happily surmounted.

The timber was found to be very unfit for building; the only purpose for which it will answer is fire-wood, and for that it is excellent: but in other respects, it is the worst wood that any country or climate can produce; although some of the trees, when standing, appear fit for any use whatever, masts for shipping not excepted. Strange as it may be imagined, most of the wood in this country, though dried ever so well, will not float. Repeated trials have only served to prove, that, immediately on immersion, it sinks to the bottom like a stone. The trees were not of many species. Among others, there was a large one, which yielded a gum not unlike that called dragon's blood. In the woods was found a tree, which bore fruit that, in colour and shape, resembled a cherry: the juice had an agreeable tartness, though but little flavour.

Between the trees the ground is covered with grass, of which there is great abundance, growing in tufts as large as can well be grasped in the hand, which stand very close to each other. In those places where trees are scarce, a variety of flowering shrubs abound, most of them entirely new to an European, and surpassing in beauty, fragrance, and number, all ever seen in an uncultivated state. Among these a tall shrub, bearing an elegant white flower, which smells like English May, is particularly delightful, and perfumes the air around to a great distance.

A kind of vine grows here, which runs to a great extent along the ground; the stalk is not so thick as the smallest honey-suckle, nor is the leaf so large as the common bay-leaf, though somewhat similar to it; and the taste is sweet, exactly like the liquorice root of the shops. Of this the convicts and soldiers make

an infusion, which is tolerably pleasant, and serves as no bad succedaneum for tea. The surgeon found it to be a good pectoral, and not at all unpleasant.

This country abounds with free-stone of an excellent quality, which was considered as an happy circumstance, as it tended so materially to forward the intended plan of forming the town. The greatest impediment to building was a want of lime-stone, of which no signs had hitherto appeared. Clay, for making bricks, abounding, a considerable quantity of them were burned, and ready for that necessary purpose.

With respect to the present state of the colony, we must observe, that when the plan of the settlement was first projected, it was apprehended that the stores sent from England, together with the produce of the country, would be sufficient for the support of the people, till they should receive a further supply, but the eatable vegetable productions being so scarce, the animal productions not abounding in that degree as was imagined, and the fisheries proving unsuccessful, they were, in consequence, reduced to an allowance of two ounces of meat a day; and fresh provisions became scarcer than in a blockaded town. The little live stock which, at so much expence, and with so many difficulties, had been brought on shore, prudence forbade the use of; and fish, which, for a short time, had been tolerably plenty, was become very scarce; so that had it not been for a stray kangaroo, which fortune now-and-then threw in the way, the people would, in general, have been strangers to the taste of fresh food.

In consequence of this scarcity of wholesome provisions, the scurvy began its usual ravages, and extended its baneful influence through all descriptions of persons, particularly as the eatable vegetable productions of the country neither abound, nor are efficacious in the removal of this disease. Many other calamitous circumstances combined to aggravate their distress; and, amongst others, the whole stock of black cattle, consisting of five cows and a bull, had strayed into the woods, and, notwithstanding the most diligent search, could not be found. But at length they were happily relieved by the arrival of the fleet from England with ample supplies; and from the last accounts transmitted since that time, it appears, that the produce of the country being more abundant in consequence of a better knowledge being obtained of its resources, and the fisheries proving more successful, they are now in a more comfortable situation; and their future prospects are very promising, as is evident from some late accounts which were conveyed by Governor Philip to Lord Sydney, who caused them to be laid before the House of Commons.

Captain Hunter, before he left Port-Jackson, gives an entertaining description of a dance, with which the natives diverted the governor and his people, before he left the place.

“ The

"The natives, he observes, were become very familiar and intimate with every person in the settlement. Many of them now took up their rest every night in some of the gentlemen's houses; their very unprovoked attack on the governor and his party, being now passed over, and almost forgot.

"We have frequently observed, since this familiar intercourse took place, that they often had a dance amongst themselves at night, on the lower part of Sydney-Cove, where a small house had been built by the governor's order for their accommodation. It had been signified to some of the principal amongst them, that we should be glad to have an opportunity of seeing them dance, which they readily agreed to; and the following night was appointed, when the governor and a considerable number attended, every one being provided with arms of some kind; a caution, which, notwithstanding friendly appearances, was generally allowed to be necessary; for experience had convinced us, that these people have a good deal of treachery in their disposition.

"Preparatory to this exhibition, much attention was paid to the decorating themselves: they were all Adams and Eves, without even a single fig-leaf, and also without their dignity. The young women were employed with all their art in painting the young men, who were chiefly ornamented with streaks of white, done with pipe-clay, and in different forms, according to the taste of the man himself, or to that of the lady who adorned him: no soap preparing for an assembly was ever more desirous of making his person irresistibly beautiful. This paint, so much in use among them, could not be applied without a little moisture; and the lady, in drawing these marks on the face, which were so essential a part of the decoration, I observed frequently to spit in the face of her friend, whom she was employed in adorning, in order to make the white clay mark the stronger.

"When they were all prepared, we walked down to the place appointed after dark (for they prefer taking their amusement by fire-light) we found several fires lighted, and a considerable number of people assembled. We walked round, to see that there were no armed lurkers among the bushes.

"The dancers being ready, we were placed in a femicircle by Ba-na-lang and Co-al-by, who seemed to have the chief authority and direction. The dance was begun by a few young boys, and was increased by men and women, chiefly by the former, until their number amounted from twenty to twenty-six. Their dance was truly wild and savage, yet in many parts there appeared order and regularity. One man would frequently single himself out from the dance, and, running round the whole of the performers, sing out in a loud voice, using some expressions in one particular tone of voice which we could not understand; he would then join the dance, in which it was observed, that certain parties alternately led forward to the front,

and there exhibited, with their utmost skill and agility, all the various motions, which, with them, seemed to constitute the principal beauties of dancing. One of the most striking was, that of placing their feet very wide apart, and, by an extraordinary exertion of the muscles of the thighs and legs, moving the knees in a trembling and very surprising manner, such as none of us could imitate, which seemed to shew, that it required much practice to arrive at any degree of perfection in this singular motion.

"There appeared a great deal of variety in their different dances; in one of which they paired themselves, and frequently danced back to back; they then changed suddenly, and faced each other. Sometimes all the performers sat down on the ground, with their feet under them; and at a particular word or order, they raised themselves up. This motion they performed without any assistance from the hands. Now they ran back in direct rows, then advanced in the same order; again they would form a circle, with some distinguished person in the centre, and sometimes the whole of the performers would appear with a green bough in their hands, which they held up in a conspicuous manner. In all the different figures which they performed, they generally finished by certain numbers of their principal dancers advancing to the front, and going through that favourite part of the dance, the quivering motion of the knees. Whenever this was done, the whole company faced to the front, and went through the same motions; but it was noticed, that some were more frequently in the front than others, and those we supposed were such as had great confidence in their own skill in the execution of this very difficult part of the performance; and no doubt were vain enough to outshine in their ability the rest of the company. On the whole, this exhibition was well worth seeing; and this was the first opportunity that had offered for us to see any thing of the kind since we had been in the country.

"Their music consisted of two sticks of very hard wood, one of which the musician held upon his breast in the manner of a violin, and struck it with the other, in good order and regular time. The performer, who was a stout, strong-voiced man, sung the whole time, and frequently applied those graces in music, the piano and forte. He was assisted by several young boys and girls, who sat at his feet, and, by the manner of crossing the thighs, made a hollow between them and their belly, upon which they beat time with the flat of their hand, so as to make a kind of sound, which will be better understood from the manner of its being produced, than from any verbal description. These children also sung with the chief musical performer, who stood up the whole time, and seemed to have the most laborious part of the performance. They very frequently, at the conclusion of the dance, would apply to us for our opinions, or rather for marks of our approbation of their performance, which we never failed to give, by often repeating

repeating the word *boojery*, which signifies good; or *boojery caribberie*, a good dance. These signs of pleasure in us, seemed to give them great satisfaction, and generally produced more than ordinary exertions from the whole company of performers in the next dance."

Late Accounts respecting the Colony at PORT-JACKSON, as far as Dec. 16, 1791.

"IT appears, that the great number of spermaceti whales which had been seen on the coast of New South-Wales, induced the masters of those vessels which were fitted out for that fishery (and intended, after landing the convicts, to proceed to the north-west coast of America) to try for a corgo here.

"The *Matilda*, and the *Mary-Ann* transports, returned from their fishing-cruise on the 10th of November 1791. These vessels had run to the southward in search of seals, and met with very bad weather, but saw no fish. The *Matilda* had put into *Jervis-Bay*, which, according to the master's account, is a very fine harbour, capable of receiving the largest ships, and the anchorage very good. These two vessels, after re-fitting, sailed again to try for fish on this coast.

"Our colony began to reap barley on the 22d of November, and the wheat was getting ripe.

"The *Supply* armed tender, after having been under repair from the time she returned from *Norfolk-Island*, was found, on a survey, to be in so bad a state, that the best repair which could be given her in this country, would only render her serviceable for six months longer; Governor Phillip, therefore, ordered her to England, and she sailed on the 26th of November.

"From the debilitated state in which many of the convicts were landed from the last ships, the number of sick were greatly increased: the surgeon's returns on the 27th, being upwards of 400 sick at *Parramatta*; and the same day medicines were distributed to 192 at *Sydney*. To the number of sick at *Parramatta*, upwards of 100 may be added, who were so weak, that they could not be put to any kind of labour, not even to that of pulling grass for thatching the huts. Forty-two convicts died in the month of November, and in these people nature seemed to be fairly worn out: many of them were so thoroughly exhausted, that they expired without a groan, and apparently without any kind of pain.

"Showers of rain had been more frequent lately than for many months past, but not in the abundance which the ground required; and from the extreme dryness of the weather, and from the ground not being sufficiently worked before the maize was put into it, a great number of acres was likely to be destroyed. This was one of the many inconveniences the settlement laboured under, from the want of people to employ in agriculture, who would feel themselves interested in the

labour of those that were under their direction, and who had some knowledge as farmers.

"The following parcels of land were in cultivation at *Parramatta* in November 1791.

Acres. Roods. Perches.

351	2	5	in Maize.
41	1	8	Wheat.
6	1	30	Barley.
1	0	0	Oats.
2	0	3	Potatoes.
4	2	0	Not cultivated, but cleared.
4	2	15	Mostly planted with vines.
6	0	0	The governor's garden partly sown with maize and wheat.
80	0	0	Garden-ground belonging to individuals.
17	0	0	Land in cultivation by the New South-Wales corps.
150	0	0	Cleared, and to be sowed with turnips.
91	3	2	Ground in cultivation by settlers.
28	0	0	Ground in cultivation by officers of the civil and military.
134	0	0	Enclosed, and the timber thinned for feeding cattle.

Making in the whole upwards of 918 acres.

"The above grounds were measured by *David Burton*, the public gardener, who observes, that the soil in most places is remarkably good, and only wants cultivation to be fit for any use, for the ground that has been the longest in cultivation bears the best crops.

"Of the convicts who were received by the last ships, there were great numbers of the worst of characters, particularly amongst those who came from *Ireland*, and whose great ignorance led them into schemes more destructive to themselves, than they were likely to be to the settlement. Some of these people had formed an idea, that they could go along the coast, and subsist on oysters and other shell-fish, till they reached some of the Chinese settlements: others had heard, that there were a copper-coloured people only 150 miles to the northward, where they would be free. Full of these notions, three parties set off; but after straggling about for many days, several of them were taken, and others returned to the settlement. Governor Phillip was less inclined to inflict any punishment on these people, than he was to punish those who had deceived them by the information of "not being far from some of the Chinese settlements, and near people who would receive them, and where they would have every thing they wanted, and live very happy." These reasons most of them assigned for going into the woods, and where some of them still remained, dreading a severe punishment if they returned. A general pardon was therefore promised to all those who came back within a certain time, as several were supposed to be lurking in the woods near the settlement: however, some of these wretches were so prepossessed

with an idea of being able to live in the woods, and on the sea coast, until they could reach a settlement, or find a people who would maintain them without labour, that several who were brought in when almost famished, and carried to the hospital, went away again as soon as they were judged able to return to their labour: and although what would be called a day's work in England, is very seldom done by any convict in the settlement, yet some of them declared, that they would sooner perish in the woods, than be obliged to work; and forty were now absent. In order to give those who might be still lurking near the settlement, an opportunity of returning, all the convicts were assembled, and a pardon was promised to all who returned within five days: at the same time they were assured, that very severe punishment would be inflicted on any who were taken after the expiration of that time, or who should in future attempt to leave the settlement. Several appeared sensible of the lenity shewn them when their irons were taken off; but some of them appeared capable of the most daring attempts, and even talked of seizing on the soldiers arms; they were however informed, that no mercy would be shewn to any who were even seen near those that might make an attempt of the kind.

"All the whalers who came into the harbour to refit, sailed again by the 11th of December; and the Albemarle and the Active transports sailed on the 2d for Bombay, where they were to load with cotton for England.

"A new store was now covered in at Sydney, which was the best that had been built in the colony, and was intended for the convicts clothing and the implements of husbandry: it has a second floor, and is eighty feet in length, by twenty-four in breadth. A building of twenty-six feet by twenty-four, was likewise covered in at Parramatta, and was intended for a place of worship, until a church could be built.

"The idea of finding a Chinese settlement at no great distance to the northward, still prevailed amongst the Irish convicts; and on the 4th of December two of them stole the surgeon's boat, but they only got a few miles to the northward of the harbour, when they were obliged to run her on shore. Some officers who were out a shooting, saw this boat on the beach, and stove a plank in her, that she might not be carried away; they also saw two men, who ran into the woods: however, a convict, who had been six weeks in the woods, and was scarcely able to walk, gave himself up to the officers, and, with their assistance, was able to return to Sydney.

"Many of those convicts who left the settlement, as has already been related, came back; some were still missing, and several were said to be killed by the natives. The miserable situation of those who returned to the settlement would, it was believed, most effectually prevent any more excursions of the like nature.

"On the 5th of December, the Queen transport returned from Norfolk-Island, with the lieutenant-governor

of the territory, who was relieved by Lieutenant-Governor King; a detachment of marines, who had been doing duty on the island, a party of the New South-Wales corps, who were relieved by Captain Paterson, and some convicts, whose times for which they had been sentenced were expired. By the 7th, the Gorgon was nearly ready for sea, and the detachment of marines who came from England in the first ships, was ordered to hold themselves ready to embark, except one captain, three lieutenants, eight non-commissioned officers, and fifty privates, who were to stay at Port-Jackson, until the remainder of the New South-Wales corps should arrive. Those marines who were desirous of becoming settlers, remained likewise, to the number of thirty-one.

"Of those convicts who were received from the last ships, 114 males, and two females, died before the 15th of December. The number of sick had considerably decreased lately, the surgeon's list being now reduced from 602 to 403.

"The Matilda and the Mary-Ann transports came into harbour on the 16th; these ships had been out but nine days. The Matilda had been into Jervis-Bay, but had not seen any spermaceti whales. The Mary-Ann fell in with one shoal; it was in the evening, when all the boats were absent from the ship. The master was in hopes they should have the fish about them the next morning, but he had the mortification to find, that a current had driven the ships fifty miles to the southward."

NORFOLK-ISLAND,

As described by Lieutenant Governor KING, in a Paper delivered by him, and dated Jan. 10, 1790.

THIS island is situated in the latitude of 29 degrees, 0 min. south; and in the longitude of 168 degrees, 0 min. east. Its form is nearly oblong, and it contains from twelve to fourteen thousand acres.

The face of the country is hilly, and some of the valleys are tolerably large for the size of the island; many of the hills are very steep, and some few very perpendicular, that they cannot be cultivated; but where such situations are, they will do very well for fuel: on the tops of the hills are some very extensive flats.

Mount-Pitt is the only remarkable high hill in the island, and is about one hundred and fifty fathoms high. The cliffs which surround the island are about forty fathoms high, and perpendicular: the basis of the island is a hard firm clay. The whole island is covered with a thick wood, choked up with a thick underwood; but it is well supplied with many streams of very fine water, many of which are sufficient to turn any number of mills. These springs are full of very large eels.

From the coast to the summit of Mount-Pitt, is a continuation of the richest and deepest soil in the world, which varies from a rich black mould, to a fat red earth.

earth. We have dug down forty feet, and found the same soil.

The air is very wholesome, and the climate may be called a very healthy one; there has been no sickness since I first landed on the island.

Five kinds of trees grow on the island, which are good timber, viz. The pine, live oak, a yellow wood, a hard black wood, and a kind of beech. The pine trees are of a large size, many of which are from one hundred and eighty to two hundred and twenty feet in height, and from six to nine feet in diameter. Those trees which are from one hundred to one hundred and eighty feet in height, are, in general, found: from the root to the lower branches, there are from eighty to ninety feet of sound timber: the rest is too hard and knotty for use. It sometimes happens, that, after cutting off twenty feet from the butt, it becomes rotten or stinky; for which reason no dependence can be put in it for large masts or yards. The timber of the pine is very useful in buildings, and is plentiful along the coasts. Its dispersed situation in the interior parts of the island, is well calculated for erecting such buildings as may be necessary. From what I have seen of this wood, I think it is very durable; two boats have been built of it, and have answered the purpose fully. The live oak, yellow wood, black wood, and beech, are all of a close grain, and are a durable wood.

The flax plant of New Zealand grows spontaneously in many parts of the island, but mostly abounds on the sea-coast, where there is a great quantity of it. The leaves of the flax, when fully grown, are six feet long, and six inches wide. Each plant contains seven of those leaves. A strong, woody stalk arises from the centre, which bears the flowers. It seeds annually; and the old leaves are forced out by the young ones every year. Every method has been tried to work it; but I much fear, that, until a native of New Zealand can be carried to Norfolk-Island, the method of dressing that valuable commodity will not be known; and could that be obtained, I have no doubt but Norfolk-Island would very soon clothe the inhabitants of New South-Wales.

This island abounds with pigeons, parrots, hawks, and other smaller birds, which are now in a wild state. The ground is much infested with different kinds of the grub worms, which are very destructive to the growth of vegetables. They are mostly troublesome about the spring. It is to be hoped, that when more ground is cleared away, this evil will cease.

There are great quantities of very fine fish on the coasts of this island, which are principally the snapper, and weigh from four to eight pounds each. A few fish are at times caught from the shore: this however happens but seldom; so that a supply of fish must depend on the weather, and the surf permitting boats to go out. In moderate weather, boats might land in Collins's-Bay, on Phillip's-Island, where a great quantity of fish might be cured, from March to September, after which time

the fly prevents it. No opportunities were ever lost of sending the boat out, which enabled us to make a saving of two pounds of meat each man a week.

Sydney-Bay lies in latitude 29 degrees 95 minutes south, longitude 168 degrees 2 minutes east, and variation 11 degrees east. The tide flows fast, and changes at three quarters past seven, and rises from five to seven feet. The flood runs to the S. W. by S. and the ebb to the N. E. by N. On the south side of the island, is where the settlement is made. Landing at this place entirely depends on the wind and the weather. I have seen as good landing as in the Thames for a fortnight or three weeks together; and I have often seen it impracticable to land for ten or twelve days successively; but it is much oftener good landing than bad. Anson's-Bay is a small bay, with a sandy beach, where landing is in general good, with an off-shore wind, and moderate weather. Ball-Bay is on the south-east side of the island; the beach is of large loose stones. When landing is bad in Sydney-Bay, it is very good here; as it also is in Cascade-Bay, on the north side of the island.

In general the tides are equal each way; the ebbs and the flows regular along the shore six each tide. The eastern tide is stronger than the western tide. Sometimes the eastern tide runs several hours beyond its usual course, and sometimes the western tide thus irregularly; which irregularities, though they seldom happen, make it necessary to bring to, and try the tide, before you come within the outer part of the Nepean-Island; and beware of an indraught, which sometimes sets into the bight, on the west side of the bay, on both sides, while you are baffled by the south-east and southerly winds, as you come in with Sydney-Bay. All within Nepean-Island is foul ground, and very irregular soundings, and no safe passage between it and Port-Hunter; but if a ship should be pressed by necessity, it is recommended to keep within half a cable's length of Nepean-Island, after having passed the bed of rocks to the westward of the little bay.

At Norfolk-Island, the spring is very visible in August; but the trees in many parts of the island are in a constant succession of flowering and seeding all the year round. Every kind of garden vegetable thrives well, and comes to great perfection. The summer is very hot: Governor King observes, that he had no thermometer to determine the degree of heat; but it is excessive. From the 23d of September, to the 22d of February, 1790, not one drop of rain fell, excepting on two days in December; but it should be remarked, that there was no drought in the former year. All the grain and the European plants seeded in December. From February to August, may be called the rainy season; not that we may suppose there is any regular time of rains during these months, as the weather is sometimes very fine for a fortnight together; but when the rain does fall, it pours in torrents. The governor adds, that he does not recollect more than three claps of thunder,

or lightning, during the time he remained on the island. The winter, which may be said to commence in April and in July, is very pleasant. There is never any frost; but when the south-west winds blow, which are very frequent and violent in these months, the air is raw and cold. It is very remarkable, that during some days in December and January, the weather has been much colder than in the winter months. The south-east and east winds are very parching and dry, as no dew falls when those winds prevail.

During the winter months, the wind is mostly from south to west, blowing with great violence for a week together; afterwards it veers round to the southward and south-east, which brings fine weather for a few days; then it veers to east, north-east, and north-west, blowing in heavy gales, and generally accompanied with violent torrents of rain; after which it shifts to south-west; but not a single instance was observed of the wind coming to the north-east round by west. The south-east wind blows during the summer with very little variation, and sometimes very strong.

The coasts of the island are in general steep, and excepting Sydney, Anson, Ball, and Cascade-Bays, are inaccessible, being surrounded by steep cliffs, which rise perpendicularly from the sea. A number of large rocks lie scattered about close to the shore, or which a continued surf breaks with great force.

The following are Lieutenant-Governor King's latest Dispatches respecting Norfolk-Island: they are dated Dec. 29, 1791, and received Nov. 30, 1792.

"The wheat harvest at Norfolk-Island was finished by the 10th of December 1791, when about one thousand bushels of wheat were got in, and well thatched in stacks. The Indian corn had suffered by a series of dry hot weather, ever since the preceding July.

"Lieutenant-Governor King, finding great inconvenience from the size and construction of the frame of a store-house, which was eighty feet long by twenty-four feet wide, as well as from its situation, it being near the shore, determined to build one, forty feet by twenty-four, on the terrace at Mount-George. He had also found it necessary to build a gaol opposite the barrack-yard, and another at Queensborough.

"A good road has been made to the landing rock in Cascade-Bay, so that now any thing may be landed with the greatest safety.

"Eighteen copper bolts, six copper sheets, two sixteen-inch cables, two hundred weight of lead, one fish-tackle fall, twenty pounds of chalk, three rudder-chains, two top-chains, and iron work of various sorts, had been saved from the wreck of the Sirius. The greatest part of these articles, Lieutenant-Governor King proposed sending to Port-Jackson.

"Ten settlers, who lately belonged to the Sirius, were doing exceedingly well; but there was reason to fear, that great part of the marine settlers, when the novelty of their situation was gone off, would have nei-

ther ability nor inclination to improve the portions of ground allotted them. They had already been extremely troublesome, and the lieutenant-governor had been under the necessity of imposing heavy fines on two; the first, for beating the watch, and using inflammatory language; and the second, for cruelly beating a convict woman.

"The convict settlers were all doing very well, and were quiet, attentive, and orderly: they were increased to the number of forty. The whole number of settlers on the island were eighty; and it will be difficult to fix more, until the ground is further cleared.

"A quantity of coral and other testaceous substances, with different kinds of stones, were burnt forty-eight hours, and produced a very fine white lime, much superior to any lime made of chalk, and it proved a very tough cement.

"Eighteen convicts, under the direction of an overseer, who is a settler, were employed in making bricks. A bricklayer was much wanted, as one who was sent in the Queen, died in his passage.

"Lieutenant-Governor King, finding it necessary to discharge Mr. Doridge, the superintendent of convicts at Queensborough, has appointed Mr. Darcy Wentworth to succeed him. Mr. Wentworth had behaved with the greatest attention and propriety as assistant-surgeon, which duty he still continued to discharge. Mr. W. N. Chapman was appointed store-keeper at Phillipburgh.

"A corporal and six privates were stationed in a house with a good garden to it, on an eminence commanding Queensborough; and a serjeant and ten men were fixed in a similar situation at Phillipburgh; and they were kept as separate from the convicts as possible.

"The lieutenant-governor had been under the necessity of appointing a town-adjutant and inspector of outposts, and he named Lieutenant Abbott for these duties. He also established rules and regulations for the observance of every person on the island, and for keeping a night patrol; a deputy provost-marshal was also appointed.

"The wreck of the Sirius went to pieces on the 1st of January 1792, and every thing possible was saved out of her. The same day, every person on the island went to a reduced allowance of provisions; but the fish daily caught, was sufficient to serve all the inhabitants three times over.

"Some of the settlers were permitted to employ the convicts as their servants, on condition of maintaining them without the aid of the public stores; and some of the convicts were allowed to work for themselves, on the same condition.

"It will be absolutely necessary to establish a court of justice, as corporal punishments have but little effect, although robberies were confined to a particular class of convicts, and were by no means general.

"By the 15th of January, 260 bushels of Indian corn were

were gathered in; a number of acres were then in different states of growth, which were likely to yield about 300 bushels more. The wheat threshed well, and yielded plentifully. The granary was finished, and every endeavour used to keep the weevil out of it."

For the above conclusive accounts, as likewise for several interesting particulars relating to our other settlement in this quarter, we acknowledge ourselves indebted to that valuable work, lately published, entitled, "An Historical Journal of the Transactions at Port-Jackson and Norfolk-Island; with the Discoveries which have been made in New South-Wales, and in the Southern Ocean, since the Publication of Phillip's Voyage, &c. by John Hurter, Esq. Post-Captain in his Majesty's Navy."

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

IT has been remarked, by an observer on the spot, of eminent discernment and penetration, that if the colony is intended only as a receptacle for convicts, this place stands unequalled, from the situation, extent, and nature of the country: but that, if taken in a commercial view, its importance will not appear striking, as the New Zealand hemp, of which sanguine expectations were formed, is not a native of the soil: and an adjacent island, where an assurance was entertained of finding it, is without it; consequently, the scheme of being able to assist the East-Indies with naval stores, in case of a war, must be rendered abortive, both from the deficiency and quality of the timber growing in this country. It is also given as an opinion, formed on due observation, that, through sufficient numbers, and industry in cultivation, the country would, in the course of a few years, produce grain enough for the support of its new possessors; but to effect this, the present limits must be greatly extended.

To men of small property, contracted desires, and a disposition for retirement, the continent of New South-Wales may have its inducements. One of this description, with letters of recommendation, and a sufficient capital to furnish an assortment of tools for agricultural and domestic purposes, possessed also of a few household utensils, a cow, a few sheep, and breeding sows, with proper protection and encouragement, might obtain a comfortable subsistence, and a moderate independence in a course of time. But they who are induced to emigrate hither, are recommended, before they quit England, to provide all their wearing-apparel for themselves, family, and servants; their furniture, tools of every kind, and implements of husbandry (among which a plough need not be included, the hoe being used) as they will touch at no place where these articles can be purchased to advantage.

If the sheep and hogs are English, it will be the better. With respect to wines, spirits, tobacco, sugar, coffee, tea, rice, and many other articles, they may venture to rely on Teneriffe or Madeira, the Brazils, and

Cape of Good-Hope. It will not be their interest to draw bills on their voyage out, as the exchange of money will be found invariably against them, and a large discount is also deducted. Drafts on the places they are to touch at, or cash (dollars if possible) will best answer their purpose. Men of desperate fortunes, and the lower classes, can propose to themselves no kind of advantage, unless they can procure a passage as indented servants, similar to the custom of emigrating to America; for it is absurd to imagine that government will be disposed to maintain them here until they can be settled, and without such support they must eventually perish for want of subsistence.

CHAP. II.

VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.

Description of Van Dieman's Land, the Southern Extremity of New Holland, with Remarks on the Persons, Manners, Customs, Language, and Character of the Natives, and the several Productions of the Country.

IN the year 1766, Captain Cook having embarked in his third voyage, again visited the Coast of New Holland, which he approached from the southward. On the 24th of January 1777, he fell in with Van Dieman's Land, and on the 26th anchored in Adventure-Bay, in latitude 43 degrees 21 minutes south, being about five degrees more to the southward than that part of the land which he first saw in his course from New Zealand in the year 1770. Before we proceed to relate the particular transactions of our modern navigators, we deem it proper to set forth the first account of the country now under consideration upon its discovery.

Captain Abel Jansen Tasman having been sent from Batavia for the express purpose of making a perfect survey of this country, in August 1642, found himself, on the 6th of November following, in latitude 49 degrees 4 min. south, longitude 114 deg. 56 min. east. Struck by weather then determining him to stand towards the north east, on the 24th of the same month, being in the latitude of 42 deg. 25 min. south, longitude 163 deg. 50 min. he discovered land lying east south-east, which he called Van Dieman's Land.

On the 1st of December he anchored in a bay, which he called the Bay of Frederic Henry; and heard, or at least fancied he heard, the sound of people upon the shore, but saw no person. The most remarkable and worthy of observation, were two trees, of two fathoms, or two fathoms and a half in girth, and 60 or 65 feet high, from the root to the branch. They had cut with a flint a kind of steps in the bark, in order to climb up to the birds nests. The steps were at the distance of five feet from each other, from whence it was concluded, either that those people were of prodigious size,

or that they have some way of climbing trees unknown to Europeans. In one of the trees the slips were so fresh, that it was judged they could not have been cut above four days: A noise heard resembled that of some sort of a trumpet; it seemed to be at no great distance, but no living creature was seen notwithstanding. The marks of wild beasts were perceived in the sand; they resembled those of a tyger, or some such creature. Some gum, and likewise some lark, were gathered from the trees. Smoke was observed in several places; nothing more was done, however, than setting up a post, on which eve y one present cut his name and his mark, and upon which a flag was hoisted by Tasman the commander.

The natives, who first presented themselves to the view of the English here at the wooding-place, were eight men and a boy. They approached with great confidence, none of them having any weapons but one, who had a short stick pointed at one end. Our countrymen describe them as of middling stature, and somewhat slender, their hair black and woolly, and their skin also black. They were entirely naked, with large punctures or ridges, some in curved and others in straight lines, on different parts of their bodies. They were not distinguished by lips remarkably thick, nor their noses so flat as the natives of Guinea; on the contrary, their features were far from being disagreeable. They had pretty good eyes, and their teeth were tolerably even and regular, though very dirty. Most of them had their hair and beards smeared with a red ointment, and some had their faces also painted with the same composition. They received the presents that were made them without the least appearance of satisfaction. When some bread was given them, and they were made to understand, that it was to be eaten, they either returned or threw it away without ever tasting it. They all refused some elephant fish; but accepted some birds that were presented, and in such a manner as indicated they were fond of such food.

A dead calm prevented the ship from sailing; the commander sent parties on shore to cut wood and grass, and accompanied the wooding party himself. As several of the natives had been observed sauntering on the shore, and thereby indicated they had no apprehension of injury, but, on the contrary, were desirous of maintaining an intercourse, he wished to be present on the occasion. The party had not been long landed, before about twenty of them, men and boys, joined them, without expressing the least fear or distrust. One of this company was distinguished not only by his deformity, but the drollery of his gestures, and the seeming humour of his speeches, which, however, could not be understood by those for whose entertainment they were supposed to be exhibited. Their language appeared to be different from that spoken by the inhabitants of the more northern parts of this country explored in a former voyage, which is not extraordinary, since these our navigators saw now, and those they then visited, differed in many

other respects. Some of the present groupe wore round their necks three or four folds of small cord, made of the fur of some animal; others had narrow slips of the kangaroo skin round their ancles. They were each of them presented with a string of beads and a medal, and seemed to receive them with some satisfaction. They did not appear to set any value on iron, or even to know the use of fish-hooks, though it is more than probable they were acquainted with some method of catching fish. Several deserted habitations were observed near the head of the bay. There were little sheds or hovels, built of sticks, and covered with the bark of trees. There appeared evident signs of their abode in the trunks of large trees, which had been hollowed by fire, most probably for this very purpose. In or near all these habitations, and wherever there was an heap of shells, there remained the marks of fire, an indubitable proof that they do not eat their food raw.

After the commander left the shore, several women and children made their appearance, and were introduced by the men to Lieutenant King. These females wore a kangaroo skin, in the same shape as it came from the animal, over their shoulders, the only use of which seemed to be to support their children on their backs; for it left those parts uncovered which modesty directs to conceal. In all other respects they were as naked as the men, and as black, and their bodies marked with scars in the same manner. They differed, however, in having their heads shaved, leaving a very narrow circle of hair all round, somewhat resembling the tonsure of the Romish ecclesiastics. Many of the children had pleasing features; but of the persons of the women, especially those advanced in years, a less favourable report was made. Some of the gentlemen paid their addresses to them, and made liberal offers; but they were rejected with great disdain; whether from a sense of virtue, or fear of displeasing their men, cannot be determined. That this gallantry was not very agreeable to the latter is evident; for an elderly man, as soon as he observed it, ordered all the women and children to retire, which they obeyed, though some shewed a degree of reluctance. It is here to be observed, that the people now seen differed, particularly in the texture of their hair, from the natives of the more northern parts of this country.

Van Dieman's Land had been twice visited before. In the beginning of our account, it is set forth to have been so named by Tasman, who discovered it in November 1642. From that time it had escaped all further notice by European navigators, till Captain Furneaux touched at it in March 1773. Captain Cook observes, that if the whole of the country now described does not deserve the name of a continent, it is, by far, the largest island in the universe.

For the most part the land is of a good height, agreeably diversified with hills and valleys, and exhibits, upon the whole, a verdant appearance. It abounds with wood, and, from what was met with in Adventure-Bay, seems not ill supplied with water; for plenty was found in three

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or four places in this bay. The best, or what is most convenient for ships that touch here, is a rivulet, which is one of several that fall into a pond that lies behind a beach at the head of the bay. It there mixes with the sea water; so that it must be taken up above this pond, which may be done without any great trouble. In several places fire-wood is to be procured with great ease.

As Mr. Anderson, surgeon of the Resolution, a person of general knowledge, spent the small time the ships remained in Adventure-Bay, in examining the island; the following are his remarks on the inhabitants and their language, and his account of the natural productions of the country.

At the bottom of Adventure-Bay, there is a beautiful sandy beach, about two miles long, formed, to all appearance, by the particles washed by the sea from a very fine white sand-stone. This beach is well adapted for hauling a seine: behind it is a plain, with a blackish lake, out of which were caught, by angling, some bream and trout. The other parts of the country are mostly hilly, and are an entire forest of tall trees, rendered almost impassable by shrubs, breaks of fern, and fallen trees.

The soil on the flat land, and on the lower part of the hills, is sandy, or consists of a yellowish mould, and, in some parts, of a reddish clay; but further up the hills it is of a grey tough cast. The country, upon the whole, bears many marks of being very dry, and the heat appears to be great.

No mineral bodies, or stones of any other sort than the white sand stone, already mentioned, were observed, nor were there any vegetables found that afforded subsistence for man.

The forest trees are all of one kind, and, in general, quite straight; they bear clusters of small white flowers. The principal plants are a species of gladiolus, rush, bell-flower, samphire, wood-forrel, milk-wort, and Job's tears, with a few others peculiar to the place.

The only animal of the quadruped kind seen distinctly, was a species of opossum, about twice the size of a large rat. The kangaroo, another animal, found further northward in New Holland, must certainly inhabit here, as some of the natives had pieces of their skins. And there are several sorts of birds; but, as in other neighbouring parts, all so scarce and shy, that it is plain they are harassed by the natives, who chiefly subsist upon them. In the woods, the principal sorts are large brown hawks or eagles; crows nearly the same as ours in England; yellowish paroquets, and another small one, which has part of the head and neck of a most beautiful azure colour, and was thence named *motacilla cyanea*. On the shore were several gulls, black oyster-catchers or sea-pies, and plovers of a stone colour, with a black hood. About the pond or lake behind the beach, a few wild ducks were seen, and some snags were observed to perch upon the high leafless trees near the shore.

Some pretty large blackish snakes were seen in the

woods, and a lizard was killed that was fifteen inches long and six round, beautifully clouded with black and yellow.

Great variety of fish are found in the sea, as the elephant-fish, rays, nurfes, leather-jackets, white bream, soles, flounders, gurnards, besides a sort not recollected to have been seen before, and which partakes of the nature both of a round and of a flat fish. Upon the rocks are plenty of muscles and other small shell-fish; and some Medusa's heads were found upon the beach.

There is a variety of insects here, though they are not numerous. The most troublesome are the musquitoes, and a large black ant, whose bite is very painful.

In this country the natives had little of that ferocious aspect common to savages; but, on the contrary, seemed mild and cheerful, without reserve, or jealousy of strangers. They are almost devoid of personal activity and genius, and, in those particulars, nearly upon a par with the inanimate inhabitants of Terra del Fuego, who are so deficient in point of invention, as not to be capable of making clothing for defending themselves from the extreme rigour of their climate, though furnished with the materials. They display indeed some ingenuity in their method of cutting their arms and bodies in lines of different directions, raised above the surface of their skins. However, their want of curiosity, indifference for presents made them, and general inattention, plainly testified they were not possessed of any acuteness of understanding. Their colour is a dull black, sometimes heightened by smutting their bodies, as was supposed from their leaving a mark behind on touching any clean substance. Their hair is perfectly woolly, and clotted with grease like that of the Hottentots. Their noses, though flat, are broad and full, and the lower part of the face projects considerably. Their eyes are of a moderate size, and though not remarkably quick and piercing, give the countenance a frank, cheerful, and pleasing cast. Their teeth are not very white, nor well set, their mouths are rather wide; they wear their beards long and clotted with paint. In other respects they are well-proportioned, though the belly projects rather too much. Their most favourite attitude is to stand with one side forward, and one hand grasping across the back the opposite arm, which, on this occasion, hangs down by the projecting side.

In the bay, near the shore, were observed some wretched contrivances of sticks, covered with bark, which scarcely deserve the name of huts. They seemed, indeed, to have been merely temporary, as many of their largest trees appeared to have been converted into more comfortable and commodious habitations. The trunks of these were hollowed out by fire to the height of six or seven feet. That they sometimes dwell in them was evident from the hearths in the middle, made of clay, round which four or five persons might sit. These places of shelter are rendered durable by their leaving one side of the tree sound, so that it continues growing as luxuriantly as those which remain untouched.

Voyagers

Voyagers have generally concluded, that the people here are of the same stock with those of New Zealand, and other southern islands, though they differ in point of language.

C H A P. III. NEW ZEALAND.

Discovery and Description of the Country; its Situation, Extent, Soil, Climate, Mountains, &c.

THIS island was first discovered by Tasman, a Dutchman, in the year 1642, who meeting with a very hostile reception from the natives, as soon as he came to anchor, he thought it prudent to weigh without so much as attempting to land; but gave the appellation of Murderers'-Bay to the road in which he dropped anchor, and the general name of New Zealand to the whole country, at that period supposed to be part of a southern continent.

Captain Cook often visited New Zealand, first in 1769, in the close of which and the beginning of the ensuing year, he coasted the country during a space of six months, and found it to consist of two large islands divided by a passage (now called Cook's Straights) about four or five leagues broad, and lying nearly north and south of each other, between the latitudes of 34 degrees 22 minutes and 47 degrees 25 minutes south, and between the longitude of 166 and 180 degrees east. The same navigator visited it again in 1773, and for the third time in 1774. These two islands are nearly of the same extent, and taken together as large as Great-Britain, having many small islands about them. The northernmost is called by the natives Eahei-Nomarve, and the southernmost Tivy or Tovai-Poenamoo. The latter is mostly hilly, and, to appearance, barren and thinly inhabited; but the former, though very mountainous, is tolerably fertile, and can boast of a rivulet running through every valley. Though these valleys do not abound with wood, yet, from the apparent nature of the soil, it was the opinion of some ingenious persons, that every kind of European grain would flourish here, and that through the exertion of industry in cultivation, not only the necessaries but luxuries of life might be obtained in rich variety. The climate, upon the whole, is said to be more temperate than that of England, from the vegetables that were found growing there in the winter season.

During six months circuit, in which Captain Cook fully explored the coasts of both islands, he gave names to several bays, rivers, and other parts of those coasts, from remarkable characters and various occurring circumstances. He called the first place where he anchored Poverty-Bay, because no necessaries were found there but wood. The next port he made was named Mercury-

Bay, because an observation was there made of the Transit of Mercury over the Sun; it is situated in latitude 36 degrees 57 minutes. The river that empties itself at the head of Mercury-Bay was called The River Thames; from its apparent resemblance to our river of that name; and its banks are pointed out as the most advantageous spot in these islands for planting a colony. The bay of islands, lying more to the northward, derives its appellation from the great number of islands contiguous, and from its several harbours, which are equally safe and commodious.

North-Cape, or Cape-North, so called from its situation, is the northern extremity of land on the island Eahei-Nomarve. The coast along the western shore was called, The Desert Coast, and a peak remarkably high, of most majestic appearance, and from the space which the snow occupies on it, supposed to be not much inferior to the Peak of Teneriffe, named Mount Egmont; and the shore under it, forming a large cape, received the appellation of Cape Egmont.

The southern island was as accurately surveyed as the northern. Here likewise, from the causes above-mentioned, names were given to several parts, as Banks's-Island, Cape-Saunders, The Traps, Dusky-Bay, Admiralty-Bay, &c. &c.

In Queen Charlotte's Sound (in which is situated Murderers'-Bay, so called by Tasman) was discovered a fine stream of excellent water, and wood in abundance. The inhabitants, who scarcely exceeded four hundred in number, were dispersed along the shore; they are poorer than the inhabitants of other parts of the country, their ground is uncultivated, their chief food is fish and fern-roots, and their canoes are without ornament. The climate here is much milder than that of Dusky-Bay, and as no frost was seen at the beginning of June, almost the depth of winter, it is probable that it seldom freezes here. There were some curiosities found on the hills and beaches, and, from many different appearances, the former existence of a volcano in New Zealand was more than conjectured. Queen Charlotte's-Sound is particularly eligible as a port and place of refreshment; from the number of antiscorbutic plants which grow upon every beach, many of which contribute both to health and aliment.

From the hills in general towards the sea, are one continued forest of lofty trees, which flourish with uncommon vigour; and it was remarked that no country abounded upon the whole so much with trees and plants, that were entirely unknown to the naturalists of Europe, as New Zealand. The size, growth, and durability of the timber render it fit for any kind of building. The large trees on the hills are chiefly of two sorts, one of them is of the size of our largest firs, and grows nearly in the same manner. A decoction of its leaves fermented with sugar or treacle, supplies the place of spruce in making beer, and our countrymen acknowledged it to be little inferior to American spruce beer; the other sort of tree is like a maple, and often grows very large, but

made of the situated in latitudes that empties called The River to our river of out as the most wanting a colony. northward, december of islands ours, which are

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is only fit for fuel, the wood being too heavy for masts and yards, though it was the general opinion, that if some means could be devised to lighten them, they would produce masts superior to those of any country in Europe. In Dusky-Bay a beautiful tree was found in flower, of the myrtle kind, of which an infusion was drank instead of tea. Its leaves are aromatic, astringent, and have a very pleasant flavour at the first infusion, which is changed to a strong bitter on pouring water on the leaves a second time.

Trees of various sorts grow on the flats behind the beaches: two or three bear a kind of plum of the size of prunes; the one which is yellow is called karraca, and the other, which is black, maitao, though neither of them afforded a pleasant taste. The woods in many parts were so over-run with supple-jacks, that it was scarcely possible to force a way through them; several of these were fifty or sixty feet long.

This country produces wild celery and a kind of cresses, which grow in abundance on all parts of the sea coasts; these are sometimes used as salad or dressed as greens; in all those ways they are excellent, and, together with the fish, form a desirable refreshment. Here is the proper mulberry-tree, but extremely rare; also a berry which serves the natives instead of flax and hemp, and exceeds all that are made use of for such purposes in other countries. There are two sorts of this plant, in one kind the flowers are yellow, and in the other, a deep red. Of the leaves of these plants, with very little preparation, the natives make all their common apparel; of these also they make all their lines and cordage for every purpose. These are much stronger than any thing we can make with hemp. This plant grows in all places near the sea, and sometimes a considerable way up the hills, in bunches or tufts; being perennial it may be cut down to the root every year, and requires little care and attendance in the cultivation. It is remarked that our botanists were greatly tantalized here by the appearance of numerous trees and shrubs, which had lost their flowers and fruits, and only served to give them an idea of the great profusion of vegetables in this country.

There are not many insects in this country. There is a sort of little crane fly, particularly troublesome in the southern parts during bad weather. The sand fly, the only noxious one, is very numerous here, and is almost as disagreeable as the musquito. Their bite causes a swelling and intolerable itching. There are some butterflies, two sorts of dragon-flies, some small grasshoppers, several sorts of spiders, some black ants, and scorpion-flies, with whose chirping the woods resound. There are snakes and lizards of an enormous size.

In the woods are a great number and variety of birds, some are very beautiful, and most of them peculiar to the place. The only bird here which resembles any in Europe is the gannet; here are ducks and shaggs, but very different from any among us: their hawks, owls, and quails differ but little. There is a small green

bird, almost the only musical one to be found here. His melody is so sweet, and his notes so varied, that the listener would imagine himself surrounded by a variety of birds, when he exerts his vocal powers. From this circumstance he was called the mocking bird. Here are water hens of a large species; rails are scarce in all parts of New Zealand, except at Dusky-Bay, where they were seen in great numbers; also cormorants, oyster-catchers or sea-pies, albatrosses, ducks, penguins, and other sorts of the aquatic kind. Five species of ducks were found in Dusky-Bay, differing from each other in size and plumage. Among the small birds, are the wattle-bird, the poy-bird, and the fantail. Of the fantail there are different sorts; but the body of the most remarkable one is scarcely larger than a good filbert, yet it spreads a tail of most beautiful plumage, surpassing in extent considering its size. Our late travellers remark, that though it would be difficult and fatiguing to follow the birds of sport on account of the quantity of under-wood and the climbing plants, yet by continuing in one place, a fowler may shoot as many in a day as would serve seven or eight persons. The reason assigned for this observation is, that these birds were so little acquainted with mankind, that they familiarly perched on the nearest branches and hopped even on the ends of the fowling pieces, looking at every one that came near them with the greatest curiosity.

In this extensive country, the only quadrupeds which are known are dogs and rats. The dogs are of the rough, long-haired sort, with pricked ears, and much resembling the shepherd's cur; they are of different colours, and though kept by the natives as a domestic animal, pampered and indulged with fish as food in common with their masters, their bodies are afterwards eaten by them, and their skins applied to various uses of dress and ornament. The custom of eating dog's flesh is partly general among the inhabitants of these southern climes, and was at length adopted by our European navigators as a relief from the loathsome taste of salt provisions. The leg of a dog, killed on board one of the ships, was roasted and served up at the captain's table, which the company through disuse could not distinguish from mutton.

Many sorts of fish were caught here by the seine, and amongst the rest a species unknown in Europe, but very delicious. Every creek swarms with them. Mackerel of various kinds were caught in immense shoals; but the highest luxury which the sea affords here, is the lobster, or sea cray-fish, which differs from those in Europe in several particulars. They have a great number of prickles on their backs, and are red when first taken out of the water. There are elephant-fish, mullets, soles, flounders, bream, conger-eels, and a fish of five or six pounds weight, called by the natives a moggie. With the hook and line was caught a blackish fish called cole-fish by the seamen, but differing greatly from that of the same name in Europe. There is also a sort of small salmon, skate, gurnards, and nurses; these

in general are well-flavoured, but the small salmon, colefish, and mogge are superior to the others. There are vast quantities of muscles among the rocks, many cockles in the sand of the small beaches, and in some places oysters, which, though small, have an agreeable taste, together with other shell fish of various kinds. There is not here any mineral deserving notice, except a green jasper stone of which the tools and ornaments of the inhabitants are made. This is held in high estimation among them, and they entertain some superstitious notions about the mode of its generation, but the particulars our countrymen could not comprehend.

In New Zealand the number of inhabitants bears no proportion to the extent of country. The southern part is very thinly inhabited, consisting chiefly of wanderers; but the northern is better peopled, though the western side of the island is quite a desert, and the interior parts are so mountainous that scarce any place is inhabited but the sea coasts.

The stature of the islanders in general is equal to the Europeans, but they are not so well formed, especially about the limbs, which are distorted by sitting so much on their hams, and being deprived, by the mountainous nature of the country, from using that kind of exercise which would render the body straight and well proportioned. Some, however, are well made, vigorous and active, and have a good share of adroitness and manual dexterity.

Their complexion is mostly brown, though not deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the heat of the sun. They are rather darker in the southern island. Their faces are commonly round, their lips rather full, and their noses (though not flat) large towards the point. Their eyes are large, their teeth broad and irregular, their hair in general black, strong and straight, commonly cut short on the hinder part, and the rest tied on the crown of the head. The countenance of the young is generally free and open, but in many of the men it has a serious or sullen cast. The men are larger than the women, who are not remarkable for any peculiar graces either of form or feature; but their voices are very soft and harmonious, by which they are chiefly distinguished, the dress of both sexes being nearly the same. Like the women of most other countries, they have a cheerfulness superior to the men, and a greater flow of animal spirits.

They have a garment made of silky flax, about five feet in length and four in breadth. This appears to be their principal manufacture, which is performed by knotting. Two corners of this garment pass over the shoulders, and they fasten it on the breast with that which covers the body; it is again fastened about the belly with a girdle made of mat. It is sometimes covered with dog skin or large feathers. Many of them wear coats over this garment, extending from the shoulders to the heels. The most common covering, however, is a quantity of the sedgy plant badly manufactured, fastened to a string and thrown over the shoulders, whence

it falls down on all sides to the middle of the thighs. They adorn their heads with feathers, combs of bone or wood, pearl shells, and the inner skin of leaves. Both sexes have their ears slit, in which are hung beads, pieces of jasper, or bits of cloth. Some have the septum of the nose bored in the lower part, but no ornament was seen in it. Their tattowing is done very curiously, in spiral and other figures, and in many places indented with their skin, so as to look like carving; but, at a distance, it appears as if it had been only smeared with black paint. This tattowing and staining the face is peculiar to the principal men among them; those of inferior rank, as well as women, content themselves with besmearing their faces with red paint or ochre. The women wear necklaces of shark's teeth, or bunches of long beads, and some of them have small triangular aprons, adorned with feathers or pieces of pearl-shells fastened about the waist with a double or treble set of cords. Their winter dress is a shaggy cloak, called boghee boghee, which hangs round their necks like a thatch of straw. Their cloth is white and as glossy as silk, worked by hands, and wrought as even as if it had been wrought in a loom, and is chiefly worn by the men, though it is made by women, who also carry burdens and do all the arduous.

They erect their huts with great facility. They have been seen to erect above twenty of them on a spot of ground which was covered with plants and shrubs not an hour before. The savages had no sooner leaped from the canoes, than they tore up the shrubs and plants from the ground they had fixed on, and put up some part of the framing of a hut. These huts are sufficiently calculated for affording shelter from the rain and wind, and are built contiguous to each other. The best seen was built in the manner of one of our country barns, and was about six feet in height, fifteen in breadth, and thirty-three in length. The inside was strong and regular, well fastened by means of withes, &c. and painted red and black. At one end it had a hole serving as a door to creep out at, near which was a square hole, which served both for window and chimney.

Their hippahs, or fortified villages, consist of strong holds, erected on rocks, and secured on the land side by a bank, a ditch, and an high paling within the ditch. Some have out-works curiously constructed. These places seem only to be the occasional abodes of the natives, in case of danger from their enemies; for as soon as their state of tranquillity returns, they quit these heights for the level country.

They feed mostly on fish, which they catch with different kinds of nets, or wooden fish-hooks, pointed with bone, but made in so extraordinary a manner, that it appears astonishing how they can answer such a purpose. They shewed themselves more expert fishermen than any of their European visitants, nor were any of the methods practised by our people equal to theirs. They dress their fish by roasting, or rather baking them, being entirely ignorant of the art of boiling. It is thus they

le of the thighs. combs of bone or of leaves. Both are hung beads, one have the separate, but no ornament is done very and in many places like carving; but, seen only smeared staining the face of them; those content themselves paint or ochre. teeth, or bunches of small triangular pieces of pearl-shells or treble set of egg cloak, called their necks like a mate and as glossy as as even as if it had chiefly worn by the who also carry bur-

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they also dress the root of the large fern-tree, in a hole prepared for that purpose: when dressed, they split it, and find a glutinous substance within, not unlike sago powder. The smaller fern-root seems to be their substitute for bread; being dried and carried about with them, together with great quantities of dried fish, when they go far from their habitations.

Water is their only drink, and they constantly refused to touch either wine or brandy, when on board the European vessels, and drank pure water, or sweetened with sugar, though they partook very freely of the provisions that were put on the table. They are as filthy in their feeding as in their persons, which often emit a very offensive effluvia, from the quantity of grease about them, and from their never washing their garments.

For an uncivilized people, their ingenuity claims notice; as, without the assistance of metal tools, they make every thing by which they procure their subsistence, clothing, and warlike weapons, with neatness, strength, and convenience. Their chief mechanical tools are the adze and axe, made of hard black stone, chisels of human bone, or fragments of jasper. They esteem their axes the most valuable of their possessions, nor will part with one of them upon any consideration. They have baskets of various kinds and sizes, made of wicker-work. The making of nets seem to be the staple manufacture of those parts of the country which were visited. These nets are of a circular form, extended by two hoops, and about seven or eight feet in diameter; the top is open, and they fasten sea-ears to the bottom as a bait. They let down this net, so as to lie upon the ground; and when they imagine fish enough are collected over it, they draw up by a gentle motion, so that the fish rise with it, scarcely sensible that they are lifted, till they come near the surface of the water, and then a sudden jerk brings them with the net into the boat.

They have a singular taste for carving, which must be admitted as their master-piece. This appears on the most trifling things: the ornaments on the heads of some of their canoes, not only display much design, but execution, though their tools in general are very awkward. A shell, a piece of flint or jasper, is their substitute for a knife, and a shark's tooth, fixed on the end of a piece of wood, is their auger.

Their chief weapons are spears or lances, darts, battle-axes, and the patoo-patoo. The spear is fourteen or fifteen feet long, pointed at both ends, and sometimes headed with bone. It is grasped by the middle, so that the part behind balancing that before, makes a push more difficult to be parried, than that of a weapon which is held by the end. The patoo-patoo is formed like a pointed battle-axe, with a short handle, and sharp edges, and designed for close fighting: through the handle there is a string to twist round the hand when the weapon is used. This patoo-patoo is worn in the girdle, as a considerable military ornament.

The chiefs carry about them a staff of distinction, generally the rib of a whale, ornamented round the top with carving, dog-skin, and feathers, like our halberts. Sometimes this staff is merely a slick about six feet long, adorned in the same manner, and inlaid with a shell resembling mother-of-pearl.

Their canoes are of different sizes, and much resemble the New-England whale-boat. Some of the largest fort seem to be built for war, being near seventy feet long, five feet broad, and three feet and an half deep. They have a sharp bottom, consisting of three trunks of trees hollowed, of which that in the middle is the longest. The side-planks are sixty-two feet long, in one piece, and carved in bas-relief; the head is still more richly adorned with carving. The gunwale boards are likewise frequently ornamented with tufts of white feathers placed upon a black ground. Their boats are worked by paddles, about six feet long, neatly made, the blade being oval, pointed at the bottom, and gradually losing its oval form in the handle. They make their strokes with those paddles with incredible quickness, and keep time so exactly, that all the rowers seem actuated by one common impulse. Sails of matting fixed upright, between two poles, are sometimes used; but they can make no way with these, unless it be right before the wind. The smaller canoes were no other than trunks of trees, intended wholly for fishing, without either convenience or ornament. The New Zealanders are by no means expert in navigation.

The natives of this country live under continual apprehensions of being destroyed by each other; most of their tribes having, as they think, sustained injuries from some other tribe, which they are over-eager to revenge. They generally steal upon the adverse party in the night; and if they chance to find them unguarded, which however seldom happens, they put every one to death without distinction, not sparing even women or children. When they have completed the inhuman massacre, they either gorge themselves on the spot, or carry off as many bodies as they can, and feast on them at home with the most horrid acts of brutality. If they are discovered before they have time to execute their sanguinary purpose, they usually steal off again, and sometimes they are pursued and attacked by the adverse party in their turn. They never give quarter, so that the vanquished must trust to flight alone for safety. From this state of perpetual hostility, and this destructive mode of carrying it on, a New Zealander acquires such habitual vigilance and circumspection, that he is seldom off his guard; indeed, they have the most powerful motives to be vigilant.

The inhabitants of the southern isle, in particular, lead a wandering kind of life, and seem to be under no regular kind of government, yet the head of each tribe is respected, and, on some occasions, commands obedience. Those of the northern isle acknowledge a sovereign, to whom great respect is paid, and by whom justice is prob-

ably

bably administered. The European visitants were given to understand, that they possessed their authority by inheritance.

It appears that the men here till the ground, make nets, catch birds, and fish with nets and lines, and the women dig up fern-roots, collect lobsters, and other shell-fish, in the shallow waters near the beach, dress the food, and weave cloth. Respect is paid to old men among them, who may be supposed to owe their consequence to the long experience they have gained; but their chiefs are strong, active young men, in the prime and flower of their life.

Their excessive cruelty towards some of our countrymen, in the year 1773, will appear by the following relation:

The two ships commanded by the Captains Cook and Furneaux having parted company, and not happening to join again, some time after the departure of Captain Cook, Captain Furneaux arrived in the month of December in Queen Charlotte's-Sound.—While he lay there, a cutter, with two petty officers and eight seamen, being sent up a creek to procure wood and water, not returning the next day, a boat was sent with an officer in quest of them. They were soon alarmed by the sight of some parts of the cutter, and some shoes, one of which was known to belong to a midshipman who was one of the party: presently a piece of meat was found, which at first was supposed to be some of the salted meat belonging to the cutter's crew; but on closer examination, it was found to be fresh. Several baskets lay on the beach tied up, which they eagerly cut open, and found to contain roasted flesh and fern-roots, which served them for bread. On further search many shoes were found, and a hand, which was immediately known to belong to a fore-castleman, it being marked with the initial letters of his name with an instrument, by a native of Otaheite. Many other articles were found, till having searched in vain in every part of the beach for the cutter, a shocking spectacle suddenly opened to their view. Here were scattered the heads, hearts, and lungs of several of the unhappy men, who had been massacred by the natives, and dogs were seen devouring their entrails. The sailors stood aghast, struck with horror at the sight, and with imprecations vowed revenge, which was soon executed, by firing and killing many of the savages, and destroying all the canoes that lay on the beach.

Yet notwithstanding their ferocity in the above, and divers other instances in their disposition, our countrymen had an opportunity of remarking, not only their personal subordination, but some proofs of their hospitality. Going on shore in search of the natural productions of the country, two very ingenious gentlemen accidentally fell in with an agreeable Indian family. The principal were a widow, and a darling son about ten years old. The widow was mourning for her husband, according to their custom, with tears of blood, and the child, by the death of the father, was become proprietor

of a district of land. The widow and her son were sitting upon mats, and the rest of the family, to the number of sixteen or seventeen of both sexes, sat round them in the open air; for they did not appear to have any home, or other shelter from the weather, the inclemencies of which custom had enabled them to endure without any lasting inconvenience. It was remarked, that their whole behaviour was obliging, affable, and unsuspecting. They presented their visitants with a fish, and a brand of fire to dress it, and importuned them to stay till morning, which they would have done, had they not expected the vessel to sail.

When our British navigators first explored these parts, the first inhabitants they saw were a man and two women. The man stood with a battle-axe and club in his hand, on the rocky point of an island, and called to the commander and others who were passing near him in a boat. The women were behind him, each with a long spear in her hand. His salutation was answered in the language of Otaheite, "Tayo barre mai;" Friend, come hither. He did not, however, stir from his post; but held a long speech, frequently swinging round his club, on which he leaned at other times. The commander landed on the rock alone. The poor native gave evident tokens of fear, but stood however firm on the same spot. The commander went up to him and embraced him, according to the custom of the country, by joining noses. This token of amity dispelled all apprehensions on the part of the natives. The man received the presents that were made him, and the two women joined company. One of them had a prodigious excrescence on the upper lip, and was in every respect remarkably ugly. But on a renewal of the visit the next day, the natives received all the articles that were offered them with great indifference, except hatchets and spike nails; in return for which, they parted with several of their ornaments and weapons, but did not seem inclined to part with their spears. A good understanding being now established, the next time our countrymen visited them, they found them dressed out in the highest taste of the country. Their hair was combed, tied to the crown of the head, and anointed with oil or grease; white feathers were stuck at the top; some had fillets of white feathers all round the head, and others wore pieces of an albatross skin, with the fine down in their ears. A cloak of red baize was presented to the chief, in return for which, he gave the commander a patoo-patoo, which he drew from his side.

A man and young woman being prevailed on to come on board, the former, before he left the shore, broke off a small green branch from a bush, walked on with it in his hand, and having struck the ship's side with it several times, began to recite a kind of speech or prayer, which seemed to have regular cadences, and to be arranged in metre as a poem. It lasted two or three minutes, and when over, he threw the branch into the main chain, and went on board. His manner of delivering solemn orations, and making peace, is practised by

by all nations in the South-Seas, as appears from the testimonies of various voyagers. All they saw excited the curiosity both of the girl and the man; they were particularly pleased to find the use of chairs, and that they might be removed from place to place; but it was not possible to fix their attention to any one thing for a single moment.

Of all the various presents that were made the man, hatchets and spike nails still continued to be most valuable in his eyes; these he never would suffer to go out of his hands after he had once laid hold of them, whereas he would lay many other articles carelessly down, and often at last leave them behind him. They could not be prevailed upon to eat any thing; but passed some compliments on our countrymen, according to their own forms and customs.

In a short time an acquaintance was cultivated with a few more of the natives, who seemed to be the only inhabitants in this part of the country. These coveted the possession of every thing they saw, or could lay their hands on, except muskets, which they would not touch, having learnt to dread them as instruments of death, from the destruction they had seen them make among the wild-fowl.

The disposition of these people is however very open, for if they had not discovered themselves, and thereby made the first advances, they might with great ease have kept themselves concealed; but a certain openness and honesty appeared strongly to mark their character; for had they been inclined to treachery, they would have endeavoured to have cut off small parties that were frequently dispersed in different parts of the woods, in which they might have been but too successful.

The following little anecdotes may tend further to a display of the disposition of these islanders.

A New Zealander came on board an European vessel when she lay in Queen Charlotte's-Sound, accompanied by his son and daughter. Being introduced into the cabin, the son was presented by the captain with divers trinkets, and dressed out in one of his own white shirts. Unable to withstand the impulse of puerile vanity, he ran upon deck in order to shew his finery to his countrymen. An old he-goat, conceiving a kind of capricious dislike to the ludicrous figure of poor Khoaa (for that was the boy's name) assailed him, and raising himself on his hind legs, with one butt of his head, laid him prostrate on the deck. The father, amazed to see the incipient present begrimed with filth, bestowed many blows on the unfortunate sufferer, in token of his resentment. The shirt, however, by washing, was soon brought to its former state of purity; and what was more, the boy was washed all over; most probably for the first time in his life; but the provident father, dreading another mischance to the precious vestment, carefully rolled it up, and taking off his own dress, made a bundle of it, in which he placed all the presents that he and his son had received.

A disposition to steal and secrete every thing they

could lay their hands on, was discoverable in all that came on board the vessel in Queen Charlotte's-Sound; and those that were detected, were treated with merited disgrace and ignominy. They appeared to feel the whole weight of shame which their behaviour brought on them; nay, one of them uttered threats, and made violent gestures in his canoe. Upon another occasion of the like nature, a young New Zealander discovered his resentment by striking a sailor, merely for recovering his property that had been stolen; but the tar, according to the law of retaliation, imprinted the marks of his fit on the face of the aggressor.

A boy, about fourteen years of age, was prevailed on to drink a glass of Madeira wine, which caused him to make wry faces; but a glass of sweet Cape wine being filled out to him, he relished it so well as to lick his lips, and desired to have another, which he likewise drank off. This soon began to elevate his spirits, as appeared from the volubility of his tongue and his antic gestures, as well as his expression of indignation at being refused divers articles, for which he had conceived a predilection. In a word, his behaviour was such, as exhibited a very just sample of the impatient temper of those people.

Several of the natives here had very expressive countenances; particularly some old men with grey and white beards, and some young men with great quantities of bushy hair, which hung wildly over their faces, and increased the ferocity of their looks. As proofs of the force of superior genius, their inquiries after Tupia, and the concern they shewed for his death, were singularly emphatical. It was shrewdly observed by one of our countrymen present, that this man, with the capacity with which he was endowed, and which had been cultivated no further than the simplicity of his native manners extended, was probably better qualified for civilizing the New Zealanders, than any of the more enlightened Europeans.

Their various methods of attack and defence, as exhibited before the Europeans, were as follow: One of their young men mounted a fighting stage, which they call porava, and another went into a ditch. Both he who was to defend the place, and he who was to assault it, sung the evar-song, and danced with frightful gesticulations. These were practised as means of working themselves up into that mechanical fury, which among all uncivilized nations is the necessary prelude to a battle. Their engagements, whether in boats or on shore, are generally hand to hand, and the slaughter must consequently be great, as a second blow with any of their weapons is unnecessary, if the first takes place. Their trust, however, seems to be principally placed in the patoo-patoo, already described. They gloried in their cruelties, and shewed their visitors the manner in which they dispatched their prisoners, which was to knock them down with their patoo-patoos, and then to rip them up. They made no scruple of declaring their practice of eating their enemies. The bones of a man were

seen with the flesh off; and every circumstance concurred to render it evident that these people were cannibals, for there was found in one of their provision baskets, the remaining flesh, which appeared to have been dressed by fire, and in the gristles at the end were the marks of teeth which had gnawed them. To ascertain the fact, Tupia was directed to ask what bones they were; the Indians without hesitation replied, the bones of a man: when asked what was become of the flesh, they replied, they had eaten it. One being afterwards asked why they did not eat the body of a woman that was seen floating upon the water? The woman, they said, died of a disease; and added, that she was their relation, and they eat only the bodies of their enemies.

The people of New Zealand are more passionate than the other South-Sea islanders in general, yet they are more modest; and if the women are not invincible, the terms and manner of their compliance are as decent as those in marriage amongst the Europeans. When an overture is made to any young woman, the party is given to understand, that the consent of friends is necessary; that a suitable present must be made; that the consenting female must be treated with good manners; that no unbecoming liberties must be taken, and that day-light must not be witness to what passes between them.

The lower garment worn by the women, is bound fast round them, except when they go into the water to catch lobsters, and then they take care not to be seen by the men. But, in course of time, the morals of the natives, both male and female, appeared not to be at all mended by their intercourse with Europeans. It was observed by our countrymen, on their second visit, that instead of behaving with the same reserve that had marked their conduct before, both sexes had abandoned their native principles, and the men promoted a shameful traffic of their daughters and sisters. It did not appear, however, that the married women were suffered to have any intercourse of this kind. The ideas of female chastity, which prevail here, are quite different from ours; for here a girl may grant her favours to a plurality of lovers, without any stain on her character; but conjugal fidelity is rigorously expected if she marries. Polygamy is allowed; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives. The females are marriageable at a very early age; and it should seem that one who is unmarried is but in a forlorn state: she can with difficulty get a subsistence, at least she is in a great measure without a protector, though in constant want of a powerful one.

In some places to the northward, there were considerable traces of cultivation, and the ground appeared as well broken and tilled as amongst us. The plantations were of different extent from one or two acres to ten, and in the whole of Poverty-Bay there appeared from 150 to 200 acres in cultivation, though an hundred people were not seen all the time the Europeans continued there.

As Tupia was perfectly understood in his own language by the natives of this country, and there seemed to be a similarity of dialect in all the islands visited by our European navigators, it was deemed a strong argument for the inhabitants being all descended from one common stock. Exceptions are however found to the universality of the language, among the inhabitants of New Caledonia and the New Hebrides.

The war-song of New Zealand is extraordinary. In it the women join the men with horrid distortions of countenance and hideous cries, which they utter in extreme good time. Their musical instruments consist of a trumpet, or tube of wood, about four feet long, and pretty straight. It makes a strange and uncouth noise, and it was observed they always sounded the same note. Another trumpet was made of a large whelk, mounted with wood, curiously carved, and pierced at the point where the mouth was applied. An hideous bellowing was all the sound that could be produced from this instrument. The natives were frequently heard singing on shore, as well as in their canoes, and sometimes they sang on board the European vessels.

Some of the New Zealanders, inhabitants of Queen Charlotte's-Sound, exhibited an *heiva*, or dance, on the quarter-deck. They placed themselves in a row, and parted with their shaggy upper garments; one of them sang some words in a rude manner, and all the rest accompanied the gestures he made, alternately extending their arms, and stamping with their feet in a violent and most frantic manner. The last words, which might be supposed to be the chorus, they all repeated together, and some sort of metre was distinguishable, but whether it was calculated to make rhyme, could not be discovered.

The ease with which their wounds heal, is adduced as a strong proof of the health which these people enjoy. One of them had a shot with a musket ball through the fleshy part of the arm, which, without any application, soon appeared well adjusted, and in a fair way of being perfectly healed. The venereal disease is now, indeed, too common among them. This dreadful disorder is said to have been introduced among the natives by the crew of a vessel unknown, that put into an harbour on the north-west coast of Teerawite, a few years before our countrymen arrived in the Sound in the Endeavour. The only method they practise as a remedy, is to give the patient the use of a kind of hot bath, produced by the steam of certain green plants placed over hot stones.

The New Zealanders acknowledge a Supreme Being; they believe in many inferior divinities; yet there was not a single ceremony observed in any part of New Zealand, that could be supposed to have a religious tendency, nor did they appear to have any priests. Here were no places of public worship, like the *Morais* in other parts; but in a plantation of sweet potatoes was seen a small area of a square figure, surrounded with

with stones, in the middle of which a sharp stake, (which they use as a spade) was set up. The natives being questioned about it, said, it was an offering to the gods, by which the owner hoped to render them propitious, and to reap a plentiful harvest.

The manner of burying their dead could not be ascertained. From the minutest inquiry, it seemed, that in the northern parts they buried them in the ground, and in the southern, that they threw them into the sea; the only process which they use being to tie a stone to the body to cause it to sink. They affect, however, to conceal every thing relating to the dead with a kind of mysterious secrecy. Whatever may be their forms and modes of funeral, they lament the loss of their friends in a manner the most tender and affectionate.

Both men and women, upon the death of a relation or friend, bewail them with the most miserable cries, at the same time cutting large gashes in their foreheads, cheeks, arms, or breasts, with shells, or pieces of flint, till the blood flows copiously, and mixes with their tears. They also carve the resemblance of a human figure, and hang it about their necks as a memorial of those who were dear to them. They likewise perform the ceremony of lamenting and cutting for joy, at the return of a friend who has been some time absent.

Captain Cook, on his last visit to this country, in 1777, anchored in his old station in Queen Charlotte's-Sound, soon after which several canoes filled with natives came along side the vessels; but very few of them would venture on board, which appeared the more extraordinary, as the commander was well known to them all. There was one man in particular amongst them whom he had treated with remarkable kindness during his whole stay; yet now, neither professions of friendship, nor presents, could prevail upon him to come into the ship. This shyness was to be accounted for only upon this supposition, that they were apprehensive of a revisit to revenge the deaths of our countrymen on a former voyage. The commander, therefore, deemed it expedient to use every endeavour to assure them of the continuance of his friendship, and that he should not disturb them on that account. It should seem that this had the desired effect; for they soon laid aside all manner of restraint and distrust. As a proof of this, great numbers of families came from different parts of the coast, and took up their residence close to the Europeans, from which they derived very considerable advantages, and, in particular, an ample supply of fish and vegetables.

It was remarked, upon an excursion up the island, that though upon the former voyage several spots were planted with English garden seeds, not the least vestige of these ever remained; and it was there supposed, that they had been all rooted out to make room for buildings when these spots were re-inhabited; for at all the

other gardens then planted by Captain Furneaux, although now wholly over-run with the weeds of the country, were found cabbages, onions, leeks, purslain, radishes, mustard, together with a few potatoes.

When the commander, accompanied by several officers, Omai (who was then on his return to his own country) and two of the natives, proceeded about three leagues up the sound, in order to cut grass, &c. They visited, on their return, Grays-Cove, the memorable scene of the massacre of their countrymen. Here the commander met with a friendly chief, called Pedro, who had attended him on a former occasion, and therefore availing himself of the opportunity of inquiring into the circumstances attending their melancholy fate, used Omai as interpreter: the natives answered all the questions that were put to them on the subject without reserve, and like men who are under no dread of a punishment for a crime of which they are not guilty: for it was already known, that none of these had been concerned in the unhappy transaction.

Though the narration was in some degree intricate, it appeared upon the whole, that the quarrel first took its rise from some thefts, in the commission of which the natives were detected. The Europeans chastised them with blows for the offence, in resentment of which the quarrel opened, and two New Zealanders were shot dead by the only two muskets that were fired; for before our people had time to discharge a third, or to load again those that had been fired, the natives rushed in upon them, overpowered them with their number, and put them all to death. Those who escaped, besides relating the story of the massacre, made the party acquainted with the very spot that was the scene of it. They pointed to the place of the sun to mark to them at what hour of the day it happened, according to which it must have been late in the afternoon. They also shewed the place where their boat lay, and it appeared to be about two hundred yards distant from that where the crew were seated at dinner at the time of the commission of the theft of some bread and fish. They all agreed, that there was no premeditated plan of bloodshed, and that if the theft had not been unfortunately too hastily resented, no mischief would have happened. Amongst occasional visitors was a chief, named Kaheora, who stood charged as the head of the party that committed the massacre: but his greatest enemies, at the same time that they solicited his destruction, excused him from any intention to quarrel, much less to kill, till the fray had actually commenced.

It appeared also, that the unhappy victims were under no apprehension of their fate, otherwife they would not have ventured to sit down to a repast at so considerable a distance from their boat, amongst people who were the next moment to be their murderers. What became of the boat could not be learnt. Some said the was pulled to pieces and burnt, others said she was carried they knew not whither by a party of strangers.

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The party continued here till the evening; when having loaded the rest of the boats with grass, celery, scurvy-grass, &c. they embarked to return to the ships. The day following, Pedro and all his family came and took up his abode near their European visitors. The proper name of this chief is Matahouah, the other being given him by some of the people during the last voyage, which till now was unknown to the commander. He was, however, equally well known amongst his countrymen by both names.

At one time our people were visited by a tribe or family, consisting of about thirty persons, men, women, and children. The name of their chief was Tomaton-Geauoaramec, a man of about forty-five years of age, with a cheerful, open countenance. It was remarked, indeed, that the rest of his tribe were the handsomest of the New Zealand race ever met with.

By this time, great numbers of them daily frequented the ships and the encampment on the shore; but the latter became by far the most favourite place of resort, while our people there were melting some seal-blubber. It appeared from observation, that no Greenlander was ever fonder of train-oil than the New Zealanders; for they relished the very skimings of the kettle and dregs of the casks; and a little of the most stinking oil, was a delicious repast.

The ships weighing anchor, and standing out of the cove, were seen from streaks of weather under a necessity of coming to again, a little without the island of Moheara, to wait for a more favourable opportunity of putting into the freight. Here three or four canoes, filled with natives, came off to the crews, and a brisk trade was carried on for the curiosities of this place. In one canoe was Kahoorā, already mentioned as the leader of the party who cut off the crew of the Adventurer's boat. He was pointed out to the commander by Omai, who solicited him to shoot him. Not satisfied with this, he addressed himself to Kahoorā, threatening to be his executioner, if he ever presumed to face our people again. The New Zealander, however, paid so little regard to his threats, that the very next morning he returned with his whole family, men, women, and children, to the number of twenty and upwards.

Omai then renewed his solicitations to the commander to kill him; and though he used several specious arguments, they had no weight. He desired him, however, to ask the chief, why he had killed Captain Furneaux's people? At this question, Kahoorā folded his arms, hung down his head, and there was every reason, from his appearance, to think, he expected instant death: but no sooner was he assured of his safety, than he became cheerful. He did not, however, seem willing to answer the questions put to him, till repeatedly promised he should not be hurt. He then ventured to give information, that one of his countrymen having brought a stone hatchet to barter, the man to whom it was offered, took it, and would neither return, or give any thing for it; on which the owner snatched

up the bread as an equivalent, and then the quarrel began.

The rest of the story differed very little from what had been before related by his countrymen.

Most of the natives well knew that the British commander was acquainted with the history of the massacre, and expected it to be avenged in the death of Kahoorā. Many of them indeed seemed not only to wish it, but expressed a surprise at what they deemed so undeserved a forbearance. The commander professes this admiration of the man's courage, in putting himself in his power, and of the proofs he gave of placing his whole safety in the declarations he had uniformly made to those who solicited his death, "that he (the captain) had been a friend to them all, and would continue so, unless they gave him cause to act otherwise; that as to their inhuman treatment of his countrymen, he should think no more of it, the transaction having happened long ago, and when he was not present; but that if ever they made a second attempt of this kind, they might rest assured of feeling the weight of his resentment."

Some time before the arrival of our ships at New Zealand, Omai had expressed a desire of taking one of the natives with him to his own country, and soon had an opportunity of being gratified in the same; for a youth about seventeen or eighteen years of age, named Taweihooa, offered to accompany him, and took up his residence on board. The commander paid little attention to this at first, imagining that he would go off when the ship was about to depart. At length, finding that he was fixed in his resolution, and having learnt that he was the only son of a deceased chief, and that his mother, still living, was a woman much respected there, he was apprehensive that Omai had deceived him and his friend, by giving them hopes and assurances of his being sent back. He therefore caused it to be made known to them all, that if the young man went away with the ships, he would never return. But this declaration seemed to make no sort of impression. The afternoon before the ship left the Cove, his mother came on board to receive her last present from Omai. The same evening, she and Taweihooa parted, with all the marks of tender affection that might be expected between a parent and a child, who were never to meet again. But she said she would cry no more, and indeed she kept her word; for when she returned the next morning to take her last farewell of him, all the time she was on board, she remained cheerful, and went away apparently unconcerned.

Another youth was to have gone with Taweihooa as his servant, and with this view, as was supposed, he remained on board till the ship was about to sail, when his friends took him on shore. His place, however, was supplied next morning by another boy, of about nine or ten years of age, named Kokoa. He was presented to the commander by his own father, who, it was believed, would have parted with his dog with far less indifference. He stripped the boy of the very little clothing

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clothing he had, and left him as naked as he was born. It was totally in vain to endeavour to persuade these people of the impossibility of these youths ever returning home. Not one, not even their nearest relations, seemed to trouble themselves about their future fate; and as this was the case, the commander was well satisfied that the boys would be no losers by exchange of place; and he the more readily gave consent to their going on that account.

CHAP. IV.

NEW CALEDONIA, AND ISLANDS CONTIGUOUS.

Their Situation, Vegetables, Animals, Dress, Dwellings, Disposition, Medical Instruments, and various Customs of the Natives.

CAPTAIN COOK discovered this island in 1774, and called it New Caledonia, after he had in vain endeavoured to discover the Indian name. Indeed, it is probable, that it was not known by one general name, as it has been represented as the largest island that has been discovered in the southern Pacific Ocean, New Zealand and New Holland excepted, extending from 19 deg. 37 min. to 22 deg. 30 min. south latitude, and from 163 deg. 37 min. to 167 deg. 14 min. east long. In length it is computed to be 87 leagues, in the direction of north-west and south-east, but its breadth no where exceeds 10. It is situated about 12 deg. distant from New Holland.

This country is diversified by hills and vallies of various extent. From the hills issue many fine streams, which render the vallies both fertile and pleasant, and but for which the whole spot might be called a dreary waste, nature having been less bountiful to New Caledonia, than to the other tropical islands in the South-Seas. The mountains, and other high parts, are, for the general, incapable of cultivation, consisting chiefly of barren rocks. The island bears, upon the whole, a resemblance to those parts of New South-Wales that are under the same parallel of latitude; several of its natural productions being the same, and the woods without underwood, as in that country.

The whole coast appeared surrounded by reefs or shoals, which render the access to it very dangerous; though, at the same time, they guard it from the attacks of wind and sea, cause it to abound with fish, and secure an easy and safe navigation along it for canoes. The coast in general seems to be inhabited; the plantations in the plains appear to be laid out with judgment, and cultivated with industry. Some of them were lying fallow, some seemed to be lately laid down, and others of longer date, parts of which they were again

beginning to dig up, having previously set fire to the grass, &c. that had over-run the surface. Yet though recruiting the land by letting it continue fallow for a series of time, was observed by all the different nations in this sea, none appeared to have any notion of manuring it. On the beach was found a large irregular mass of rock, not less than a cube of ten feet, which consisted of a close-grained stone, speckled, full of granites, rather larger than pins heads; from whence it was conjectured, that some rich and useful mineral might be deposited in this island.

There is no great variety in the vegetable system in this country; however, several of a new species were found here, and a few young bread-fruit trees; but they seem to have come up without culture. There are a few plantations and sugar-canes, and some cocoa-nut trees small and thinly planted. A new kind of passion-flower was also met with, which was never before known to grow wild any where but in America. Several trees called *caputi* trees, were found in flower. They had a loose bark, which in many places burst off from the wood, and concealed within it beetles, ants, spiders, lizards, and scorpions. This bark is said to be used in the East-Indies, for calking ships. The wood of the tree is very hard, the leaves are long and narrow, of a pale, dead colour, and a fine aromatic.

A great variety of the feathered tribe, and for the most part entirely new, were found here, particularly a beautiful species of parrots, unknown to naturalists. There were also ducks, large tame fowls, with bright plumage, a kind of small crow, tinged with blue, turtle-doves, fly-catchers, hawks, boobies, tropic birds, and others.

Turtles and fish are here in plenty, particularly a species of a poisonous quality, as appeared from its effects upon some of our countrymen, who ate a small part of the liver for supper. A few hours after they had retired to rest, they were awakened by very alarming symptoms, being seized with extreme giddiness; their hands and feet were numbed, so as scarcely to be able to crawl, and a dreadful languor took possession of their whole frame. Emetics were administered with some success; but sudorifics proved most effectual. It seemed that the natives had not the least notion of goats, swine, dogs, or cats, as they had not even a name for any one of them. The chief insects are musketoes, which abound here.

In general the natives of New Caledonia are stout, and well proportioned. They have good features, black hair, strong and frizzled. Their principal colour is swarthy, or what we call mahogany. Some wear their hair long, and tie it up to the crown of their heads. Others suffer only a large lock to grow on each side, which they tie up in clubs; many of the men, as well as all the women, wear it cropped short. They use a kind of comb made of sticks of hard wood, from seven to ten inches long, and about the thickness of knitting-needles. A number of these, amounting to

about twenty, are fastened together at one end, parallel to each other, and near one-tenth of an inch asunder: the other ends, which are a little pointed, will spread out or open like the sticks of a fan. These combs they wear constantly in their hair, on one side of their head. Some had a kind of stiff black cap, like that of an hussar, which appeared to be a great ornament among them, and was supposed to be worn only by chiefs and warriors. The men go naked, except tying a wrapper round the middle, and another round the neck. A piece of brown cloth, which is sometimes tucked up to the belt, and sometimes hangs down, scarcely deserves the name of a covering, and in the eyes of Europeans would appear rather obscene than decent. This piece of cloth is sometimes of such a length, that the extremity is fastened to a string round the neck. To this string they hang small round beads of a pale green nephritic stone. Coarse garments were seen among them, made of a sort of matting; but they seemed never to wear them except when in their canoes, and unemployed. They stretch the flaps of their ears to a great length, cut out the whole cartilage or gristle, and hang a number of tortoise-shell rings in them.

In New Caledonia, the women are kept at a distance by the men, and seem fearful to offend them, either by look or gesture. They were the only persons in the family who seemed to have any employment, several of them bringing bundles of sticks and fuel on their backs. Their indolent husbands scarcely deigned to regard them, though they exhibited that social cheerfulness which is the distinguishing ornament of the sex. They carried their infants on their backs in a kind of satchel, and were seen to dig up the earth in order to plant it. Their stature is of the middle size, and their whole form rather clumsy. Their dress is very disfiguring, and indeed gives them a thick, squat shape. It is a short petticoat, resembling fringe, consisting of filaments or little cords about eight inches long, just dropping below the waist. These filaments were sometimes dyed black; but frequently those on the outside only were of that colour, while the rest were of a dirty grey. They wore shells, ear-rings, and pieces of nephritic stones, like the men, and tattooed or besmeared themselves in three black straight lines, from the under lip downwards to the chin. Their features expressed much good-nature.

Some of the women were shy, and seemed by their motions to indicate an apprehension of being slain, if observed alone with a stranger; while others expressed no dread of the jealousy of the men. They came among the crowd, and sometimes amused themselves in encouraging the proposals of the sailors, though they constantly eluded their pursuit, and heartily derided their disappointment. It was remarkable, that during the vessel's stay in the island, there was not a single instance of the women permitting an indecent familiarity from an European.

The houses or huts here are of a circular form, somewhat like a bee-hive, and full as close and warm: the

entrance is by a small door, or long hole, just big enough to admit a man bent double: the roof is lofty, and brought to a point at the top; the framing is of small reeds, &c. and both sides and roof are thick and close covered with thatch, made of coarse long grass. In the inside of the habitation are set up posts, to which coarse spars are fastened, and platforms made for the convenience of laying any thing on. In most of these huts were no fire-places, and there was no passage for the smoke but through the door; they were insupportable to those unaccustomed to them. The smoke was supposed to be designed to drive out the musketoes that swarm here: they commonly erect two or three of these huts near each other, under a cluster of lofty fig-trees, whose foliage is so thick as to keep off the rays of the sun. These trees are described by voyagers, as shooting forth roots from the upper part of the stem, perfectly round, as if made by a turner: the bark seems to be the substance of which they prepare the small pieces of cloth so remarkable in their dress.

Their canoes are heavy and clumsy, and made out of two large trees hollowed out, the gunnel raised about two inches high, and closed at each end with a kind of bulk head of the same height. Two canoes thus constructed, are secured to each other about three feet asunder, by means of cross spars, which project about a foot over each side; over which is laid a deck, or heavy platform, made of plank, on which they have a fire-heap, and generally a fire burning: they are navigated by one or two sails, extended on a small yard, the end of which is fixed in a notch or hole in the deck. Their working tools are made of the same materials, and nearly in the manner as those of the islands contiguous. They have no great variety of household utensils; the principal is a jar made of red clay, in which they bake their roots, and probably their fish.

The natives are well provided with offensive weapons, such as clubs, spears, darts, and slings for casting stones: their clubs are about two feet and a half long, and of various forms; some like a scythe, others like a pick-axe; some have a head like a hawk, and others have knobs at the ends; but they are all neatly made, and well polished. Many of their darts and spears are ornamented with carved work: their slings are as simple as possible, being no other than a slender round cord, no thicker than packthread, with a tassel at one end, a loop at the other, and in the middle. They take some pains to form the stones they use into a proper shape, which is something like an egg: these, exactly fit the loop in the middle of the sling, and are kept in a pocket of matting, tied round the waist for that purpose. They cast the dart by the assistance of short cords, knobbed at one end, and looped at the other, which the seamen call Becketts, and were dexterous in the use of them. Their spears are fifteen or twenty feet long, blackened over, and have a prominence near the middle, carved so as to bear some resemblance to an human face.

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The language of the inhabitants of New Caledonia bears little affinity to any of the various dialects spoken in the other islands in the South-Seas, the word *areetee*, and one or two more excepted: this is the more extraordinary, as different dialects of one language were spoken, not only in the eastern islands, but at New Zealand: their pronunciation is indistinct.

These people are remarkably courteous and friendly, and not in the least addicted to pilfering, in which last respectable quality they stand alone. They are good swimmers, and fond of singing and dancing. The only musical instrument observed among them was a kind of whistle made of a polished piece of brown wood, about two inches long, shaped like a bell, though apparently solid, with a rope fixed at the small end: two holes were made in it near the base, and another near the insertion of the rope, all which communicated with each other, and, by blowing in the uppermost, a shrill sound like whistling was produced.

Many inhabitants in New Caledonia were seen with very thick legs and arms, which seemed to be affected with a kind of leprosy. The swelling was found to be extremely hard, but the skin was not alike harsh and scaly in all the sick persons. The preternatural expansion of the leg and arm did not appear to be a great inconvenience to those who suffered it, and they indicated, by tokens, that they felt pain in it very rarely; but in some the disorder began to form blotches, which were marks of a great degree of virulence.

The method used by the people of New Caledonia to deposit their dead in the ground, is more judicious and decent than that of some others in the South-Seas, where they expose them above ground, till the flesh is putrefied; as the last-mentioned custom must be attended with the most pernicious consequences, and produce dreadful epidemical distempers. The grave of a chief who had been slain in battle here, bore resemblance to a large mole-hill, and was decorated with spears, darts, &c. all stuck upright in the ground round about it. It appears a custom universally prevalent with mankind, to erect a monument on the spot where their dead are buried.

One of the English officers was shewed a chief whom they called Tea-Booma, and styled their *areetee*, or king; but little is known of their mode of government, and less of their religion. They gave the Europeans a very welcome and peaceable reception, addressing the commander first in a short speech, and then inviting him on shore; but they are indolent, and destitute of curiosity: the greater part of them did not remove from their seats when the strangers passed them for the first time: they are also remarkably grave, speak always in a serious tone, and laughter is hardly ever observed among them.

When Captain Cook first landed in this part, he was accompanied by a native who appeared to be a man of some weight, and who had come on board the vessel before she came to an anchor. The natives assembled in

great numbers on the beach, induced merely by curiosity; for many had not so much as a stick in their hands: the party were received on landing with the greatest courtesy, and with the surprise natural for people to express at seeing men and things so wonderful. The commander made presents to all whom his companion pointed out; but on his going to give a few beads and medals to some woman who stood behind the crowd, the chief held his arm, and would not suffer him to do it. As they proceeded up the creek one of the party shot a duck, which was the first use the natives had seen of fire-arms: the friendly chief requested to have it, and when he had landed, he told his countrymen in what manner it was killed. From this excursion, the party learned that they were to expect nothing from these people, but the privilege of visiting their country undisturbed, for they had little else than good nature to bestow. In this particular, they are said to have exceeded all the nations our voyagers had met with; and they observed, that although it did not satisfy the demands of nature, it at once pleased, and left all their minds in tranquillity.

A hatchet here was not quite so valuable as a spike nail; small nails were of little or no value to them; nor did they admire beads, looking-glasses, &c. Many of the natives came on board the ship with perfect confidence, and one of them exchanged a yam for a piece of red cloth. They admired every thing that had a red colour, particularly red cloth or baize, but did not choose to give any thing in exchange. Captain Cook sent the King Tea-Booma a dog and a bitch, both young, but nearly full grown, which may be the means of stocking the country with that species of animals; and to Hebai, the friendly chief before spoken of, he gave a sow and boar pig, in order to provide, if possible, a stock of domestic animals, for a nation whose inoffensive character seemed highly deserving of such a present. To enhance their value with the Indians, and thereby induce them to be more careful of their stock of hogs, it was explained to them how many young ones the females would have at one time, and how soon this would multiply to some hundreds. Not one of the natives attempted to take the least trifle by stealth, but all behaved with the strictest honesty. Some of them spoke of a great land to the northward, which they called Mingha, the inhabitants of which were their enemies, and very warlike. They likewise pointed out a sepulchral mound, where one of their chiefs lay buried, who had been killed, fighting in the defence of his country, by a native of this Mingha. The appearance of a large beef bone, which an officer began to pick towards the conclusion of the supper, interrupted this conversation.

The natives talked loudly and earnestly to each other, looked with great surprise and some marks of disgust at the strangers, and at last went away all together, expressing by signs, that they supposed it to be the limb of a man. The officer was very desirous of freeing himself and his countrymen from this suspicion, but was prevented

vented by two insurmountable obstacles, want of language, and the natives having never seen a quadruped. At another time the Europeans were given to understand, by very significant gestures, that the natives had enemies who feasted upon flesh, which, doubtless, had caused them to impute the same practice to their new visitors. This island remains entirely unexplored on the south side: its minerals and vegetables have not been touched upon; animals, it should seem to have none, from the ignorance which the natives to the northward discovered of such as they saw. The commander caused the following inscription to be cut in a remarkable large and shady tree on the beach close to a rivulet: "His Britannic Majesty's Ship, Resolution, September 1774," to perpetuate the memory of the expedition.

The ISLE OF PINES, to the S. W. of New Caledonia, lies in latitude 22 deg. 40 min. south, longitude 167 deg. 43 min. east. This island, so far from being an inconsiderable spot, as some have believed, is not less than fourteen or fifteen miles over in a south-east and north-west direction: it is high, and remarkable in the middle, being quite a pointed hill, sloping towards the extremities, which are very low; the low land had many tall pine trees upon it; these trees seemed exceedingly to surpass in length those of Norfolk-Island, but their branches did not appear to extend so far from the body of the tree.

BOTANY-ISLAND is about two miles in circuit, entirely flat and sandy, six leagues distant from the south end of New Caledonia. This island was so called by Captain Cook, from its containing in so small a space a flora of near thirty species, among which were several new ones. It is a small island wholly covered with cypress trees; but in the interior part it is mixed with vegetable earth, from the trees and plants which continually decay on it, without being cleared away by human industry.

NORFOLK-ISLAND likewise received its name from Captain Cook, who discovered it in the year 1774. It is situated in latitude 29 deg. 0 min. south, longitude 163 deg. 0 min. east. It abounds, like the former, with cypress trees. There were foundings at a great distance in about twenty fathom, and eight leagues from the south-east end bottom was found at thirty and forty fathom. The rocks of this island consist of a common yellowish clayey stone and small bits of reddish lava which seemed to be decaying, and indicated that this island had been a volcano. It is but a few miles long, very steep, and uninhabited, and is supposed never to have had a human footstep upon it till that time. Vegetables here thrive with great luxuriance in a rich black mould, accumulated during ages past from decay-

ed trees and plants. The cypress and cabbage-palm flourish here in great perfection: the former yields timber, and the latter a most palatable refreshment. The central floot, or heart of this fruit, more resembles an almond than a cabbage in taste. Here were parrots, paroquets, pigeons, and a number of small birds peculiar to the spot, some of which were very beautiful. The fish caught, together with the birds and vegetables, enabled the whole ship's company to fare sumptuously for a day or two. Here is likewise the flax-plant, and rather more luxuriant than any where in New Zealand. It was the opinion of two eminent naturalists, that if this island was of greater extent, it would serve every purpose of establishing an European settlement. For a further and more ample account, see before, p. 26.

C H A P. V.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

Discovery, Soil, Climate, Customs, and Manners of the Inhabitants.

DE QUIROS, in the year 1606, discovered the northernmost of these islands; they were then considered as a part of the southern continent, which till very lately was supposed to exist. In 1768 they were visited by Mont. de Bougainville, who, besides landing on the island of Lepers, did no more than discover that the land was not connected, but composed of islands, which he called *The Great Cyclades*.

In the year 1774, Captain Cook, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, added the knowledge of several in this groupe that were before unknown. He explored the whole cluster, and thence claiming a right to affix to them a general appellation, named them THE NEW HEBRIDES. They are situated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 21 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. south, and 170 deg. 21 min. east longitude. They extend 125 leagues in the direction of N. N. W. and S. S. E. The whole cluster consists of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators; others retain the names they bore among the natives. They are as follow: Tierra del Espiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitfuntide, Ambrym, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montague, Hinchinbroke, Erromango, Immer, Annatom, and Tanna.

TIERRA DEL ESPIRITU is the most western and largest of all the Hebrides, being twenty-two leagues long, twelve broad, and six in circuit. It lies in 15 deg. 20 min. south latitude, and 166 deg. 50 min. east longitude. The land, especially to the west side, is very mountainous, and in many places the hills rise directly from the sea. Every part of it, except the cliffs and

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and beaches, is covered with trees, or laid out in plan-
tations, and every valley watered with a stream. On
the north side is a very fine bay, called by De Quiros,
St. Philip and St. Jago. The two points which form its
entrance, lie at ten leagues distance from each other.
Here De Quiros is supposed to have anchored, and
to have given the name of Vera Cruz to the
port in which his ships lay. He describes it as capa-
cious enough to contain 1000 ships with clear soundings.
The country seemed fertile and populous. Two canoes
with triangular sails, came off towards the ship: the
men were tall and stout, of a dark colour, and had
woolly hair; they were naked; some of them had a
bunch of feathers on the top of the head, and others
wore a white shell tied on the forehead. On their arms
they wore bracelets of shell work, and round their middle
a narrow belt, from whence two long slips of matting
hung down before and behind.

On the first day of the arrival of our navigators, no
tokens of friendship could prevail with the natives to
come near enough to hold any intercourse; but the
next morning, they ventured to close as to receive
a present of nails, medals, and red baize; but the nails
were most valued. They fastened a branch of the pep-
per plant to the same rope by which the nails had been
lowered to them from the ship; and this was the only
return they made for what had been given them. The
diffidence with which they approached the vessel, may
well be accounted for, from the traditional knowledge
which doubtless subsists among them concerning the vi-
sits made them by De Quiros; for on his coming to an
anchor, and sending a boat from the ship, a chief (as
he is called in the narrative) the king, attended by some
Indians, came to the strand, and endeavoured to ex-
cite their departure by presents of fruit, but the Spani-
ards leaping on the shore, made signs of peace: the na-
tives, still anxious for the departure of the strangers,
and the latter persisting in their endeavours to force
their way, hostilities commenced between the parties;
but the arrows of the one flew without effect, whilst the
fire-arms of the other laid the king and many of his fol-
lowers breathless on the beach. This island, from ap-
pearance, as to vegetable productions, would have af-
forded the botanist an ample harvest of new plants.

MALLICOLLO is the most considerable island next to
Espiritu Santo: it is eight leagues long, and situated in
16 deg. 25 min. south latitude, and 167 deg. 57 min.
east longitude. On inquiry of the natives concerning
the name of this island, answer was made, that it was
Mallicollo, which has the closest resemblance possible to
Manicollo, the name which De Quiros received for it
168 years before. He did not visit the island, but had
his intelligence from the natives.

When our countrymen touched at Mallicollo, they
attentively examined the south coast, and found it luxu-
riantly clothed with wood, and other productions of na-

ture. They picked up an orange, which the natives call
abbi-mora. This was the first orange that was met with
in this sea, and the only one that was seen here; being
decayed, it cannot certainly be known whether it was fit
to be eaten. The country is described as mountainous
and woody, but the soil is rich and fertile, producing
sugar-canes, yams, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, bananas,
and turmeric. There are hogs here, and various kinds
of birds; and as the frequent squeaking of pigs was heard
in the woods, it was concluded that there were abun-
dance of the former.

A shark, which measured nine feet in length, was
caught, and afforded the crew a very palatable refresh-
ment. This shark, when cut open, was found to have
the bony point of an arrow sticking in its head, having
been shot quite through the skull. The wound was
healed so perfectly, that not the smallest vestige of it
appeared on the outside. A piece of the wood still re-
mained sticking to the bony point, as well as a few fibres
with which it had been tied on; but both the wood and
the fibres were so rotted, as to crumble into dust at the
touch. A large reddish fish, of the sea-bream kind, was
likewise caught, but it proved of very noxious quality,
for all who ate of it were seized with violent pains in the
head and bones, attended with scorching heat all over
the skin, and numbness in the joints. It affected the
dogs and hogs, who had eaten the garbage, in the high-
est degree. The opinion of naturalists upon the whole,
was, that these fish may not always be poisonous, but that,
like many species in the East and West-Indies, they may
acquire that quality by feeding on poisonous vegetables.

The people here are described as remarkably ugly,
dark, ill-proportioned, diminutive in size, and in every
respect different from the other islanders in the South-
Seas. They have flat noses and foreheads, woolly hair,
and short beards. To add to their natural deformity,
they have a custom of tying a belt or cord, uncom-
monly tight, round the waist, so that the belly seems in
a manner divided, one part being above and the other
below the rope. They wear bracelets of shells on the
arm, a piece of white curved stone in the nostrils, and
on their breast hangs a shell suspended by a string
round their necks: some wear tortoiseshell ear-rings
and other rings of shells.

The first natives that were seen upon the island had
clubs in their hands, and waded into the water, carry-
ing green boughs, the universal sign of peace. In a
day's time they ventured to come within a few yards of
the ship's boat, which was sent out, when they dipped
their hands into the sea and gathering some water in the
palms, poured it on their heads. The officers in the
boat, in compliance with their example, did the same,
with which the Indians appeared to be much pleased,
repeating the word Tomari, or Tomarro, continually.
The greater part being now armed with bows and ar-
rows, they ventured near the ship, and received and ex-
changed a few presents. They continued about the
ship talking very loudly, but in such a manner as was

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very entertaining. Some continued about the ship till midnight; finding, however, at length they were but little noticed, they returned on shore, where the sound of singing and drums was heard all night. These people seemed to covet whatever they saw, but never repined at a refusal. They were highly delighted with the looking-glasses that were given them; and notwithstanding their remarkable deformity, were enraptured at viewing themselves.

Next morning the natives came off to the vessel in their canoes, and four or five of them went on board without any arms. They soon became familiar, and with the greatest ease climbed up the shrouds to the mast head. When they came down, the commander took them all into the cabin, and gave them presents of various articles. They appeared the most intelligent of any nation that had been seen in the South-Seas; readily understood meanings conveyed by signs and gestures, and soon taught the officers words in their language, which appeared peculiar to themselves. When some of the most respectable of our countrymen went on shore, the natives with great good-will sat down on the stump of a tree to teach them their language. They were surprised at the readiness of their guests in remembering, and seemed to spend some time in pondering how it was possible to preserve the sound by such means as pencils and paper. Nor were they less apt in catching the sounds of the European languages; from whence it was justly remarked, that what they wanted in personal beauty was compensated in acuteness of understanding.—But they expressed their admiration by hissing like a goose. There appeared but few women amongst them; those few, however, were no less ugly than the men. They were of small stature, and their heads, faces, and shoulders, were painted red. Some wore a kind of petticoat, others a bag made of a kind of cloth in which they carry their children. The younger females went stark naked, like the males of the same age.

The women in general were not observed to have any finery in their ears, or round their necks and arms, it being fashionable in this island for the men only to adorn themselves; and as, wherever this custom prevails, the other sex is commonly oppressed, despised, and in a state of servility, so the men here seemed to have no kind of regard for them; none of them came off to the ship, and they generally kept at a distance when any party landed from the boat.

The houses, or rather huts, here, are low and thatched with palm leaves. Some few are enclosed with boards, and the entrance is by a square hole at one end.

Their chief weapons are bows and arrows, and a club about two feet and a half in length, made of hard wood, commonly knobbed at one end and well polished. This weapon they hang on their right shoulder from a thick rope made of a kind of grass. Their arrows are composed of a kind of reed made of hard wood or bone, supposed to be poisoned. They are very care-

ful of them, and keep them in a sort of quiver made of leaves.

As these people apply themselves to husbandry, their food seems to be principally vegetables; though as fowls and hogs are bred, these may constitute a part of their subsistence, as well as that derived from the ocean. Their canoes were small, not exceeding two feet in width, of indifferent workmanship, and without ornament, but provided with an out-rigger.

One of the latest navigators gave the following relation, which we cite as an indication of the genius and disposition of these people. "When the natives saw us under sail for our departure from the island, they came off in canoes, making exchanges with more confidence than before, and giving such extraordinary proofs of their honesty as surprised us. As the vessel at first had fresh way through the water, several of the canoes dropped astern after they received goods, and before they had time to deliver theirs in return. Instead of taking advantage of this, they used their utmost efforts to get up with us and deliver what they had already been paid for. One man in particular followed us a considerable time, and did not reach us till it was calm, and the thing was forgotten. As soon as he came along side he held up the article, which several on board were ready to buy; but he refused to part with it, till he saw the person to whom he had before sold it, and to whom he gave it. The person, not knowing the man again, offered him something in return, which he refused; and shewing him what had been given before, made us sensible of the nice sense of honour which had actuated this Indian."

ST. BARTHOLOMEW-ISLAND was so called by Captain Cook, from its having been discovered on St. Bartholomew's day. It is between six and seven leagues in circumference, and situated in latitude 15 deg. 23 min. south.

The ISLE of LEPROS received its denomination from the number of people afflicted with the leprosy that were seen upon it. This Isle lies between Espritu Santo and Aurora-Island, eight leagues from the former and three from the latter, in latitude 15 deg. 22 min. south. It is of an oval figure, very high, and 18 or 20 leagues in circuit. Many beautiful cascades of water were seen pouring down from the hills. Here the palms grow on the hills. The natives are of two colours; their lips are thick, their hair woolly, and sometimes of a yellowish cast. They are short, ugly, and ill proportioned, and most of them infected with the leprosy. The women are no less disgusting than the men; they go almost naked; they have bandages to carry their children on their backs. In the cloth of which these bandages are made, are very pretty drawings of a fine crimson colour.

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None of these men have beads: they pierce the nose in order to fix some ornament to it; they likewise wear on the arm, in form of a bracelet, a tooth, of a substance like ivory; on the neck they have pieces of tortoiseshell. Their arms are bows and arrows, clubs of hard wood and stones, which they use without slings. The arrows are reeds armed with a long and very sharp point made of bone. Some of these points are formed in such a manner as to prevent the arrows being drawn out of a wound.

The natives appeared to be very friendly to M. de Bougainville, when he touched here in 1768, until all the men were embarked; but then they sent a flight of arrows after them; which assault, although it was attended with no bad consequences, was revenged by discharging a volley of musketry, which killed several of the natives. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at, that when Captain Cook appeared off their coast, the natives should be so shy of any intercourse with strangers. Two or three natives put off in a canoe; but no tokens of friendship could induce them to come near the ship.

In AURORA-ISLAND inhabitants were discovered and some canoes; but none came off to the ship. A fine beach and most luxuriant vegetation presented themselves. The whole country was woody, and a beautiful cascade poured through a forest. The island is about twelve leagues long, but not above five miles broad in any part, lying nearly north and south. A channel divides this island from

WHIT-SUNDAY-ISLE, which lies, as was computed, about four miles to the south, runs in the same direction, and is of the same length, having more sloping exposures than Aurora; it appears to be better inhabited, and to contain more plantations.

AMBRYM is about 17 leagues in circuit, and two leagues and a half from the south end of Whit-Sunday-Isle. Its shores are rather low, but the land rises with an unequal ascent to an high mountain in the middle of the island, which gave occasion to suppose that a volcano was seated there.

APEE, distant from Ambrym about five leagues, is not less than twenty leagues in circuit. Its longest direction is about eight leagues north west and south east. It is of considerable height, and richly diversified with woods and lawns.

SANDWICH-ISLE, which, in compliment to Lord Sandwich, is so called, is 10 leagues long and 25 in circuit. It exhibits a delightful view, the hills gently sloping to the sea. Several small islands lay disposed

about here, to which Captain Cook gave the names of the Shepherd's-Islands, Three Hills, Two Hills, The Monument, Montagu, and Hinchinbrook.

ERROMANGO lies 18 leagues from Sandwich-Island, and is between 24 and 25 leagues in circuit. The middle of it lies in 18 deg. 54 min south latitude. The natives of this island seem to be of a different race from those of Mallicollo, and speak a different language. They are of the middle size, have a good shape and tolerable features. Their colour is very dark, and they paint their faces, some with black, and others with red pigment; their hair is very curly and crisp, and in some degree woolly. But few women were seen, and those very ugly; they wore a petticoat made of the leaves of some plant. The men were in a manner naked, having only the belt about the waist, and a piece of cloth or leaf used for a wrapper. No canoes were seen in any part of the island. They live in houses covered with thatch, and their plantations are laid out by line, and fenced round.

Captain Cook went on shore here with two boats. He presented some of the natives with medals and cloth, and received every token of amity in return. Making signs that he wanted water, one of them ran to a hovel at a small distance, and presently returned with a little in a bamboo. On asking for something to eat, he was as readily presented with a yam and some cocoa nuts. During this time the whole groupe were armed with clubs, spears, darts, bows, and arrows, which excited some suspicion, and led Captain Cook to cut short his visit, telling the chief, by signs, that he should soon return. Seeing their guests about to depart, they endeavoured to haul that boat on shore, which had the commander on board, whilst others snatched the oars out of the people's hands. At the head of this party was the chief. Those who could not come at the boat, stood behind, armed with weapons, ready to support those that were most forward. Signs and threats having no effect on these people, personal safety became the only consideration; but in this emergency the British commander was unwilling to fire among the crowd, and resolved to make the chief alone fall a victim to his own treachery. His musket, at that critical moment, missed fire, which could not fail of giving the natives a very mean opinion of the weapons that were opposed to them. They determined, therefore, to shew how much more effectual theirs were, by throwing stones and darts, and shooting arrows. This being the case, a general discharge of fire-arms could no longer be avoided. It threw them into confusion; but a second was hardly sufficient to drive them off the beach. Four lay to all appearance dead on the shore; but two of them afterwards crawled into the bushes. Not half of the muskets would go off, which saved the lives of many

of these poor mistaken wretches. One of the men in the boat was wounded in the cheek with a dart; an arrow struck the master on the breast, but as its force was spent it hardly penetrated the skin. The report of the muskets on shore alarmed those in the ship, and another boat was immediately sent off, and a swivel, that fired to the port where a number of the natives were assembled, and a great gun fired towards the hills, which struck them with a panic, and they all hastened to screen themselves in the bushes. With this unhappy skirmish all intercourse ended.

INMER is the most eastern island of all the Hebrides. It appeared to be about five leagues in circuit, of a considerable height, and flatish top.

ANNATOM is the southernmost island, situated in latitude 20 deg. 3 min. south; longitude 170 deg. 4 min. east.

Six leagues on the south side of Erromango is **TANNA**. It is about eight leagues long, three or four broad, and twenty-four in circuit. Its latitude is 19 deg. 30 min. south, and longitude 169 deg. 38 min. Its name signifies *earth* in the Malay language. The soil in some places was found to be a rich black mould; in other parts it seemed to be composed of decayed vegetables and the ashes of a volcano, which was seen about eleven miles to the westward of the vessel burning with great fury. The country is in general so covered with trees, shrubs, and plants, as to choke up the bread fruit and cocoa nuts; but it is not populous, nor the houses consequently numerous.

The volcano emitted at different times vast quantities of fire and smoke for sixteen days, accompanied with an explosion about once in five minutes. Some of these explosions resembled violent claps of thunder: the whole air was filled with smoky particles and ashes, which occasioned much pain when they fell into the eye: at one time great stones were seen thrown up into the air, some of which were at least as large as the hull of a ship's long boat. It first presented a most magnificent sight. The smoke, which rolled up from time to time, in thick and heavy volumes, was coloured with all the various hues of yellow, orange, crimson, and purple, which died away into a reddish grey and brown. As often as a new explosion happened, the whole country, with its shaggy forests, were tinged with the same orange and purple, according to its distance, or particular exposure to volcanic light. It sometimes continued quite silent for five or six days together. It was remarked, that the explosions of the volcanos recommenced after a shower of rain, so that it should seem that rain excites them, by promoting or increasing the fermentation of various mineral substances in the

mountain. The black ashes with which the whole country was strewed, were found to be long, needle-like, and semi-transparent, and to contribute greatly to that luxuriance of vegetation which is remarkable on this island; many plants here attaining twice the height which they reach in other countries; their leaves are broader, their flowers larger and more richly scented.

Some new plants were collected here, and a variety of odoriferous shrubs, and some others were cultivated only for their elegant appearance. The plantations on this island consist for the most part of yams, bananas, eddoes, and sugar-canes, all which being very low, permit the eye to take in a great extent of country. Here are great numbers of fig-trees, which the natives cultivate for the sake of the fruit and leaves. They are of two or three different kinds, and one sort in particular bears figs of the common size, which are wholly like peaches on the outside, and have a beautiful crimson pulp like pomegranates; they are sweetish and juicy, but rather insipid.

Several small birds were observed here with a very beautiful plumage, and of a kind that had not been seen before. The natives were seen to have no methods of catching fish, but by striking; it is probable that they draw but little of their subsistence from the water. Upwards of three hundred pounds weight of mullet, and other fish, were caught by three hauls with the seine.

A young native was shewn every part of the ship, but nothing fixed his attention a moment, or caused in him the least surprise. He had no knowledge of goats, dogs, or cats, calling them all hogs. (booga). The commander made him a present of a dog and a bitch, as he shewed a liking to that kind of animal. They appear to have plenty of hogs, but very few domestic fowls. Some rats of the same kind as is common on the other islands in the Pacific Ocean, frequent the fields of sugar-cane, in which they make great depredations; the natives, therefore, dig several holes all round these plantations, in which they catch these animals.

The natives of this island are of a middle size, and tolerably proportioned. Their colour is a dark chestnut brown, with a very swarthy mixture. They go naked, having only a string round the belly, which did not, however, cut the body in so shocking a manner as that in the island of Mallicollo. Their hair is generally black or brown, growing to a tolerable length, and very crisp and curly. Their beards, which are strong and bushy, are generally short. The women wear their hair cropped, as do the boys till they approach manhood. They make use of a cylindrical piece of alabaster two inches long, which they wear in the cartilaginous part between the nostrils, as a nose-jewel. Not one single corpulent man was seen here; all are active and full of spirits. Their features are large, the noses broad; but the eyes full, and in general agreeable. They make incisions chiefly on the upper arm and belly, which are instead of punctures; they cut the flesh

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with a bamboo or sharp shell, and apply a particular plant, which forms an elevated scar on the surface of the skin after it is healed. These scars are formed to represent flowers and other fancied figures, which are deemed a great beauty by the natives. Most of them have an open, manly, and good-natured air, though some were seen as in other nations, whose countenances indicated malevolence.

Though, like all the tropical nations, the people are active and nimble, they were not fond of labour, nor would ever assist in any work that the ship's company was carrying on, which the Indians of the other islands used to delight in. They throw all the laborious drudgery on the women; from which occasion was taken to remark, that though they were not beauties, they were handsome enough for the men, and too handsome for the use that was made of them. Their ears are hung full of tortoise-shell rings, and necklaces of shells fall on their bosoms. Some of the elderly women had caps made of a green plantain leaf, or of matted work; but this head-dress was rather uncommon. The number of ornaments considerably increased with age, the oldest and ugliest being loaded with necklaces, ear-rings, nose-jewels, and bracelets. The women here are expert cooks: they roast and boil the yams and bananas, they stew the green leaves of a kind of fig, they bake puddings made of a paste of bananas and eddoes, containing a mixture of cocoa-nut kernel and leaves.

The people of Tanna, with respect to their domestic life, are rather of a serious turn, yet are not wholly destitute of amusements, and their music is in greater perfection than any in the South-Seas. Their European visitants gave them a variety of airs, in return for which, the natives sang several times very harmoniously. They likewise produced a musical instrument, which consisted of eight reeds, regularly decreasing in size, and comprehending an octave, though the single reeds were not perfectly in tune.

Their houses are like the roof of a thatched house in England, taken off the walls, and placed on the ground. Some were open at both ends, others closed with reeds, and all were covered with a palm thatch. A few of them were thirty or forty feet long, and fourteen or sixteen broad. Besides these, they have other mean hovels, which were supposed to be designed only to sleep in.

In point of neatness, their weapons come far short of some that were seen in other islands. They are clubs, spears or darts, bows and arrows, and stones. The clubs are of three or four kinds, and from three to five feet long. They seem to place most dependence on the darts, with which they kill both birds and fish, and are sure of hitting a mark within the compass of the crown of a hat, at the distance of eighteen yards; but at double that distance, it is a chance if they hit a mark the size of a man's body, though they will throw the weapon sixty or seventy yards. The arrows are made of reeds pointed with hard wood; some are bearded, and some are not, and those for shooting birds have

two, three, and sometimes four points. The stones they use in general are the branches of coral rocks, from eight to fourteen inches long, and from an inch to an inch and a half diameter. Those who use stones keep them generally in their belts.

Their canoes can boast neither art or ornament; all of them have out-riggers, and some may contain twenty people. Their sails are low triangular mats, of which the broadest part is uppermost, and the sharp angle below. A long piece of timber, hollowed out in the middle, forms the bottom of the canoe, and upon this one or two planks are fixed, forming the two sides, by means of ropes of the cocoa-nut fibres. Their oars are ill-shaped, and very clumsily made.

Added to the common language of the land, and a dialect of the neighbouring islands, some words were collected of a third language, which was chiefly current among the inhabitants of the western hills. Some of our intelligent voyagers, on comparing their vocabularies, to discover that two different words were used to signify the sky, applied to one of the natives to know which of the expressions was right. He immediately held out one hand, and applied it to one of the words; then moving the other hand under it, he pronounced the second word, intimating, that the upper was properly the sky, and the lower, clouds that moved under it.

No other liquor was seen here than water and the cocoa-nut juice. They signified, in the most pointed manner, to our countrymen, that they eat human flesh, and that circumcision was practised among them. Nay, they introduced the subject of eating human flesh, by asking our people, if it was a practice among them. They appeared to have some nominal chief, with very little authority. One old chief was said to be the king of the island. His name was Geogy, and they gave him the title of Areekee. Notwithstanding his advanced years, he had a merry, open countenance.

No information could be derived respecting the religion of these people, only every morning at day-break was heard a slow solemn song or dirge, sung on the eastern side of the harbour, which lasted more than a quarter of an hour. As this was supposed to be a religious act, the curiosity of our navigators was excited to inquire further concerning it. But when they attempted to pass that way, the natives crowded about them, and entreated them with the greatest earnestness to return. As they still seemed to persist, they were at length given to understand, that if they remained obstinate in their attempt, they would be killed and eaten. They now turned off towards a hut about fifty yards distant, where the ground began to rise, on which several of the Indians took up arms out of the hut, apparently meaning to force them to return back. Unwilling, therefore, to give offence, our people checked their curiosity, and were content to leave this point undetermined. Nothing however was seen in the general behaviour of these people, that bore any resemblance to a

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religious act, nor any thing that could be construed into superstition.

When the boat first went on shore, the natives were drawn up in great numbers on the beach, armed with clubs, darts, spears, slings, and stones. From this hostile appearance, the British commander was induced to re-embark speedily to prevent disagreeable consequences. In order to terrify without hurting them, he ordered a musket to be fired over their heads, but the alarm was only momentary, as the natives instantly recovered themselves, and began to display their weapons. A few great guns, however, being fired from the ship, they all dispersed, leaving the beach free for a second debarkation. The commander having marked out boundaries on the shore with a line, the natives came gradually forward, some unarmed.

An old man, named Powang, shewed a very friendly disposition in forwarding an intercourse between the commander and the natives. Such was the honesty of this old man, that he brought an axe which had been left by the ship's company upon the beach. They were extremely jealous of any one going up the country, or even along the shore of the harbour, a disposition that greatly obstructed the naturalists in their attempts to explore.

As the carrying of bundles is the office of the women in this country, the natives imagined that those from the ship who carried loads were females. A man who carried a bag which contained the plants selected by the naturalists, was followed by some of them, who, by their conversation, which was overheard, considered him as a woman, until by some means they discovered their mistake, on which they cried out, *Errorange! errorange!* It is a man! it is a man!

A tillar to the rudder being wanted, the carpenter was sent on shore to look at a tree for the purpose, and with him an officer with a party of men to cut it down, provided leave could be obtained of the natives. The officer understanding that there was no objection, the people accordingly went to work; but as the tree was large, the felling of it was a work of time, and before it was down, word was brought that *Paowang* was not pleased: orders were therefore sent from on board to desist. The commander soon after went on shore, and sending for *Paowang*, presented him with a dog and a piece of cloth, and then explained to him the purpose for which the tree was wanted. All the natives present discovered great satisfaction at the means that were used to obtain the grant of the tree, and unanimously consented to its being felled.

But many were afraid to touch the presents that were offered them, nor did they seem to have any notion of exchanging one thing for another. But few refreshments were obtained on this island; some fruit or roots were daily procured from the natives, though

greatly inadequate to the demands of the ship's company.

As the natives had no knowledge of iron, nails, iron tools, beads, &c. which were so current in other parts, they were of no value here, nor was cloth of any use in a country where the inhabitants went mostly naked. The only commodity they seemed desirous of obtaining was tortoiseshell; but as no demand was expected for such an article, there were only a few small pieces remaining in the ship, which had been purchased at another island. The sailors, however, notwithstanding the loathsomeness of salt provisions of long standing, had not a single provident thought for the future, but exchanged their tortoiseshell for bows and arrows, instead of furnishing themselves with a stock of yams.

A party from the ship passing through a shrubbery, observed a man at work cutting sticks, and seeing him make a very slow progress with his hatchet, which was only a bit of shell in lieu of a blade, they set about helping him with an iron hatchet, and in a few minutes cut a much greater heap than he had done the whole day. Several Indians, who were witnesses to this dispatch, expressed the greatest astonishment at the utility of this tool, and some were very desirous of possessing it, by offering their bows and arrows for it. This was considered as a favourable opportunity for procuring hogs; but they were deaf to every proposal of that kind, and never exchanged a single hog; one pig only was obtained as a present to the commander from *Paowang*.

There being great reason to suppose that the inhabitants of Tanna are harassed by frequent wars; the distrust which they expressed on the first debarkation from the ships is not surprising. But as soon as they were assured of the pacific disposition of their new visitants, all suspicions entirely subsided. They did not trade, indeed, because they had not the means in proportion to the other islanders; but they were as assiduous in offering their services, and from less interested motives. If any of the botanists had procured a plant, of which he was desirous of having other specimens, he had only to signify to some natives, who would immediately hasten to the spot where it was to be found, and bring it with the most engaging alacrity. The civility of the natives was conspicuous in this particular instance. If they met any officer or gentleman of the ship in a narrow path, they always stepped aside, in order to make way. If they happened to know their names, they pronounced them with a smile, which could be extremely well understood as a salutation. If they had not seen them before, they commonly inquired their names, in order to know them again. They have the same engaging manner of expressing their friendship by a mutual exchange of names, as is common in the most eastern islands of this sea.

C H A P. VI.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

Discovery, Number, Situation, Soil, Productions, Extent, Manners, and Customs of the Inhabitants.

THESE islands form a cluster extending about three deg. of latitude and two of longitude. The principal are Middleburg, Rotterdam, or Anamooka, Hapace, Amsterdam, or Tongataboo, and Pylstart, so denominated by Tasman; there are also others which have been seen and visited by more modern navigators. We shall attend to them severally in their respective order.

MIDDLEBURG, called by the Natives EOOA.

This island forms a very beautiful landscape. Its skirts are in general laid out in plantations, especially those on the north-west and south-west sides. The interior parts are not, indeed, so well cultivated as they might be, but this heightens the prospect; for while the other isles of this cluster are level, the eye can discover nothing but the trees that cover them; here the land rising gradually upwards presents an extensive view, where groves of trees are only interspersed at irregular distances, in a kind of beautiful disorder. It is shaded near the shore with various trees, amongst which are the habitations of the natives, laid out in such order as convenience requires, and they may boast a most delightful situation. About half way up the island is a deep valley, the bottom and sides of which, though composed of hardly any thing but coral rock, are clothed with trees. The soil in general is reddish clay, which in many places seems to be very deep.

On the most elevated part of the island is a round platform or mount of earth, supported by a wall of coral stones, to bring which to such an height must have cost much labour. This mount, called by the natives *Etchee*, is said to have been erected by order of one of their chiefs. Not many paces from this, though on a former voyage, complaint was made of a dearth of water; on the last was found an excellent spring, and about a mile lower down a running stream, which, it is said, found its way to the sea when the rains were copious. It appeared from information, that all or most of the land in this island belonged to the great chiefs of Amsterdam or Tongataboo, and that the inhabitants were only tenants or vassals to them. This, indeed, is represented to be the case at all the other neighbouring isles, except Rotterdam or Anamooka, where there are some chiefs who seem to act with a degree of independence.

Yams, with other roots, bananas, and bread-fruit, are the principal articles of food here; but the latter appeared to be scarce. The pepper tree, or *ava ava*, of

which they make a favourite intoxicating liquor, also grows here. There are many odoriferous trees and shrubs, and one in particular of the lemon species; naturalists likewise met with divers new kinds of plants. The *casuarina*, or club-wood, as in some neighbouring islands, points out also to the repositories of their dead. The shaddock, and several other trees are found upon the island.

The common complexion of the natives is mahogany or chefnut brown, with black hair. Some are of an olive colour, and some of the women much fairer, which may be the effect of being more or less exposed to the sun. The men in general are of the middle stature; though some measured six feet. Their bodies are well proportioned, though muscular, which seems a consequence of much exercise. Their features are various, nor are they characterised by any general likeness, unless it be a fullness at the point of the nose, which is very common. The women in general are not so tall as the men; their bodies and limbs are well proportioned, and what peculiarly distinguishes them is the uncommon smallness and delicacy of their fingers, which may be put in competition with the finest in any part of the world.

Puncturing or tattooing the skin is in full fashion amongst the men here; on the tenderest part of the body are marked configurated scars, which must be very painful as well as dangerous. The chiefs are exempted from this custom. The dress of both men and women is much the same, and consists of a piece of cloth or matting (though mostly the former) about two yards wide, and two and an half long, so as to wrap in great abundance round the waist, to which it is confined by a girdle or cord. Before it is double, and hangs down like a petticoat as low as the middle of the leg. This, as to form, is the general dress; but large pieces of cloth and fine matting are worn only by those of superior rank. The inferior class are satisfied with small pieces, and often wear nothing but a covering made of leaves of plants, or the *maro*, which is a narrow piece of cloth or matting like a sash. This they pass between the thighs and wrap round the waist, but the use of it is chiefly confined to the men. They have various dresses made for the purpose of their haivas or grand entertainments; but the form is always the same; the richest are adorned more or less with red feathers. Both sexes sometimes screen their faces from the sun with little bonnets made of divers materials.

The sexes differ as little in their ornaments as their clothing. Of these the most common are necklaces made of various sweet scented flowers, which go under the general name of *Kabulla*. Others consist of several strings of small shells, sharks teeth, and other things, which hang loose upon the breast. In the same manner they likewise wear a mother of pearl shell, neatly polished, and a ring of the same substance carved, on the upper part of the arm, as also rings of tortoiseshell on the fingers, and a number of these joined together

as bracelets on the wrists. The lobes of the ears are perforated with two holes, in which they wear cylindrical pieces of ivory, stuck through both sides the holes. Some use reeds filled with a yellow pigment. This seems to be a fine powder of turmeric, with which the women rub themselves all over in the same manner as the European females use dry rouge upon their cheeks.

What particularly characterizes these people, and was remarked by Tasman, is, that most of them want the little finger on one, and sometimes on both hands; nor did the difference of age or sex exempt from this amputation, for the very children were observed to have suffered that loss. They had also a round spot on each cheek bone, which appeared to have been burned or blistered, on some it seemed to have been recently made, on others it was covered with scurf, and the mark was slight; but the purport of it could not be discovered. The women in general here are represented as modest and reserved in their behaviour, though, as in all other islands, there were some exceptions.

The natives of these islands are much commended by voyagers for their cleanliness, to produce which they are said to bathe frequently in ponds which seem to serve no other purpose. Though the water in most of them is nauseous to a degree, they prefer them to that of the sea, imagining, that salt water hurts their skins. When necessity obliges them to bathe in the sea, they commonly have some cocoa-nut shells filled with fresh water poured over them, to wash it off. The cocoa-nut oil has an admirable effect on the skin in rendering it smooth; for which these people hold it in such estimation, that they not only pour a great quantity of it upon their heads and shoulders, but rub the body all over briskly with a smaller quantity. The language here is soft and not unpleasing, and whatever they say is spoken in a kind of singing tone.

In building their houses, they do not discover much taste or ingenuity; though the defect is rather in the design than the execution. Those of the lower people are poor huts, those of the better are larger and more comfortable. Their houses, properly speaking, are thatched roofs or sheds supported by posts and rafters disposed in a tolerably judicious manner. The floor is a little raised, covered with strong thick matting, and kept very clean. They are mostly closed on the weather side with the same sort of matting, the other being open. A thick strong mat, of two or three feet broad, bent into the form of a semicircle and set upon its edge, with the ends touching the side of the house, in shape resembling the fender of a fire hearth, encloses a space for the master and mistress of the family to sleep in. The latter indeed spends most of her time during the day within it. The rest of the family sleep upon the floor wherever they please to lie down, the unmarried men and women apart from each other. If the family be large, there are small nuis adjoining, to which the servants retire in the night, so that privacy is as much observed here as can be expected. They have mats

made on purpose for sleeping on, and the clothes they wear in the day serve for their covering in the night. Their household furniture consists of some bowls and platters, cocoa-nut shells, some small wooden stools which serve them for pillows, and perhaps a large stool for the master of the family to sit on.

Clubs, spears, bows, and arrows, are their weapons. The former are of a great variety of shapes, and many of them so heavy as not to be managed with one hand, but with difficulty. The most common form is quadrangular. The far greater part were carved all over in many chequered patterns, which seem to have required great patience and a long time to work up, as a sharp stone or piece of coral are the only tools made use of. The whole surface of the plain clubs was as highly polished, as if furnished by an European artist with the best instruments. Their spears are sometimes plain sharp-pointed sticks, and sometimes barbed. Their bows and arrows are of a peculiar construction. The former, which is about six feet long, is about the size of a little finger, and when slack forms a slight curve: the convex part is channelled with a single deep groove in which the bow-string is lodged. The arrow is made of reed near six feet long, and pointed with hard wood. When the bow is to be bent, instead of drawing it so as to increase the natural curve, they draw it the contrary way, make it perfectly straight, and then form the curve on the other side.

There is much ingenuity displayed in the construction of their canoes. They have out-riggers made of poles, and their workmanship is admirable. Two of these are joined together with surprising exactness, and the surface is polished in a very curious manner. Their paddles have short blades, and are very neatly wrought.

A circumstance occurred in this place which afforded an opportunity of observing how these people treat conjugal infidelity. Some of our people, on their return from an excursion, being informed that a party of the natives had struck one of their own countrymen with a club, which laid bare, or, as others said, fractured his skull, and then broke his thigh with the same, inquired the reason of such treatment, and were given to understand that he had been discovered in a situation rather indelicate with a woman that was *taboo'd*, that is, forbidden. But the female delinquent had by far the smaller share of punishment; as our people were told, she would only receive a slight beating for her misdemeanour.

When our navigators first visited this island, they observed, that several of both sexes were affected with leprous disorders in the most virulent degree, in various parts of their bodies. The face of one woman was corroded by the acrid humours, so as to exhibit a most horrid spectacle. Many others were likewise so disfigured by the disorder, that they could not be beheld without a mixture of disgust and pity.

The amicable disposition of these people is fully evinced from the friendly reception all strangers have

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met with who have visited them. When Captain Cook first anchored on the W. N. W. side of this island, two canoes with several men in each came along-side the ship; one of them on board, without the least hesitation, presented a root of the pepper tree, touched the noses of the officers with his own, in token of friendship, and then sat down on the deck without speaking a word. The native was presented with a nail, which, on receiving, according to the general custom of the island, he held over his head, pronouncing the word *fagafetai* or *fagafatie*. This was most probably meant as an expression of his thankfulness.

No people could give greater proof of liberality of disposition, for they came in great numbers about our vessels, threw bales of cloth into them, and retired without so much as waiting for a return. As an instance of their hospitality, Captain Cook, with several officers and gentlemen, were conducted, on their landing, by a chief, named Tioony, to his mansion, delightfully situated about three hundred yards from the sea, at the head of a fine lawn, and under the shade of some shaddock trees, and there elegantly entertained. The very same chief, on the commander's last visit, visited him on board immediately as he came to an anchor, and with the utmost cordiality rendered him every friendly service within his power. The European strangers indeed were caressed by old and young, men and women, who embraced them, kissed their hands, and laid them on their breasts with the most expressive looks of affection. It was very remarkable that the discharge of guns neither excited their admiration, nor their fear, which plainly proved that their civility arose from the bent of natural disposition, and not from a motive of conciliating the favour of their guests, because they knew they were able to do them an injury.

The only glaring defect that sullies their character is, a propensity to theft, which is said to be confined to nails, on which they set so high a value, that they would endeavour to possess them at any rate; but we are sorry to say, that truth and candour obliges us to confess, that from later experience, in many instances, the propensity in some appeared to be so universal as to admit of no limitation.

The inhabitants of the Friendly Islands are so agreeably circumstanced, as neither to be subject to excessive labour on the one hand, or supine indolence on the other. Their occupations are agreeably diversified, and their recreations and amusements follow in pleasing succession, so that they neither disgust or tire. To the women is committed the care of making the cloth, and to them is also consigned the manufacture of their mats.

Architecture, boat-building, agriculture, and fishing, are the principal objects of the men's attention. As cultivated roots and fruits form their chief subsistence, they find it necessary to practise husbandry, which they have brought by their diligence to some degree of perfection. In planting yams and plantains, they dig small holes for their reception, and afterwards root up

the surrounding grass. The instruments used by them for this purpose are called *hooa*; and are nothing more than stakes of various lengths, flattened and sharpened to an edge at one end; and the largest ones have a short piece fixed transversely, by means of which they press the implement into the ground with the foot. When they plant the two above-mentioned vegetables, they observe such particular exactness, that, whichever way you turn your eyes, the rows present themselves complete and regular. Some of their vegetable productions, and in particular the bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees, are scattered without order, and reared without pains. The same may be said of another large tree, which produces a roundish compressed nut, called *ceffee*; and of a smaller tree bearing an oval nut, with two or three triangular kernels. The *kappe* is, in general, planted regularly, and in large spots; but the *maubaba* is interspersed among other things, as is also the *jeeje*. Sugar-cane is usually in small spots, closely crowded. The tree, of which the cloth is made, is kept very clean, and has a good space allowed for it. The *pandanus* is commonly planted in a row, close together, at the sides of the fields.

The dwellings of the lower class of people are wretched huts, scarcely sufficient to shelter them from the weather. Those of the better sort are larger, as well as more commodious and comfortable. An house of a middling size is about, twelve feet in height, twenty in breadth, and thirty in length. Their houses are, properly speaking, thatched roofs or sheds, supported by rafters and posts. The floor is raised with earth smoothed, and covered with thick matting. Some of their habitations are open all round; but the major part of them are inclosed on the weather side with strong mats, or with branches of the cocoa-nut tree, plated or interwoven with each other. A thick mat, about three feet broad, bent into a semicircular form, and placed edgewise, with the ends touching the side of the house, encloses a sufficient space for the master and mistress to sleep in. The rest of the family sleep upon any part of the floor, the unmarried men and women lying apart from each other. If the family is large, there are little huts adjoining, in which the servants sleep. Their whole furniture consists of some wooden stools, which serve them for pillows; baskets of different sizes, in which they put their combs, fish-hooks, and tools; two or three wooden bowls, in which they make *kava*; some cocoa-nut shells, a few gourds, and a bundle or two of cloth.

However, the deficiency so apparent in the building of their houses is amply compensated in the construction of their canoes, which display much taste and ingenuity. The double ones are made sufficiently large to carry about fifty persons, and sail at a great rate. Upon them they generally fix a hut or shed, for the reception of the master and his family. They are made of the bread-fruit tree, and the workmanship is extremely neat. They appear on the outside as if they were composed

of one solid piece; but, upon cloſer inſpection, they are found to conſiſt of a great number of pieces, which fit each other exactly, and by means of a ledge on the inſide are ſecured together with cocoa-nut line. The ſingle canoes are furniſhed with an out-rigger. The only tools which they make uſe of in the conſtruction of theſe boats, are hatchets, or adzes, of a ſmooth black ſtone; augers made of ſhark's teeth; and raſps, compoſed of the rough ſkin of a fiſh, ſiltened on flat pieces of wood. The ſame tools are all they have for other works, except ſhells, which ſerve them for knives. Their cordage is made of the fibres of the cocoa-nut huſk, which, though not above ten inches long, they plait about the ſize of a quill, to whatever length is required, and roll it up in balls; from which the ropes of a larger ſize are made by twiſting ſeveral of thoſe together. Their fiſhing-lines are as ſtrong and even as our beſt cord. Their ſmall hooks conſiſt entirely of pearl-ſhells; but the large ones are only covered with it on the back; and the points of both are, in general, of tortoiſeſhell. With the large hooks they catch albi-cores, and bonnetos, by putting them to a bamboo-end, about twelve feet long, with a line of the ſame length. They have alſo numbers of ſmall ſeines, ſome of which are of the moſt delicate texture.

Their pipes or muſical reeds, which reſemble the *ſyrinx* of the ancients, have eight or ten pieces placed parallel to each other, moſt of which are of unequal lengths. Their flutes are made of a joint of bamboo, about eighteen inches long, and are cloſed at both ends, having a hole near each end, and four others; two of which, and only one of the firſt, are uſed by them in playing. They cloſe the left noſtril with the thumb of the left-hand, and blow into the hole at one end with the other noſtril. The fore-finger of the right-hand is applied to the loweſt hole on the right, and the middle finger of the left to the firſt hole on that ſide. In this manner, with only three notes, they produce a pleaſing, though ſimple muſic.

Clubs curiouſly ornamented, ſpears, and darts, are their warlike weapons. They alſo make bows and arrows; but theſe are intended for amuſement, ſuch as ſhooting at birds, &c. and not for the purpoſe of war. Their ſtools, or rather pillows, are about two feet long, but only four or five inches in height, and near four in breadth, inclining downwards towards the middle, with four ſtrong legs and circular feet; the whole compoſed of brown or black wood, neatly poliſhed, and ſometimes inlaid with ivory. They likewiſe inlay with ivory the handles of ſty-flaps; and, with a ſhark's tooth, ſhape bones into figures of men, birds, &c.

Cocoa-nuts, plantains, bread-fruit, and yams, compoſe the greater part of their vegetable food. Their chief articles of animal food are hogs, fiſh, and fowls; but the common people frequently eat rats. Their hogs, fowls, and turtle, ſeem to be only occaſional dainties ſerved for people of rank. Their food is, in general, dreſſed by baking; and they make, from different ſorts

of fruit, ſeveral diſhes, which are very good. They ſometimes boil their fiſh in the green leaves of the plantain-tree, which ſerve as a bag to hold both fiſh and water: having tied them up, they wrap them again in three or four other leaves, and place them upon ſtones heated for the purpoſe: when they are ſufficiently done, they not only eat the fiſh, but drink the liquor or ſoup. They are not very cleanly either in their cookery, or their manner of eating. Their uſual drink at their meals is water, or cocoa-nut milk, the *kava* being only their morning beverage. The food that is ſerved up to the chiefs is generally laid upon plantain-leaves. The king, at his meals, is commonly attended upon by three or four of the natives, one of whom cuts large pieces of the fiſh, or of the joint, another afterwards divides it into mouthfuls, and the reſt ſtand by with cocoa-nuts, and whatever elſe he may happen to want. The women are not excluded from taking their meals with the men; but there are certain ranks that are not allowed either to eat or drink together. This diſtinction begins with his majeſty.

They riſe at day-break, and retire to reſt as ſoon as it becomes dark. They, for the moſt part, ſleep alſo in the day time, when the weather is very hot. They are fond of associating together, in conſequence of which, it is not uncommon to find ſeveral houſes empty, and the poſſeſſors of them aſſembled in ſome other houſe, or upon ſome convenient ſpot in the neighbourhood, where they relax themſelves by converſation and other amuſements. Their private diverſions chiefly conſiſt of dancing, ſinging, and muſic. When two or three women ſnap their fingers, and ſing in concert, it is called *oobai*; but when there are more, they form ſeveral parties, each of which ſings in a different key, which conſtitutes an agreeable melody, and is termed *beeava*, or *baiva*. The ſongs are generally accompanied with the muſic of their flutes. The dances both of the men and women are performed with an eaſe and grace which are difficult to be deſcribed.

The nature of their marriages could not be aſcertained, either in point of form, or obligation; it is certain, however, that the major part of the men content themſelves with one wife. The chiefs, indeed, commonly have ſeveral women, but only one is conſidered in the light of miſtreſs of the family.

Theſe people diſplay a ſtriking inſtance of humanity in the manner in which they are affected by the loſs of their friends and relations. Beſides the *tooge*, and burnt circles and ſcars, they ſtrike a ſhark's tooth into their heads till the blood flows conſiderably, beat their teeth with ſtones, and thruſt ſpears not only through their cheeks into their mouths, but alſo into the inner parts of their thighs, and into their ſides. The more painful operations, however, are only practiſed when they mourn for the deaths of thoſe who were moſt nearly connected with them.

When one of them dies, he is wrapped up in mats and cloth, and then interred. The *ſia:ookas* ſeem to be

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y. instance of humanity affected by the loss of s the *tooge*, and burnt ark's tooth into their ably, beat their teeth t only through their b into the inner parts . The more painful ifed when they moun most nearly connected

wrapped up in mats he *fiatookas* seem to be appro-

appropriated to the chiefs and other persons of distinction, as their burial places; but the inferior people have no particular spot set apart for their interment. It is uncertain what part of the mourning ceremony follows immediately afterwards; but there is something besides the general one, which is continued for a considerable time. They seem to consider death as a great evil, to avert which they practise a very singular custom.

When Captain Cook, during his second voyage, first visited these islands, he observed, that many of the natives had one or both of their little fingers cut off; of the reason of which mutilation, he could not then obtain a satisfactory account; but he was now informed, that they perform this operation when they are afflicted with some dangerous disorder, which they imagine may bring them to the grave. They suppose, that the little finger will be accepted of by the Deity, as a kind of propitiatory sacrifice sufficiently efficacious to procure their recovery. In cutting it off, they make use of a stone hatchet. There is scarcely one person in ten who is not thus mutilated; and they sometimes cut so close, as to encroach upon that bone of the hand which joins the amputated finger. It is also common for the lower class of people to cut off a joint of their little finger, on account of the sickness of the chiefs to whom they respectively belong.

They have apparently little conception of future punishment for sins committed in the present life. They believe, however, that they meet with just punishment upon earth; and, therefore, put every method in practice to render their divinities propitious. They admit a plurality of deities, all of them inferior to *Kallafootonga*, who they say is a female, and the supreme author of most things, residing in the heavens, and directing the wind, rain, thunder, &c. They are of opinion, that when she is much displeas'd with them, the productions of the earth are blasted, many things consumed by lightning, and themselves afflicted with sickness and death; but that when her anger abates, every thing is immediately restored to its former state. Among their subordinate deities, they mention *Futtasaihe*, or *Footasooa*, who has the administration of the sea, and its productions; *Toosooa-boolootoo*, god of the clouds and fog; *Talleteboo*, *Mattaba*, *Tarceava*, and others. The same system of religion does not extend all over the Friendly Islands; the supreme deity of Hapaec, for instance, being called *Alo Alo*. They entertain very absurd opinions relative to the power and various attributes of these beings, who they suppose have no further concern with them after death.

They have juster sentiments of the immortality and immateriality of the soul, which they call *life*, the living principle, or an *Otooa*, that is a divinity. They imagine, that, immediately after death, the souls of their chiefs are separated from their bodies, and go to a delightful region called *Boolootoo*, the god of which is named *Goolebo*. By this *Goolebo*, they probably personify death. His country, according to their mythology,

is the general repository of the dead; and those who are once conveyed thither, are no more subject to death, but feast on all the favourite productions of their native soil, with which this blissful abode is plentifully furnished. As for the souls of people of an inferior class, they are supposed by them to suffer a kind of transmigration; or are eaten up, they say, by a bird called *loata*, which walks on the graves with that intent. They do not worship any visible part of the creation, or any things made by their own hands. They make no offerings of dogs, hogs, or fruit, unless emblematically. But there seems to be no reason to doabt of their offering up human sacrifices. Their *fiatookas* are, in general, burying-grounds and places of worship: some of them, however, appear to be appropriated only to the former purpose: but these are small, and greatly inferior to the rest.

The English could derive but little information as to their mode and form of government. A subordination, resembling the feudal system of our ancestors in Europe, is established among them; but of its subdivisions, and the constituent parts, we are ignorant. Though some of them asserted, that the king's power is unbounded, and that he has the absolute disposal of the lives and properties of his subjects; yet the few circumstances that offered themselves to our observation, contradicted, rather than confirmed, the idea of despotic sway. Mareewagee, Feenou, and Old Toobou, acted each the part of a petty sovereign, and sometimes even counteracted the measures of the king. Nor was his court superior in splendor to those of Old Toobou and Mareewagee, who, next to his majesty, were the most potent chiefs in these islands; and next after them, Feenou appeared to stand highest in rank and authority. But, how independent soever of the king the principal men may be, the inferior people are totally subject to the will of the chiefs to whom they severally belong.

Tongataboo is divided into a great number of districts, each of which has its peculiar chiefs, who distributes justice, and decides disputes, within his own territory. Most of these chieftains have estates in other islands, whence they procure supplies. The king, at stated times, receives the product of his distant domains at Tongataboo, which is not only the usual place of his residence, but the abode of most persons of distinction among these islands. Its inhabitants frequently call it the Land of Chiefs, and stigmatize the subordinate isles with the appellation of Lands of Servants.

Their chiefs are styled Lords of the earth, and also of the sun and sky; and great deference, not to say worship, is paid to them. The royal family assume the name of *Futtasaihe*, from the god distinguished by that appellation, who is probably considered by them as their titular patron. The king's peculiar title is simply *Tooe Tonga*. The order and decorum observed in his presence, and likewise in that of the other chiefs, are admirable. Whenever he sits down, all the attendants:

tendants seat themselves before him, forming a semi-circle, and leaving a sufficient space between them and him, into which no one, unless he has particular business, presumes to come. Nor is any one suffered to sit or pass behind him, or even near him, without his permission. When a person wishes to speak to his majesty, he comes forward, and having seated himself before him, delivers in a few words what he has to say; then, after being favoured with an answer, retires. If the king speaks to any one, the latter gives an answer from his seat, unless he has to receive an order; in which case he rises from his place, and seats himself cross-legged before his majesty. To speak to the king standing, would have been considered as a great mark of unpolite behaviour.

None of the civilized nations have excelled them in implicit obedience to the commands of their chiefs, in decorum and order of behaviour, as well as in harmony and unanimity. Such a behaviour manifests itself in a remarkable manner, whenever their chiefs harangue a body of them assembled together, which frequently happens. The greatest attention, and most profound silence are observed during the harangue; nor is there ever seen a single instance of any one present shewing signs of being displeased, or seeming in the least inclined to dispute the declared will of the speaker. It is a peculiar privilege annexed to the person of the king, not to be punctured, or circumcised, or rather supercised, as his subjects are. Whenever he walks out, all who meet him must sit down till he has passed. No person is suffered to be over his head; but, on the contrary, all must come under his feet.

The method of doing homage to their sovereign, and the other chiefs, is as follows: the person who is to pay obedience, squats down before the great personage, and bows the head down to the sole of his foot, which he taps or touches with the under and upper side of the fingers of each hand; then rising up, he retires. His majesty cannot refuse any one who is desirous of paying him this homage, which is called by the natives *moe moea*; for the people frequently think proper to shew him these marks of submission when he is walking; and he is on these occasions obliged to stop, and hold up one of his feet behind him, till they have performed this respectable ceremony. The hands, after having been thus applied, become, in some cases, useless for a little time; for, till they are washed, they must not touch food of any sort. This prohibition, in a country where water is far from being plentiful, would be attended with inconvenience, if a piece of any juicy plant, which they can immediately procure, being rubbed over the hands, did not serve for the purpose of purification. When the hands are in this situation, they term it *taboo rema*; the former word generally signifying forbidden, and the latter implying hand. When the *taboo* is incurred, by doing homage to a person of rank, it may thus easily be washed off; but in several other cases, it must continue for a certain period. Women, who

have been *taboo rema*, are not fed by themselves, but by others. The interdicted person, after the limited time has elapsed, washes herself in one of their baths, which are in general dirty ponds of brackish water. She then waits upon the sovereign, and having paid the customary obeisance, takes hold of his foot, which she applies to her shoulders, breast, and other parts; he then embraces her on both shoulders, and she immediately retires, purified from her uncleanness. If it be always necessary to have recourse to his majesty for this purpose, it may be one reason of travelling from one island to another.

It may here be proper to observe, that divers significations seem to be annexed to the word *taboo*. They call human sacrifices *tangata taboo*; and when any particular thing is prohibited to be eaten, or made use of, they say it is *taboo*. If the king goes into a house belonging to one of his subjects, that will, in consequence, become *taboo*, and can never be again inhabited by the owner of it; so that, wherever his majesty travels, there are houses peculiarly assigned for his accommodation. A certain person is appointed as an inspector of all the produce of the island, who takes care that each individual shall cultivate and plant his quota, at the same time directing what shall, and what shall not, be eaten. By so prudent a regulation, they take effectual precautions against a famine; sufficient ground is employed in raising provisions; and every article is secured from unnecessary consumption. By another good regulation, an officer is appointed to superintend the police, whose business it is to punish all delinquents: he is also generalissimo, or commander in chief of the forces of the islands. If this commander should act inconsistent with the duties of his office, or govern in such a manner as may be injurious to the public welfare, he would, by the collective body of the people, be deposed from his sovereignty, and put to death. A monarch thus subject to control and punishment for abuse of power, cannot justly be deemed a despotic prince.

We might be led to suppose, on a review of these islands, and the remote distance at which some of them are situated from the seat of government, that many efforts would have been made to throw off the yoke of subjection; but such a circumstance never happens. One reason of their not being thus embroiled in domestic commotions may be this; that all the principal chiefs take up their residence at Tongataboo. They also secure the dependence of the other isles, by the decisive celerity of their operations; for if a seditious and popular man should start up in any of them, the commander is immediately dispatched thither to put him to death, by which means they prevent any considerable insurrection.

The different classes of their chiefs seem to be nearly as numerous as among us; but there are few, comparatively speaking, that are lords of extensive districts of territory. It is said, that when a person of property

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dies, all his possessions devolve on the sovereign; but that it is customary to give them to the eldest son of the deceased, with this condition annexed, that he should provide out of the estate for the other children. The crown is hereditary; and it is known, from a particular circumstance, that the Futtafaïhe have reigned, in a direct line, for the space of at least one hundred and thirty-five years, which have elapsed between our countrymen visiting these islands, and Tasman's discovery of them.

Upon inquiring of them, whether any traditional account of the arrival of Tasman's ships had been preserved among them till this time, it was found, that this history had been delivered down to them, from their ancestors, with great accuracy: for they said, that his two ships resembled ours, and also mentioned the place where they had lain at anchor, their having continued but a few days, and their quitting that station to go to Annamooka; and, for the purpose of informing us how long ago this affair had happened, they communicated to us the name of the Futtafaïhe who reigned at that time, and those who had succeeded him in the sovereignty, down to Poulaho, who is the fifth monarch since that period.

Their rank of precedence ever appeared a matter of great difficulty to ascertain. It was generally supposed that the present sovereign of the Friendly Islands held the highest rank of any person in his dominions. But it was found to be otherwise; for Latoolibooloo and three women are superior, in some respects, to Poulaho himself. These great personages are distinguished by the title of *Tammaha*, which implies a chief. The late king, father of Poulaho, left behind him a sister of equal rank, and older than himself; she, by a native of Feejee, had a son and two daughters; and these three persons, as well as their mother, are of higher rank than the king. Endeavours were made to discover the reason of this pre-eminence of the *Tammahas*, but without effect. The mother, and one of her daughters, named Toocela-Kaipa, resided at Vavaoo. The other daughter, called Mounoulakaipa, and Latoolibooloo, the son, dwelt at Tongataboo. Latoolibooloo was supposed, by his countrymen, to be disordered in his senses.

The more speculative part of our countrymen say, that the language of the natives of the Friendly Islands bears a striking resemblance to those of New Zealand, of Otaheite, and the Society Isles. The pronunciation of these people differs, indeed, in many instances, from that both of Otaheite and New Zealand; but, notwithstanding that, a great number of words are either very little changed, or exactly the same. The language, as spoken by the Friendly Islanders, is sufficiently copious to express all their ideas; and besides being tolerably harmonious in common conversation, is easily adapted to the purposes of music. They have terms to signify numbers as far as an hundred thousand, beyond which they either would not, or could not reckon.

The tides are more considerable at the Friendly

Islands, than at any other of Captain Cook's discoveries in this ocean, that are situate within either of the tropics. At Annamooka, the tide rises and falls about six feet upon a perpendicular. At Tongataboo it rises and falls four feet and three quarters on the full and change days, and three feet and an half at the quadratures.

The latitude of that part of Tongataboo, where our countrymen erected an observatory, and which was near the middle of the north side of the island, is, according to the most accurate observations, 21 deg. 8 min. 19 sec. south; and its longitude 184 deg. 55 min. 18 sec. east.

ROTTERDAM, called by the Natives ANNAMOOKA.

Disposition, Customs, and Manners peculiar to the Inhabitants.

TASMAN discovered this island in the same year with the former; it was also named by him. It lies in latitude 20 deg. 15 min. south, and longitude 174 deg. 31 min. west. The shore consists of a steep, rugged coral rock, about nine or ten feet high; but there are two sandy beaches, which are defended from the sea by a reef of the same kind of rock. In the centre of the island is a salt water lake, in breadth about a mile and a half. On the rising parts, and especially towards the sea, the soil is either of a blackish mould or reddish clay, though not a stream of water was to be found upon the island but what was brackish.

The persons, dispositions, dress, manners, customs, language, &c. of the inhabitants here, are almost the same as those of the natives of Middleburgh, and indeed of the Friendly Islands in general, as before described. Upon the whole, the land appears to be well cultivated, and if some parts lie waste, the design is evidently that they might recover that strength which had been exhausted by too frequent culture. The chief plantations were yams and plantains. Bread fruit and cocoa-trees are also interspersed without regular order, but are chiefly found near the habitations of the natives. The island is in general covered with luxuriant trees and bushes, but particularly those parts towards the sea and round the lake.

These islanders gave proof of that courteous disposition from which their country is denominated, to all the strangers they met from our vessels, bowing their heads, and using the expression, *lehi waa*, good friend, or some word to that import. They readily undertook to conduct into the recesses of their country such as applied to them, climbed the highest trees to procure them flowers, and took to the water, like spaniels, after birds that were shot: they pointed out the finest plants; and gave them their proper names; and whenever any intimation was given, that specimens of a certain kind of plant were wanted, they would go to any distance to procure them.

They manage their canoes with the greatest agility, and swim with surprising ease. Their common trailing canoes are neatly made, and curiously polished. Their consist of two, fastened to a transverse platform of planks, in the middle of which they erect an hut, where they place their goods, their arms, and utensils, and where they pass great part of their time. They have also holes which give into the body of each canoe: their masts are straight poles, which can be struck at pleasure; and their sails are very large and triangular, but not very proper to make way before the wind. Their cordage, in general, is excellent, and they have also contrived a very good ground tackle, consisting of a strong rope, with large stones at the end, by means of which they come to an anchor.

From the inquiry of a great number of the natives, on the arrival of the vessel in the island, it appeared, that the same of these voyagers had already reached this spot. They supplied their European visitors with plenty of fruit and roots. A few fowls, and one or two small pigs, were all the animal food procured here.

No king, on the first visit, was distinguished amongst these people, and their method of government was entirely unknown. A young dog and a bitch were left here, as they had no such animal among them, and were the first of those they saw. The people here are more afflicted with the leprosy, or some scrophulous disorder, than at any of the other islands.

Captain Cook, revisiting these islands in 1777, resumed the same station for anchorage as he had before occupied, and, as he thought, most probably in the same place where the first discoverer of this and some of the neighbouring islands anchored in 1643. The officers sometimes amused themselves in walking up the country, and shooting wild ducks, resembling our widgeon, which are very numerous on the salt lake, as well as on the pool where water was procured. They found, in these excursions, that the inhabitants frequently deserted their houses to repair to the trading place, without entertaining the least suspicion that strangers would take away or destroy any property that belonged to them. From this circumstance, it might be supposed, that most of the natives were sometimes collected on the beach, and that there would be no great difficulty in forming an accurate computation of their number; but the continual resort of visitors from other islands rendered it impossible. However, as they never saw more than a thousand persons collected at one time, it may be reasonably supposed, that there are about twice that number upon the island.

The natives, as upon a former occasion, shewed their European visitors every mark of civility. In the course of a few days they were visited by a great chief from Tongataboo, or Amsterdani, whose name was Feenou, and whom the commander was introduced as king of all the Friendly Isles. He was also given to understand, that on his arrival, a canoe had been dispatched to Tongataboo with the news; in consequence of

which, this chief immediately passed over to Annamooka. When the British commander went to pay this great man a visit, having first received a present of two fish from him, brought on board by one of his servants, he came up to him immediately on his landing. He appeared to be about thirty years of age, tall, but thin, and had more of the European features than had been seen before. Captain Cook, after the first salutation, asked if he was the king; for notwithstanding the information he had received, finding he was not the man he had remembered to have seen under that character during a former voyage, he began to entertain doubts. Taipa, a friendly chief, who had accompanied him since his last arrival, officiously answered for him, and mentioned many islands of which he said Feenou was the sovereign. The monarch, and five or six of his attendants, having done the European visitor the honour of accompanying him on board, he gave suitable presents to them all, and having entertained them in such a manner as he thought would be most agreeable, attended them on shore in the evening, and received a return for the presents he had made.

A matter now fell out, the recital of which will convey some idea of the extent of the authority exercised here over the common people, very little of which was known before. While Feenou was on board the ship, an inferior chief, for what reason our people on shore did not know, ordered all the natives to retire from the post they occupied. Some of them having ventured to return, he took up a large stick and beat them most unmercifully. He struck one man on the side of the face with so much violence, that the blood gushed out of his mouth and nostrils, and after laying some time motionless, he was removed from the place in convulsions. The person who had inflicted the blow, being told that he had killed the man, only laughed at it, and it was evident that he was not in the least sorry for what had happened. It was heard afterwards, however, that the poor sufferer had been so fortunate as to recover. One of the natives having stolen a large junk axe out of the ship on the first day of arrival, opportunity was taken of an invitation to apply to Feenou to exert his authority to get it restored; and such was the effect of his mandate, that it was brought on board before the captain's departure.

On this second visit, the islanders gave frequent proof of their expertness in theft. And it is remarked from experience, that even some of their chiefs did not think this profession beneath them; for one of them was detected carrying out of the ship, concealed under his clothes, the bolt belonging to the spun-yarn winch, for which he was sentenced by the commander to receive a dozen lashes, and kept in confinement till he paid for his liberty. Their servants, or slaves, however, were still employed in this dirty work, and it seems at the instigation of their masters, who, nevertheless, when any of them happened to be caught in the act, so far from interceding for them, would advise the Europeans

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to kill them. As this was a punishment they did not choose to inflict, and flogging seemed to make no greater impression on them, than it would have done on the main-mast, a mode of treatment was devised which was thought to have had some effect. The delinquents were put under the hands of the barber, who completely shaved their heads, thus pointing them as objects of ridicule to their countrymen, and enabling our people to deprive them of future opportunities for a repetition of their rogueries by keeping them at a distance.

Fenou was so fond of associating with his European friends, that he visited them daily, and gave the strongest proofs of his esteem and respect. But the commander, finding that the island was exhausted of almost every article of food that it afforded, determined to proceed directly to Tongataboo. Fenou, understanding his resolution, importuned him strongly to alter his plan, to which he expressed as much an aversion as if he had some particular interest to answer by diverting him from it. In preference to it, he warmly recommended an island, or rather a group of islands, called Hapace, lying to the north-east, where he assured him he might obtain a plentiful supply of every refreshment in the easiest manner; and to add weight to his advice, he engaged to attend his new friends thither in person. Arguments so founded could not fail of having full weight, and Hapace was accordingly made choice of for the next station. Indeed, as it had never been visited by any European ships, the examination of it became an object of importance.

ISLES OF HAPAE.

Various Forms, Ceremonies, and Entertainments.

TO the north and north-east of Annamooka, and in the direct track to Hapace, whither our voyagers were now bound, the sea is sprinkled with a great number of very small isles. As from the shoals and rocks adjoining to this group there was no assurance that there was a free or safe passage for large vessels, though the natives sailed through the intervals in their canoes, it was deemed expedient to go to the westward of the above islands; the course was framed N. N. W. towards Kao and Toofa, the two most westerly islands in sight, and remarkable for their great height. These isles lie scattered at unequal distances, and are in general nearly as high as Annamooka. Most of them are entirely clothed with trees; amongst which are many cocoa-palms, and each forms a prospect like a beautiful garden placed in the sea.

When Hapace was in sight, our navigators could judge it to be low land, from the trees only appearing above the water. On a nearer view, they could see it plainly forming three islands, almost of an equal size, and soon after a fourth to the southward as large as the

others. Each seemed to be about six or seven miles long, and of a similar height and appearance. The northernmost of them is called Haanno; the next Foa, the third Lefooga, and the southernmost Hoolaiwa; but all four are included under the general name of Hapace.

As soon as the European vessels came to an anchor at Hapace, they were visited by the natives, and surrounded by a multitude of their canoes, filled also with them. They brought from the shore hogs, fowls, fruit, and roots. Fenou and Omai having come on board after it was light, in order to introduce the commander to the people of the island, he accompanied them on shore for that purpose, landing at the north part of Lefooga, a little to the right of the ship's station. Being asked how long he intended to stay, and replying five days, Taipa was ordered to proclaim to the people, as by Omai, his interpreter, he was given to understand, that they were all, both old and young, to look upon the visitor before them as a friend, who intended to remain with them a few days; that, during his stay, they must not steal any thing, nor molest him any other way, and that it was expected they should bring hogs, fowls, fruit, &c. to the ships, where they would receive in exchange for them a great variety of articles, which he enumerated. Taipa then took occasion to signify to the commander that it was necessary he should make a present to the chief of the island, whose name was Earoupa, in consequence of which such articles were presented him as far exceeded his expectation. Fenou then ordered Earoupa to sit by him, and to harangue the people as Taipa had done before him, and to the same purpose.

At this place the supply of provisions was copious, for in the course of one day our people got by barter along side the ships about twenty small hogs, besides a large quantity of fruit and roots. The commander was informed, that on his first landing in the morning a man came off to the ships, and ordered every one of the natives to go on shore. Probably this was done with a view to have the whole body of the inhabitants present at the ceremony of his reception; for when that was over, multitudes of them returned again to the ship.

Fenou, attended by Omai, came soon after on board to require the presence of the commander upon the island. In landing, he was conducted to the same place where he had been seated the day before, and where, seeing a large concourse of people already assembled, he conjectured that something more than ordinary was in agitation, but could obtain no information as to particulars. He had not been long seated before near an hundred of the natives appeared in sight, and advanced laden with yams, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and sugar-canes. They deposited their burdens in two heaps or piles upon the left-hand. Soon after arrived a number of others bearing the same kind of articles, which were collected into two piles on the right; to these were tied two pigs and six fowls, and so those upon the left-hand,

hand, six pigs and two turtles. Earoupa seated himself before the several articles to the left, and another chief before those on the right; they being, as was judged, the two chiefs who had collected them, by order of Fenou, who seemed to be as implicitly obeyed here as he had been at Annamooka; and, in consequence of his commanding superiority over the chiefs of Hapae, had laid this tax upon them for the present occasion.

When this munificent collection of provision was laid down in order, and disposed to the best advantage, the bearers of it joined the multitude, who formed a large circle round the whole. Presently a number of men entered the circle, armed with clubs made of green branches of the cocoa-nut tree. These paraded about for a few minutes, and then retired, the one half to the one side, and the other half to the other side, seating themselves before the spectators. Soon after they successively entered the lists, and entertained them with single combats. One champion rising up, and stepping forward from one side, challenged those on the other side, by expressive gestures more than by words, to send one of their body to oppose him. If the challenge was accepted, the two combatants put themselves in proper attitudes, and then began the engagement, which continued till one or other owned himself conquered, or till their weapons were broken. As soon as each combat was over, the victor squatted himself down opposite to the chief, then rose up and retired. At the same time some old men, who seemed to sit as judges, gave their plaudits in a few words; and the multitude, especially those on the side to which the victor belonged, celebrated the glory he had acquired in two or three loud huzzas. During the intervals of suspension from this entertainment, there were both wrestling and boxing matches; the latter differed very little from the method practised in England.

But what most surprised our people was, to see two lusty wenches step forth, and begin boxing without ceremony, and with as much art as the men. This contest, however, did not last above half a minute before one of them gave it up. The conquering heroine received the same applause from the spectators, which they bestowed upon the successful combatants of the other sex. The Europeans expressed some dislike at this entertainment, which, however, did not prevent two other females from entering the lists. They seemed to be girls of spirit, and would certainly have given each other a good drubbing, if two old women had not interposed to part them. All the combats were exhibited in the midst of at least three thousand people, and were conducted with the greatest good-humour on all sides; though some of the champions, women as well as men, received blows which they must have felt for some time after.

As soon as the diversions were ended, the chief gave the commander to understand, that the heaps of provision on the right-hand were a present to Omai, and those on the left-hand, being about two thirds of the whole

quantity, were given to himself. He assured him, that a guard was needless, as not the smallest article would be taken away by the natives. So, indeed, it proved; for when the provisions were removed on board, not a cocoa nut was missing. It was remarked, that this present of Fenou exceeded any that had been made the commander by any of the sovereigns of the various islands he had visited in the Pacific Ocean. His liberality was compensated by the bestowal of such commodities as were supposed to be most valuable in his estimation. This chief having expressed a desire to see the marines go through their military exercise, they were accordingly ordered on shore from both ships.

After they had performed various evolutions, and fired several volleys to the gratification of the spectators, the chief entertained his visitors, in his turn, with an exhibition, which, as acknowledged by all, was performed with dexterity and exactness, far surpassing the specimen the Europeans had given of their military manœuvres. This was a dance performed by men, and in which no less than one hundred and five persons bore their parts. Each of them had in his hand an instrument neatly made, in shape resembling a paddle, of two feet and an half in length, with a small handle and a thin blade, so that they were very light. With this instrument, they made many and various flourishes, each of which was accompanied with a different attitude of the body, or a different movement. At first, the performers ranged themselves in three lines, and by various evolutions, each man changed his station in such a manner, that those who had been in the rear came into the front. Nor did they remain long in the same position, but these changes were made by pretty quick transitions. At one time they extended themselves in one line; they then formed into a semicircle; and, lastly, into two square columns. While this last movement was executing, one of them advanced, and performed an antic dance before the commander, with which the whole ended. It was the general opinion of the party present, that such a performance would have met with universal applause upon an European stage; and it so far exceeded any attempt our people had made to entertain them, that they seem to plume themselves upon their superiority in this particular. They held none of our musical instruments in the least esteem, except the drum. The French-horns in particular seemed to be held in great contempt, for neither here, or at any other of the islands, would they pay the least attention to them.

To give the natives a more favourable opinion of English amusements, and to have their minds fully impressed with a sense of our superior attainments, the commander directed some fire-works to be prepared, and after dark caused them to be played off in the presence of Fenou, the other chief, and a vast concourse of their people. They succeeded in general so well as to answer the end proposed. The water and sky-rockets, in particular, pleased and astonished them exceedingly.

As a prelude to another entertainment of dances which Fenou had prepared for his guests, a band of music, or chorus of eighteen men, seated themselves before them in the centre of the circle composed by the numerous spectators, the area of which was to be the scene of the exhibitions. Four or five of this band had pieces of large bamboo, from three to five or six feet long, each managed by one man, who held it nearly in a vertical position, the upper end open, but the other closed by one of the joints. With this close end, the performers kept constantly striking to the ground, though slowly, thus producing different notes, according to the different lengths of the instruments, but all of them of the hollow or bafe sort; to counteract which, a person kept striking, quickly and with two sticks, a piece of the same substance, split and laid along the ground, and by that producing a tone as acute as those proceeding from the others were grave. The rest of the band, as well as those who performed on the bamboo, sung a slow and soft air, which so tempered the harsher notes of the above instruments, that no bystander, however accustomed to hear the most perfect modulations of sweet sounds, could avoid confessing the vast power and pleasing effect of this simple harmony. After this concert had continued about a quarter of an hour, twenty women entered the circle. Most of them had upon their heads garlands of crimson flowers of China rose, or others; and many of them had ornamented their persons with leaves of trees, cut with great nicety about the edges. They formed a circle round the chorus, turning their faces towards it, and began by singing a soft air, to which responses were made by the chorus in the same tone, and these were repeated alternately. All this while the women accompanied their song with several very graceful motions of their hands towards their faces, and in other directions, at the same time making constantly a step forward, and then back again with one foot, while the other was fixed. They then turned their faces to the assembly, sung some time, and retreated slowly in a body, to that part of the circle which was opposite to the spot where the principal spectators sat. After this, one of them advanced from each side, meeting and passing each other in the front, and continuing their progress round till they came to the rest. On which two advanced from each side, two of whom also passed each other, and returned as the former; but the other two remained, and to these came one from each side by intervals, till the whole number had again formed a circle about the chorus.

They now changed their manner of dancing to a quicker measure, in which they made a kind of half turn by leaping, and clapped their hands, and snapped their fingers, repeating some words in conjunction with the chorus. Towards the end, as the quickness of the music increased, their gestures and attitudes were varied with wonderful vigour and dexterity, and some of their motions by our countrymen might be deemed in-

decent: though probably this part of the performance was not meant to convey any wanton ideas, but merely to display the astonishing variety of their movements. Another exhibition followed, performed by fifteen men; and though some of them were old, time seemed to have robbed them of but little of their agility. They were disposed in a kind of circle, divided at the front. Sometimes they sung slowly, in concert with the chorus, making several graceful motions with their hands, but differing from those of the women; at the same time inclining the body alternately to either side, by raising one leg outward, and resting on the other; the arm of the same side being also stretched upwards. They then recited sentences, which were answered by the chorus; and occasionally increased the measure of the dance, by clapping the hands, and quickening the motions of the feet. Towards the conclusion, the rapidity of the music and dancing so much increased, that the different movements were hard to be distinguished.

Twelve other men advanced after the conclusion of the dance, placing themselves in double rows, fronting each other. On one side was stationed a kind of prompter, who repeated several sentences, to which responses were made by the performers and the chorus. They sung and danced slowly; and gradually grew quicker, like those whom they had succeeded.

The next that exhibited themselves were nine women, who sat down opposite the hut where the chief had placed himself. A man immediately rose, and gave the first of these women a blow on the back with both his fists joined. He treated the second and third in the same manner; but when he came to the fourth, he struck her upon the breast. Upon seeing this, a person instantly rising from among the crowd, knocked him down with a blow on the head, and he was quietly carried away. But this did not excuse the other five women from so extraordinary a discipline; for they were treated in the same manner by a person who succeeded him. When these nine women danced, their performance was twice disapproved of, and they were obliged to repeat it again. There was no great difference between this dance and that of the first women, except that these sometimes raised the body upon one leg, and then upon the other, alternately, by a sort of double motion. Soon after a person entered, making some ludicrous remarks on what had been exhibited, which extorted a burst of laughter from the crowd. The company had then a dance by the attendants of Fenou; they formed a double circle of twenty-four each round the chorus, and joined in a gentle soothing song, accompanied with motions of the head and hands. They also began with slow movements, which gradually became more and more rapid, and finally closed with several very ingenious transportations of the two circles.

The entertainments of this remarkable night concluded with a dance in which the principal people present

present exhibited, and which was performed with so much spirit, and so great exactness, that they met with universal approbation. The native spectators, who, no doubt, were perfect judges whether the several performances were properly executed, could not withhold their applauses of some particular parts, and even a stranger who never saw the diversion before, felt at this time similar satisfaction.

The place where these dances were performed, was an open space amongst the trees, just by the sea, with lights at small intervals placed round the inside of the circle. The concourse of people was pretty large, though not equal to the number assembled when the marines went through their exercise. Some guessed there might be about five thousand persons present on this occasion.

The commander next day took a tour into the island of Lefooga, of which he was desirous to obtain some knowledge, and found it to be in several respects superior to Annamooka. The plantations were more numerous and more extensive. In many places, indeed, towards the sea, especially on the east side, the country is still waste, which is owing probably to the sandy soil, as it is much lower than Annamooka and its surrounding isles. But towards the middle of the island the soil was better, and the marks of considerable population and of improved cultivation were every where seen. The party which went on the excursion observed large spots covered with the paper mulberry-trees, and the plantations in general were well stocked with such roots and fruits as are the natural produce of the island. To these some addition was made by our countrymen, in sowing the seeds of Indian corn, melons, pumpkins, &c.

The island is not above seven miles long, and in some places not above two or three broad. The east side of it, which is exposed to the trade-wind, has a reef running to a considerable breadth from it, on which the sea breaks with great violence. It is a continuation of this reef that joins Lefooga to Foa, which is not above half a mile distant, and at low water the natives can walk upon this reef, which is then partly dry, from one island to another. The shore itself is either a coral rock, six or seven feet high, or a sandy beach; but higher than the west side, which in general is not more than three or four feet from the level of the sea, with a sandy beach its whole length.

A party in a walk happened to step into a house where a woman was dressing the eyes of a young child who seemed blind, the eyes being much inflamed, and a film spread over them. The instruments she used were two slender wooden probes, with which she had brushed the eyes so as to make them bleed. It seems worth mentioning, that the natives of those islands should attempt an operation of this sort, though our countrymen entered the house too late to describe exactly how this female oculist applied the wretched tools she had to work with. However, they saw a different operation go on in the same house, of which they were able to give a tolerable account. They there

found another woman shaving a child's head with a shark's tooth, stuck into the end of a piece of stick. It was observed, that she first wetted the hair with a rag dipped in water, applying her instrument to that part which had been previously soaked. The operation seemed to give no pain to the child, although the hair was taken off as close as if one of our razors had been employed. A person of curiosity amongst the party, encouraged by what he saw, soon after tried one of these singular instruments upon himself, and found it to be an excellent shift. The men of these islands, however, have recourse to another contrivance when they shave their beards. They perform the operation, as before mentioned, with two shells, and some amongst them seem to profess this trade. It was as common, according to the account of our voyagers, to see the sailors go on shore to have their beards scraped off, after the fashion of Hapae, as it was to see their chiefs come on board to be shaved by our barbers.

An artificial mount was near the south end of the island Lefooga. From the size of some trees that were growing upon it, and from other appearances, it was supposed to have been raised in remote times. At the bottom of this mount stood a stone, which must have been hewn out of coral rock; it was four feet broad, two and a half thick, and fourteen high, and our people were told by the natives present, that not above half its length appeared above ground. They called it *tangata areke* (*tangata* in their language is man, *areke*, king) and said that it had been set up, and the mount raised by some of their forefathers, in memory of one of their kings; but how long since, they could not give information.

The party that landed at Hoolaiwa did not find the least mark of cultivation or habitation upon it, except a single hut, the residence of a man employed to catch fish and turtle. Uninhabited as Hoolaiwa is, an artificial mount, like that at the adjoining island, has been raised upon it as high as the surrounding trees. A large sailing canoe here came under the commander's stern, in which was a person named Tuttafaihe, or Poulaho, or both, who, as the natives then on board informed our people, was king of Tongataboo, and was king of all the neighbouring islands that we had seen or heard of. The commander was surprised at having a stranger introduced to him under that dignified character, which he had been before assured belonged to another; but the natives persisted in their declaration, and for the first time confessed that Fenu was not the king, but only a subordinate chief, though of great power, as he was often sent from Tongataboo to the other islands on warlike expeditions, or to decide differences. However, as it was the interest as well as inclination of the commander to pay court to all the great men, without inquiring into the validity of their assumed titles, Poulaho was invited on board; nor was he an unwelcome guest, for he brought with him as a present two good fat hogs, though not so fat as himself. If weight of
body

head with a piece of stick. It is the hair with a rag ment to that part

The operation although the hair razors had been amongst the party, after tried one of himself, and found it to these islands, how- rance when they operation, as be- some amongst them common, according e the sailors go on after the fashion efs come on board

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body could give weight in rank or power, he was certainly the most eminent man in that respect who had been seen; for, though not very tall, he was very un- wieldy, and almost shapeless with corpulence. He ap- peared to be a sedate, sensible man, viewed the ship and the several new objects with uncommon attention, and asked many pertinent questions.

Poulaho soon became as solicitous himself as his peo- ple were, to convince his new friends that he was king, and not Fenou, who had passed with them as such: for he soon perceived they had some doubts about it, which Omai, from his attachment to Fenou, was not very de- sirous of removing. Poulaho sat down to table, ate lit- tle, drank less, and, on rising, desired the commander to accompany him on shore. This was accordingly com- plied with, after presenting him with such articles as he was observed to value most, and were even beyond his expectation to receive. This munificence was however amply compensated both by presents and honours, as soon as they reached the shore. The commander was placed at his side, while he received the several articles his people had got by trading on board the ships. At length he ordered every thing to be restored to the respective owners, except a glass bowl, with which he was so much pleased, that he reserved it to himself.

The persons who brought these things to him first squatted themselves down before him, then deposited their several purchases, and immediately rose up and retired. The same respectful ceremony was observed in taking them away, and not one of them presumed to speak to him standing. The commander staid till several of his attendants left him, first paying him obedience, by bow- ing the head down to the soles of his feet, and touching or tapping the same with the upper and under side of the fingers of both hands. The commander was charmed with the decorum that was observed, and declared that he had no-where seen the like, even amongst more civi- lized nations.

The king continued to heap favours on his new friend, and, in particular, presented the commander with one of their caps, which were known to be valued at Otaheite, one of the places of their future destination. These caps, or rather bonnets, are composed of the tail feathers of the tropic bird, with the red feathers of the parroquets wrought upon them, or jointly with them. After various courses, hazards, and difficulties, they arrived and landed at Kotoo, in order to examine that island.

It is scarcely accessible by boats on account of the cor- ral reefs that surround it. It is not more than a mile and a half, or two miles long, and not so broad. The north-west end of it is low, like the islands of Hapae, but it rises suddenly in the middle, and terminates in reddish clayey cliffs at the south-east end about thirty feet high. The soil in that quarter is of the same sort as in the cliffs; but in the other parts, it is a loose black mould. It produces the same fruits and roots which were

found at the other islands, and is tolerably cultivated, but thinly inhabited.

C H A P. VII.

ISLANDS BETWEEN THE EQUATOR AND THE SOUTHERN TROPIC.

Their Situation, Productions, Manners of the Natives, and other Particulars.

AS some of these are comprehended under the list of the Friendly Islands, as such they will be pointed out and first attended to.

From the best accounts, we may include not only the groupe at Hapae, visited by our late navigators, but those discovered nearly under the same meridian to the north, as well as some others under the dominion of Tongataboo, which, though not the largest, is the capital seat of government.

This archipelago must be very extensive, for the natives reckoned a great number of islands; fifteen of them were said to be very lofty.

The principal of those seen on the last voyage have been described, viz. Eooa, Annamooka, Hapae, and Tongataboo.

PLYSTART-ISLAND was so called by Tasman who first saw it. The name signifies arrow-tail. This island lies in latitude 22 deg. 26 min. south, and longi- tude 170 deg. 59 min. west; it is mountainous, barren, and about two or three miles in circumference.

AMMATAFOA. From the appearance of a thick smoke arising from this island, and a fire issuing from it in the night, it was concluded that there was a volcano upon it, and this opinion was confirmed by infor- mation received from the natives that the appearances are constant. Near to this island is a high peak called Oghoa. They are both inhabited, seem barren, and are about twelve leagues distant from Annamooka.

It is supposed by Captain Cook, that Prince William's Islands, discovered and so named by Tasman, are in- cluded in this list; and assigns as a reason, that while he lay at Hapae, he received information from one of the natives, that at the distance of three or four days sail from thence to the north-west, there was a cluster of small islands, and this account corresponds with that given in Tasman's voyage. From the best information our late navigators could obtain, the most considerable in this neighbourhood are Hamoi, Vavaoo, and Feejee. Each of these was represented to them as larger than Tongataboo: our cou rymen in their late voyages did not visit them.

HAMOÀ lies two days sail north-west from Vavaoò. It is said to be the largest of all their islands; affords harbours and good water, and produces in abundance all the articles of refreshment that are found at the places our people visited. Poulaho frequently resides upon this island; and the people here are in high estimation at Tongataboo.

FEETEE lies in the direction of north-west by west, about three days sail from Tongataboo. It abounds with hogs, dogs, fowls, and such fruits and roots as are to be found in any of the others, and is much larger than Tongataboo; but not subject to its dominion, as the other islands of this archipelago are. Feejee and Tongataboo frequently engage in war against each other; and the inhabitants of the latter are often so much afraid of this enemy, that they bend the body forward, and cover the face with their hands, to express the sense of their own inferiority to the Feejee men. This is, indeed, no matter of surprize, for those of Feejee have rendered themselves formidable, by their dexterity in the use of bows and slings; but more so, by their savage practice of eating such of their enemies as they kill in battle. Extreme hunger, some say, first occasioned men to feed on human flesh; but where could be the inducement for the Feejee people to continue it in the midst of plenty? It is held in detestation by the inhabitants of Tongataboo, who seem to cultivate the friendship of their savage neighbours of Feejee through fear; though they, occasionally, venture to skirmish with them on their own territory, and carry off large quantities of red feathers as trophies. When a profound peace reigns between the two islands, they have frequent intercourse together; though, it is probable, they have not long been known to each other; or, it might be supposed that Tongataboo, and its neighbouring islands, would, before this time, have been supplied with a breed of dogs, which are numerous at Feejee, and were not introduced at Tongataboo, when first visited by our countrymen in 1773.

The colour of the natives of Feejee, met with here, was a shade darker than any of the inhabitants of the other Friendly Islands. One of the natives was seen, who had his left ear slit, and the lobe so stretched, that it almost extended to his shoulder; which singularity had been observed at other islands in the South-Seas during a former voyage. The Feejee men were much revered here; not only on account of their power and cruelty in war, but also for their ingenuity; for they greatly excelled the inhabitants of Tongataboo in workmanship. Specimens were shewn of their clubs and spears, which were ingeniously carved. Some of their beautifully chequered cloth, variegated mats, earthen pots, and other articles, also displayed a superiority in the execution.

Feejee, as before observed, is three days sail from Tongataboo; these people having no other method of

expressing the distance from island to island, but by mentioning the time required for the voyage in one of their canoes. That this might be ascertained with some precision, Captain Cook failed in one of their canoes, and by repeated trials with the log, found that she went close hauled, in a gentle gale, seven miles in an hour. He judged from this, they could sail, with such breezes as in general blow in their seas, seven or eight miles an hour on an average. Each day, however, is not to be reckoned at twenty-four hours; for when they talk of one day's sail, they mean no more than from the morning to the evening, or ten or twelve hours at the most. From the morning of the first day till the evening of the second, is, with them, two days sail. In the day, they are guided by the sun; and, in the night, by stars. When these are obscured, they can only have recourse to the points from whence the winds and waves come upon the vessel. If, at that time, the winds and waves should shift, they are quite bewildered, often missing their intended port, and sometimes are never heard of more.

TRAITORS, or KEPPEL'S ISLAND, lying in 15 deg. 55 min. latitude; 175 deg. 3 min. longitude west, is three miles and a half in extent and two in breadth. It was seen by Le Mair in 1716, and by him named, The Island of Traitors. When Captain Wallis arrived here, in the Dolphin, in 1765, he found a good landing place. The natives appear to be of a disposition similar to that of those of the Friendly Islands in general, and resemble them in the clothing and the amputation of the little fingers. At that time no hogs were seen upon this island, and the refreshments procured were trifling.

The reason that Captain Cook comprehends both this, and the following, called Boscawen's Island, in the list, arises from the following circumstances. Inquiring one day of Poulaho, the king, in what manner the inhabitants of Tongataboo had acquired the knowledge of iron, and from what quarter they had procured a small iron tool, which he had seen amongst them when he first visited their island; he was informed they had received it from an island, which he called Necootaboo. On a more minute inquiry, the king said, that one of those islanders sold a club for five nails to some of the crew of a ship that had touched there, and that these five nails were afterwards sent to Tongataboo. He added, that this was the first iron known amongst them, so that what Tasman left of that metal must have been worn out and forgotten long ago. On inquiring further, the principal facts appeared to be fresh in his memory; he said there was but one ship, that she did not come to anchor, but left the island after her boat had been on shore. From several particulars which he mentioned, it could not be many years since this had happened. It appeared, further, from his account, that there were two islands

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near each other, at which he had been himself. The one he described as high and peaked, like Kao, and he called it Kootahce; the other, where the people of the ship landed, called Necootabootaboo, he represented as much lower. He added, that the natives of both were the same sort of people with those of Tongataboo; and built their canoes in the same manner; that their island had hogs and fowls, and in general the same vegetable productions. Upon the whole, it appeared evident to Captain Cook, that the ships so pointedly referred to, in this conversation, could be no other than the Dolphin, the only ship from Europe, as far as could be learned, that had touched, of late years, at any island in this part of the Pacific Ocean, prior to his former visit of the Friendly Islands.

COCOS, OR BOSCAWEN'S-ISLAND. This island received the former name from Le Mair and Schouten, who first visited it in 1716, and the latter from Captain Wallis, who saw it the same voyage as he did the foregoing. It lies in latitude 15 deg. 50 min. south, and longitude 175 deg. west. The natives of this, as well as Traitors-Island, are of a savage disposition. Their clothing consists of rushes or mats; they have their hair in different forms, and are robust and well proportioned. The flaps of their ears are slit, and hang down almost to their shoulders. They wear whiflers and a short tuft under the chin, and their bodies are punctured or tattooed.

When the first Europeans arrived at this spot, one of the chiefs put off from the shore, in a canoe covered with a mat in the form of a tent, and accompanied by a number of people in thirty canoes. As they approached Schouten's ship, the chief cried out three times with a loud voice, and at the fourth all the attendants joined him. He presented the commander with a paper dress and a fine mat, for which he received due compensation. These people soon gave proofs of an irresistible propensity to theft, attempting to pilfer every thing they saw; they even tried to draw out the nails from the ship's side with their teeth; nay, some swam under the very keel and strove to draw the nails from thence, till being fired at they desisted. A vast number of them, however, next day put off from shore with some hogs, bananas, fowls, and cocoa nuts, of which they have plenty. When the chief, or Latow, as he is there called, gave the signal from his double canoe, there was a general shout, followed by a volley of stones thrown on board the ship. The chief, indeed, was so absurd as to suppose that he could run down the ship with his canoe, and made the ridiculous attempt, in which he struck the head of it to pieces. This exasperated the savages, and they renewed the attack, but they were soon put to flight, by the discharge of small arms and a few great guns.

HERVEY-ISLAND, so called by Captain Cook, in

honour of the Earl of Bristol, was discovered by him in 1773. It is situated low, in latitude 19 deg. 8 min. south, longitude 158 deg. 4 min. west. On his last voyage, our people observed, on their approach, several canoes coming from the shore towards the ships, a circumstance which occasioned much surprize, as no traces or signs of inhabitants were seen when the island was first discovered. It might, indeed, be owing to a brisk gale that then blew, and prevented their canoes from coming out. Those that came off stopped at a short distance from the vessel: it was with difficulty they were prevailed on to come along side, but could not be induced, by any means, to come on board. They soon, however, began to evince their propensity to theft, so prevalent in this part of the globe, in stealing oars, cutting away a net, containing meat, that hung over the stern of one of the ships, and other acts of a like nature. But it appeared that they had a knowledge of bartering, for they exchanged some fish for some of our small nails, of which they were extravagantly fond, and called them *goore*. Pieces of paper, or any trifling article that was thrown to them, they caught with the greatest avidity; and if what was thrown fell into the sea, they immediately plunged in to swim after it.

The colour of the natives of Hervey-Island, is of a deep cast, and several of them had a fierce savage aspect, like the natives of New Zealand, though some were fairer. Their hair was long and black, either hanging loose about their shoulders, or tied in a bunch on the top of the head. Some few, indeed, had it cropped short, and in two or three of them, it was of a red or brownish colour. Their clothing was a narrow piece of mat, bound several times round the lower part of the body, and passing between the thighs. A fine cap of red feathers was seen lying in one of the canoes, and some amongst them were ornamented with the shell of a pearl-oyster, polished and hung about the neck.

The boats that were sent to reconnoitre the coast, could advance no further than the other edge of the reef, which was computed almost a quarter of a mile from the dry land. A number of the natives came upon the reef, armed with clubs and long pikes, meaning, as was supposed, to oppose the people's landing; though, at the same time, they threw cocoa-nuts to them, and requested them to come on shore. Notwithstanding this seeming friendly treatment, the women were very active in bringing down a fresh supply of darts and spears.

Captain Cook discovered PALMERSTON'S-ISLAND in 1774. It lies in latitude 18 deg. 4 min south, and longitude 163 deg. 10 min. west. This island consists of a group of small islets, about nine or ten in number, connected by a reef of coral rocks, and lying in a circular direction. It appeared from observation made by

some of our people in going on shore upon the last voyage, that the island does not exceed a mile in circumference, and is not elevated above three feet beyond the level of the sea. It consists almost entirely of a coral sand, with a small mixture of blackish mould, which appeared to be produced from rotten vegetables.

The soil, poor as it is, however, is covered with shrubs and bushes; a great number of man of war birds, tropic birds, and also two sorts of boobies were perceived, which were then laying their eggs, and so exceedingly tame as to suffer themselves to be taken off their nests, which consisted only of a few sticks loosely put together. These tropic birds differ essentially from the common sort, being of a beautiful white, slightly tinged with red, and having two long tail-feathers of a deepish crimson. Our people killed a considerable number of each sort, which, though not the most delicate kind of food, were highly acceptable to such as had been a long time confined to a salt diet. There were plenty of red crabs creeping among the trees; and several fish caught, which, when the sea retreated, had been left in holes upon the reef.

At one part of the reef, which bounds the lake within, almost even with the surface, there appeared a large bed of coral, which afforded a most enchanting prospect. Its base, which was fixed to the shore, extended so far that it could not be seen, so that it appeared to be suspended in the water. The sea was then unruffled, and the resplendence of the sun exposed the various sorts of coral, in the most beautiful order; some parts luxuriantly branching into the water; others appearing in vast variety of figures; and the whole greatly heightened by spangles of the richest colours, glowing from a number of large clams interspersed in every part. Even this delightful scene was greatly improved by the multitude of fishes, whose colours were the most beautiful that can be imagined; blue, yellow, red, &c. far exceeding any thing that can be produced by art. The richness of this view was greatly increased by their various forms; and the whole could not possibly be surveyed without a most pleasing transport.

No traces could be discovered of inhabitants having been here, except a piece of a canoe that was found upon the beach; and probably that might have been drifted from some other island. Some small brown rats were found on this island; a circumstance, perhaps, not easily accounted for, unless the possibility of their being imported in the canoe, of which the remains were seen, be admitted.

An ample supply was found here for the subsistence of the cattle, consisting principally of tender branches of the whana-tree, palm-tree, palm-cabbage, and young cocoa-nut trees. Amongst the great number of fish found upon the reefs, were some beautiful large spotted eels, which would raise themselves out of the water, and endeavour to bite their pursuers. There were also frappers, parrot-fish, and a brown spotted rock-fish, not larger than a haddock, so tame that it would remain

fixed, and gaze at the people. If they had been really in want, a sufficient supply might easily have been had. There were also some shell-fish; and when the tide flowed, several sharks came with it, some of which were killed by our people; but their presence rendered it, at that time, unsafe to walk in the water. Mufquetoës abound here.

The islets, comprehended under the name of Palmerston's-Island, may be said to be the summits of a reef of coral-rock, covered only with a thin coat of sand; though clothed with trees and plants, like the low grounds of the high islands of this ocean.

In their course to Annamooka, our late navigators passed the following places.

SAVAGE-ISLAND, discovered by Captain Cook in 1774. It lies in latitude 19 deg. 1 min. south, and longitude 169 deg. 37 min. west. On his first landing the inhabitants discovered a most savage ferocity, and withstood every possible intimation of good-will. They gave such evident tokens of hostile designs in darting a spear, which grazed the commander's shoulder, and other instances, that a party posted on a rock, to secure a retreat in case of an attack, found it necessary to fire on the natives to rescue him, and those who were with him, from impending destruction. From the general aspect and conduct of these islanders, Captain Cook was induced to call this spot Savage-Island. It is in extent about seven leagues, of a round form, good height, and has deep water close to its shores. As no soil was to be seen towards the coasts, and the rocks alone supplied the trees with moisture, the interior parts are supposed to be barren.

EIMEO, or WALLIS'S DUKE OF YORK'S ISLAND, was first discovered by Captain Wallis in 1767. It was visited by Captain Cook in 1777. The harbour, which is called Taloo, is situated on the north side of the island. It runs between the hills about two miles south, or south by east. For safety and soundness of bottom it is pronounced by our navigators equal to any harbour met with in this ocean, to which is added this peculiar convenience, that a vessel can sail both in and out with the reigning trade wind. A rivulet falls into it sufficiently capacious to admit boats a quarter of a mile up, where the water was found perfectly fresh. The banks of the rivulet are covered with what the natives call the Pooroo tree, which is in no estimation, and solely used for firing. From these two causes wood and water abound here. There is another harbour called Parowroah, about two miles to the eastward on the same side of the island. Though much larger within than Taloo, the opening in the reef lies to leeward of it, and is in no degree so wide. From these two defects the harbour of Taloo is evidently superior. On the south side of the island are one or two more

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The natives of the Duke of York's Island are a stout, robust, well-made people, of a light copper colour; none of them could be called black; they go entirely naked. The hair is woolly; but it is so managed by some sort of grease or ointment, and a white or red powder with which they dress it, that it hangs on some like so many candle-wicks, or rather like the thrums of a new mop reversed, or turned upside down: they are generally as fully powdered as a beau dressed for an assembly; some have their hair of a yellow, sun-burnt colour; others quite red, as if powdered wholly with the true marechall; none are seen with the hair of its natural colour. This yellow or red appearance, we believe, may be occasioned by an universal method of powdering, for the powder seems to be made from burnt shells or coral, and is really a kind of lime: they generally carry a small gourd or box filled with it about them; and when they are hostilely disposed, they frequently take a quantity of this powder into the hollow of the hand, from which, with a strong blast from the mouth, they blow it before them; and at a small distance it has exactly the appearance of firing gunpowder, and no doubt so meant as a token of defiance.

Their chief, upon hostile occasions, powdered his body all over, so that it was no difficult matter to discover him; they also upon such occasions painted their faces red; some had marks upon their arms and shoulders, caused by scarifying those parts in long stripes, and letting the sore rise above the surface of the skin. They frequently wore a bone or reed thrust through the septum of the nose, and, like the natives of Lord Howe's Group, had also holes cut through the wings of the nose, into which were fixed short pieces of hollow reed, as ladies wear wires to keep the ears open when newly bored; into these hollows or rings they occasionally stuck long pieces of reed, which are no doubt considered by them as ornamental. The men in general were well-looking people; but the women are remarkable for being of a dark hue, low of stature, and disagreeable features.

Numbers of the natives came on board the European vessels as soon as they had anchored, from mere curiosity, as appeared by their bringing out commodities for the purpose of traffic. Several canoes, however, arrived the next day from more remote quarters with an abundant supply of bread-fruit, cocoa nuts, and a few hogs, which were exchanged for beads, nails, and hatchets.

Maheme, the chief of the island, accompanied by his wife, visited the commander on board; but through extreme caution and deliberation, betrayed much distrust. They were presented with such articles as appeared mostly to engage their attention, which they took with them on shore, and returned with a hog in compensation; but received an additional present to its full value. This chief was between forty and fifty years of age, and bald headed, which in these islands was rather un-

gular at that time of life. He seemed desirous of concealing this baldness, as he wore a turban, from whence it was inferred, that it was held disgraceful; a very probable supposition, as one of the natives had his head shaved, as a punishment for theft. This propensity to pilfering prevailed here in common with the islanders in general, and the loss of a goat on the part of the Europeans had nearly been attended with the most serious consequences. The natives were guilty of great duplicity of conduct upon this occasion. The chief retired to a remote part of the island; their replies were equivocal on demanding restoration of the animal, inasmuch that it was deemed expedient to send on shore an armed party which drove the natives before them. However, as assurance was given them of their safety, it put a stop to their flight. Persisting in their denial of any knowledge of the animal, six or eight of their houses were set on fire, two or three canoes were consumed, and a messenger was dispatched to Mahem with a peremptory declaration, that on his refusing immediate restoration of the goat, a single canoe should not be left on the island, nor should hostilities cease while the stolen animal continued in his possession. These means had the desired effect; the goat was returned; and, it appeared from good intelligence, that it was brought from the very place where the inhabitants, but the day before, declared their total ignorance of the matter.

This island, in its produce, is nearly the same with that of those adjoining. The country is hilly, has little low land except some valleys, and the flat border that almost surrounds the sea. These hills, though rocky, are generally covered almost to their tops with trees. At the bottom of Taloo harbour the ground gradually rises to the foot of the hills, but the flat border on each side becomes quite steep at a very small distance from the sea. This gives it a romantic cast, pleasing to the view. In the low grounds the soil is of a yellowish stiff mould; on the lower hills it is blacker and looser, and the stone that composes the hills is of a bluish colour, with some particles of glimmer interspersed. Near where the vessels lay were two large stones, or rather rocks, concerning which the natives entertain some superstitious notions, considering them as brother and sister, and holding them to be *Eutooa's*, or Divinities brought thither by supernatural agency.

The island called O-HETEROA is thirteen miles in circumference, situated in latitude 22 deg. 27. min. south, and longitude 150 deg. 47 min. west. Though more even and uniform, it is neither so populous or fertile as the adjacent islands. The inhabitants are not hospitable, nor have they an harbour for the accommodation of shipping. There is a bay on the western side of the island; the bottom is foul and rocky; but the water is so clear that the bottom can be seen at the depth of 25 fathom, or 150 feet. The natives are of

an hostile disposition, and generally armed with lances near twenty feet long, made of a very hard wood, polished and sharpened at one end. They differ much in the form of their drefs from the other islanders, though the materials are the same. Some of them wear caps made of the large feathers of the tropic bird, and cover their bodies with stripes of different coloured cloth, as yellow, red, and brown. Their habit is a kind of short jacket of cloth, which reaches to the knee. It is of one piece, and having a hole in the middle, with long stitches round it, is thereby rendered different from the drefs of all the other islanders. Through this hole the head is put, and the whole being bound round the body by a piece of yellow cloth or sash, that passes round the neck behind, is crossed upon the breast, and collected round the waist like a belt, which passes over another belt of red cloth, so that they are represented as making a very gay and warlike appearance. They take singular pains in adorning their canoes, by the embellishments of carvings, and some rows of white feathers hanging down from head to stern.

The ISLANDS of DANGER, were so called by Commodore Byron, from the hazard to which a vessel is exposed from the rocks and broken ground between them, which being so low a ship may be close in with them before they are seen. They are three in number, and their situation is differently laid down by Commodore Byron and Captain Cook, the former placing them in latitude 12 deg. 33 min. south, longitude 167 deg. 47 min. west. The length of the most extensive of these islands is about three leagues. From the extreme points runs out a reef upon which the sea breaks to a tremendous height. Innumerable rocks and shoals stretch near two leagues into the sea, on the north-west and west sides, and are extremely dangerous. These islands are populous, and appear fertile and beautiful; but they are secluded from investigation by their very dangerous situation.

BYRON'S DUKE of YORK'S ISLAND, was thus named by Commodore Byron, who discovered it in 1765. It lies in latitude 8 deg. 41 min. south, and longitude 173 deg. 3 min. west. It is a dreary spot, uninhabited; a dreadful sea breaks upon almost every part of the coast, nor could soundings be any-where found. The boats landed with great difficulty, and procured some cocoa-nuts, which greatly refreshed the crew, amidst a dearth of wholesome food. The island appeared as if it never had been trodden by a human being before. Innumerable sea-fowls were seen sitting upon their nests, built upon high trees; but so tame that they suffered themselves to be knocked down without leaving their nests. No other animal was seen but land-crabs, with which the ground was covered.

TURTLE-ISLAND, so denominated by Captain Cook, who first visited it, from the number of turtles with which it abounded, lies in latitude 19 deg. 48 min. south, and longitude 178 deg. 2 min. west.

When QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLANDS were first discovered by Captain Carteret, seven of them were counted; but there was reason to suppose there were more dispersed within the cluster. The water here is excellent; but there is a dearth of wholesome vegetables. The colour of the natives is black, their hair is woolly, and they go stark naked. A party sent on shore upon this island by Captain Wallis to procure provisions, by their insolent behaviour, brought upon themselves the resentment of the natives, and thereupon ensued a skirmish, in which the master of the ship, and several seamen were wounded by arrows, and afterwards died, while the Dolphin lay here. To protect the English on shore from the fury of the natives, grape shot was fired from the ship's guns, which so intimidated them, that they abandoned that part of the island, and left the people to fill water without annoyance. The commander was not necessary to the carnage, as the insult given to the natives was contrary to his express orders, and he was under an indispensable necessity of procuring water by any means. The inhabitants are very nimble and vigorous, and of an amphibious compound, as they were in and out of their canoes every minute. These islands lie in latitude 11 deg. longitude 164 deg. east.

BYRON'S-ISLAND, was so called from Commodore Byron, who discovered it in 1765; it lies in 1 deg. 18 min. south latitude, and 170 deg. 50 min. east longitude. There being no part favourable for anchorage, the people could not go on shore, nor procure any refreshments. It was supposed to be about four leagues in extent, and was evidently very populous, for as soon as the vessels came in sight, the natives assembled on the beach, to the number of above a thousand, and more than sixty canoes put off from the shore, made towards it, and ranged themselves in a circle round it. Having gazed for some time, one of the people jumped out, swam to the ship, and ran up the side like a cat. Having stepped over the gunwale he sat down upon it, burst into a fit of excessive laughter, and starting up suddenly, ran up and down the ship, seemingly desirous of stealing whatever he could lay his hands on, but could not effect his design, as being stark naked it was impossible to conceal his booty. Much merriment was produced on the sailors dressing him in a jacket and trousers, as he then displayed all the droll gesticulations of an ape. He was ready enough to eat, with a most voracious appetite, some bread which was given him; and having played a number of antic tricks, leaped over in his new garb, and swam to his canoe.

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The natives of this island are of good stature, proportion, and features. Their complexion is of a bright copper, and the mixture of cheerfulness and intrepidity, discoverable in their countenances, strikes the beholder. They have long black hair; some had long beards, others only whiskers, and others nothing more than a small tuft at the point of the chin. They were all stark naked except some ornaments, which consisted of shells fancifully disposed and strung together, which they wore round their necks, wrists, and waists. Their ears were perforated, but they had no ornaments in them, though it seemed as if they had worn very heavy ones, for their ears hung down almost to their shoulders, and some were split quite through. A person amongst them of apparent importance, had a string of human teeth tied about his waist, which was supposed to be a badge of his valour, as he would not part with it upon any consideration. Some were armed with a kind of spear very broad at the end, and stuck full of shark's teeth, which were as sharp as a lancet. They were of a savage disposition; for when our people shewed them some cocoa-nuts, and indicated, by signs, that they wanted more, instead of supplying them, they discovered a desire of depriving them of those few they had remaining; so that we could expect no friendship to be established with them.

CHAP. VIII.

OF THE ISLANDS OF MANGEEA, WATEOO, AND OTAKOOTAI.

The Soil, Manners, Disposition, Dress, and Customs of the Natives.

MANGEEA, or **MANGYA**, is situated in 21 deg. 59 min. south latitude, and 201 deg. 53 min. east longitude, and was discovered by Captain Cook in March 1777. As an attempt to land from boats appeared impracticable, on account of the surf, and no bottom could be found for anchorage, till they came within a cable's length of the breakers, our late navigators were obliged to leave this island unvisited. However, those parts of the coast that fell under observation are guarded by a reef of coral rock, against which a heavy surf is continually breaking.

This island is about five leagues in circumference; and though of a moderate and pretty equal height, may be seen in clear weather at the distance of ten leagues. In the interior parts it rises into small hills, whence there is an easy descent to the shore, which, in the south-west part, is steep, though not very high, and has several excavations made by the dashing of the waves against a brownish sand stone, of which it consists. The descent here abounds with trees of a deep green, which seem to be all of one sort, except nearest the shore, where was observed a number of that species, found in the woods of New Zealand. The shore on the north-west part terminates in a sandy beach, beyond which the

land is broken into small clafms, and has a broad border of trees, which resemble tall willows. Further upon the ascent, the trees were of the deep green before mentioned. Some trees of the higher forts were thinly scattered on the hills, the other parts of which were either covered with something like fern, or were bare, and of a reddish colour.

This island, upon the whole, has a pleasing appearance, and might, by proper cultivation, be made a beautiful spot. From the numbers and aspect of the natives, it is highly probable, that such articles of provision as the island produces, are found in great abundance. Our countrymen were informed, that they had no hogs or dogs, though they had heard of both those animals; but that they had plantains, taro, and bread-fruit. The only birds observed were some terns, noddies, white egg-birds, and one white heron.

As our people approached the shore, they saw many of the natives running along the beach, and, by the assistance of glasses, could perceive that they were armed with long spears and clubs, which they brandished in the air with signs of threatening, but, as some supposed, with invitations to land. Most of them were naked, except having a kind of girdle, which was brought up between the thighs; but some of them wore about their shoulders pieces of cloth of various colours, white, striped, or chequered; and almost all of them had about their heads a white wrapper, in some degree resembling a turban. They were of a tawny complexion, robust, and about the middle size.

A man getting into a small canoe, at a distant part of the beach, put off, as with a view of reaching the ship; but his courage failing, he quickly returned towards the shore. Another man soon after joined him in the canoe; and then both of them paddled towards it. They seemed, however, afraid to approach, till their apprehensions were partly removed by Omai, who addressed them in a language they understood. Thus encouraged, they came near enough to receive nails and beads, which, being tied to some wood, were thrown into the canoe. They, however, put the wood aside without untying the things from it, which might perhaps have proceeded from superstition; for Omai told our people, that when they observed them offering presents, they requested something for their *Eatooa*. On being asked by Omai, whether they ever eat human flesh, they replied in the negative, with equal abhorrence and indignation. One of them, named Mourooa, being questioned with regard to a scar on his forehead, said, it was the consequence of a wound he had received in fighting with the natives of an island lying towards the north-east, the people of which sometimes invaded them. They afterwards laid hands on a rope, but would not venture on board, telling Omai, that their countrymen on shore had suggested to them this caution; and had likewise directed them to inquire when our ship came, and to learn the name of the captain. Their chief, they said, was called Orooeeka, the name of the

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island *Mangya* or *Mangoa*, to which they sometimes added *noa*, *nai*, *naiwa*.

We perceived one of the natives to be rather corpulent; and, though not tall, well proportioned. As his person was agreeable, so was his disposition; this appeared from some droll gesticulations, which indicated humour and good-nature. He also made others of a ferocious kind, and repeated some words with an air of devotion, before he would venture to take hold of the rope at the stern of the ship. His complexion was nearly of the same cast with that of the natives of the most southern parts of Europe. His companion was not so handsome. They both had strong, straight, black hair, tied together on the top of their heads with a piece of white cloth. They had long beards; and the inside of their arms, from the elbow to the shoulder, and some other parts, were tattooed or punctured. The lobes of their ears were slit to such a length, that one of them stuck a knife and some beads that were given him in them. The same person had hung about his neck, by way of ornament, two polished pearl shells, and a bunch of human hair, loosely twisted together. They wore a kind of girdle, of a substance manufactured from the *maris papyrifera*, and glazed like those used in the Friendly Islands. They had on their feet a sort of sandals, made of a grassy substance interwoven, which were observed to be all worn by those seen on the beach.

The canoe in which they came, was the only one of the natives seen; it was very narrow, and not above ten feet long, but strong and neatly made. The lower part was of white wood, but the upper part black; and their paddles were made of wood of the same colour; these were broad at one end, and blunted, and about three feet long. The fore part had a flat board fastened over it, which projected out, to prevent the water from getting in. It had an upright stern, five feet high, which terminated at top in a kind of fork. They paddled indifferently either end of the canoe forward.

While the English officers were employed in reconnoitring the coast in two boats, the natives thronged down upon the reef all armed. Mourooa, who was in the boat with Captain Cook, thinking, perhaps, that this warlike appearance deterred them from landing, commanded his own people to retire. As many of them complied, it was imagined that he was a person of some consequence. Several of them, instigated by curiosity, swam from the shore to the boats, and came on board them without reserve. It was difficult to keep them out, and prevent their pilfering whatever they could lay hands upon. At length, when they observed our people returning to the ships, they all departed except Mourooa, who, though not without manifest indication of fear, accompanied the commodore on board the Resolution. The cattle and other new objects that he saw there, did not strike him with much surprise; his mind, perhaps, being too much occupied about his own safety, to allow him to attend to other things. He seemed very uneasy, gave but little new

intelligence; and therefore, after he had continued a short time on board, Captain Cook ordered a boat to carry him towards the land. In his way out of the cabin, happening to stumble over one of the goats, he stopped, looked at the animal, and asked Omai what bird it was; but not receiving an immediate answer from him, he put the same question to some of the people who were upon deck. The boat having conveyed him near the surf, he leaped into the water, and swam ashore. His countrymen, eager to learn what he had seen, flocked round him as soon as he had landed; in which situation they remained till our people lost sight of them.

These islanders speak a language resembling that spoken at Otaheite, but their pronunciation is more guttural, and they have some words peculiar to themselves. It was remarked, that they seemed to resemble the natives of Otaheite in their persons more than any other nation seen in these seas, having a smooth skin, and not being muscular. Their general disposition and method of living, as far as there were opportunities of judging, were supposed to be similar. One house was observed near the beach. It was pleasantly situated in a grove of trees, and appeared to be about thirty feet long, and seven or eight feet high, with an open end. Their mode of salutation is that of joining noses, with the additional ceremony of taking the hand of the person whom they salute, and rubbing it with a degree of warmth upon their nose and mouth.

WATEOO was discovered also by Captain Cook in 1777, is situated in latitude 20 deg. 1 min. south, and longitude 201 deg. 45 min. east. It is a beautiful spot, about six leagues in circuit, with a surface covered with verdure, and composed of hills and plains. The soil in some parts is light and sandy, but on the rising ground of a reddish cast.

Soon after the arrival of the European vessels, several of the natives put off from the shore in several canoes, and came alongside of them. Their canoes are long and narrow, and supported with out-riggers; the head is flat above, but prow-like below, and the stern about four feet high. They seemed to have no idea of barter or traffic; as after having received some presents of knives, beads, and other trifles, they gave our people some cocoa-nuts, in consequence of having asked for them, but not by way of exchange. One of them with a little persuasion came on board, and others soon followed his example. They appeared to be perfectly free from all apprehension of danger. When introduced into the cabin, and conducted to other parts of the ship, though some objects seemed to surprise them, nothing could fix their attention. They were afraid to venture near the cows and horses, of whose nature they could form no conception. As for the sheep and goats, they gave the seamen to understand, that they knew them to be birds, a most astonishing proof of their ignorance.

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and total want of conception. Though the commodore bestowed on his new friends what he supposed would be most acceptable, yet they seemed rather disappointed.

Such of the natives as were seen in these canoes, were in general of the middle stature, and not unlike those of Manceea. Their hair either flowed loose over their shoulders, or was tied on the crown of the head; and though in some it was frized, yet that, as well as the straight sort, was long. Some of the young men were handsome. Like the inhabitants of Manceea, they wore girdles of glazed cloth, or fine matting, the ends of which were brought between their thighs. Their ears were bored, and they wore about their necks, by way of ornament, a sort of broad grass, stained with red, and strung with berries of the night-shade. They were punctured or tattooed from the middle downwards, particularly upon their legs, which made them appear as if they wore boots. Their beards were long, and they had a kind of sandals on their feet. They were frank and cheerful in their deportment, and very friendly and good-natured.

Some cocoa-nuts and plantains, and a hog, were brought in some canoes, for which the natives demanded a dog in return, refusing every other thing offered by way of exchange. Though one of the sailors had a dog and a bitch, which were great nuisances in the ship, and which might have served to propagate a race of so useful an animal in this island, yet he could not be prevailed upon to part with them. However, to gratify them, Omai gave them a favourite dog he had brought from Great-Britain; with which acquisition they were highly satisfied. Now-and-then some of them brought a few cocoa-nuts to the ships, and exchanged them for whatever was offered.

The following account of transactions, which is very circumstantial, and includes some observations on the island and its inhabitants, is presented as a general display.

"Some of our people rowed towards a sandy beach, where a great number of the natives had assembled, and came to anchor at the distance of an hundred yards from the reef. Several of the islanders swam off, bringing cocoa-nuts with them; and Omai gave them to understand, that our people were desirous of landing. Soon after two canoes came off; and to inspire the natives with greater confidence, they resolved to go unarmed. The conductors of the canoes, watching with great attention the motion of the surf, landed them safely on the reef. A native took hold of each of them, with a view of supporting them in walking over the rugged rocks to the beach, where several others, holding in their hands the green boughs of a species of *mi-mia*, met them, and saluted them by the junction of noses. They were conducted from the beach amidst a vast multitude, who flocked round them with the most eager curiosity; and being led up an avenue of cocoa-palms, soon came to a number of men, arranged in two rows, and armed with clubs.

"Proceeding onward among these, they found a person who appeared to be a chief, sitting cross-legged on the ground, and cooling himself with a kind of triangular fan, made from the leaf of the cocoa-palm, with a polished handle of black wood. He wore in his ears large bunches of beautiful feathers of a red colour; but had no other mark to distinguish him from the rest of the people. Our countrymen having saluted him as he sat, marched on among the men armed with clubs, and came to a second chief, adorned like the former, and occupied like him in fanning himself. He was remarkable for his size and corpulence, though he did not appear to be above thirty years of age. They were conducted in the same manner to a third chief, who seemed older than the two former; he was also sitting, and was ornamented with red feathers. After they had saluted him as they had done the others, he desired them to sit down; which they willingly consented to, being greatly fatigued with walking, and with the extreme heat they felt amidst the surrounding multitude. The people being ordered to separate, they saw, at a small distance, about twenty young women, adorned like the chiefs, with red feathers, engaged in a dance, which they performed to a slow and solemn air, sung by them all. They rose up, and walked forward to see these dancers, who, without paying them the smallest attention, still continued their dance. They seemed to be directed by a man, who mentioned the several motions they were to make. They never changed the spot, as Europeans do in dancing, though their feet were not entirely at rest: this exercise consisted chiefly in moving their fingers very nimbly, holding their hands at the same time near the face, and occasionally clapping them together. Their dancing and singing were performed in the exactest concert. They were in general very stout, and of an olive complexion, with black hair flowing with ringlets down their necks. Their shape and limbs were elegantly formed; their dress consisted only of a piece of glazed cloth, tied round the waist, which scarcely reached so low as the knees. Their features were rather too full to constitute a perfect beauty. Their eyes were of a deep black, and their countenances expressed a great degree of modesty and complacency.

"While the dance continued, a noise was heard by our countrymen, as if some horses had been galloping towards them; and, on turning their eyes aside, they saw the people armed with clubs, who had been desired to entertain them, as they supposed, with an exhibition of their mode of fighting; which they now did, one party pursuing another which ran away.

"One of our people found that the natives pilfered several trifling things which were in his pocket; and on his complaining of this treatment to the chief, he justified their behaviour. From these circumstances it was apprehended, that they designed to detain the party among them. In this situation he asked for something to eat; upon which they brought him some

cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, and a sort of four pudding; and when he complained of the heat, occasioned by the multitude of people, the chief himself condescended to fan him. To try whether their suspicions were well founded or not, they attempted to get to the beach; but were soon stopped by some of the natives, who said they must return to the place which they had left. On their coming up, they found Omai under the same apprehensions; but he had, as he imagined, an additional motive of terror; for, having observed that they had dug a hole in the ground for an oven, which they were now heating, he could assign no other reason for it, than that they intended to roast and devour our party: he even went so far as to ask them whether that was their intention, at which they were much surprised, asking, in return, whether that custom prevailed among us. Our party were continually in a crowd, who frequently desired them to uncover parts of their skin, the sight of which struck the islanders with admiration. They at the same time rifled their pockets; and one of them snatched from an officer a bayonet which hung by his side. This being represented to one of the chiefs, he pretended to send a person in search of it, but probably countenanced the theft; for Omai, soon after, had a dagger stolen from his side in the same manner.

“They now brought some green boughs as emblems of friendship, and, sticking the ends of them in the ground, desired that our party would hold them as they sat, giving them to understand, that they must stay and eat with them. The sight of a pig lying near the oven which they had prepared and heated, removed Omai's apprehensions of being put into it himself, and made him think that it might be intended for the repast of him and his friends. The chief also sent some of his people to provide food for the cattle, and they returned with a few plantain trees, which they conveyed to the boats. In the mean time our party made a second attempt to get to the beach; but, on their arrival, they found themselves watched by people who seemed to have been stationed there for that purpose; for, when one of them endeavoured to wade it upon the reef, a native dragged him back by his clothes. They also insisted upon his throwing down some pieces of coral that he had picked up, and, on his refusal to comply, took them from him by force. Nor would they suffer him to retain some small plants which he had gathered. They likewise took a fan from an officer, which, on his coming ashore, he had received as a present.

“Finding that obedience to their will was the only method of procuring better treatment, our people returned to the place they had quitted; and the natives now promised, that, after they had partaken of a repast which had been prepared for them, they should be furnished with a canoe to carry them off to their boats. Accordingly, the second chief to whom they had been presented, having seated himself on a low stool, and directed the multitude to form a large ring, made them

sit down by him. A number of cocoa-nuts were now brought, with a quantity of baked plantains, and a piece of the pig that had been dressed was placed before each of them. Their fatigue, however, had taken away their appetites; but they ate a little to please their entertainers. It being now near sun-set, the islanders sent down to the beach the remainder of the provisions that had been dressed, to be carried to the ships. Our people found a canoe prepared to put them off to their boats, which the natives did with great caution; but as they were pushing the canoe into the surf, one of them snatched a bag out of her, which contained a pocket pistol, but the owner calling out to the thief with marks of the highest displeasure, he swam back to the canoe with the bag. The islanders then put them on board the boats, with the cocoa-nuts, plantains, and other provisions; and they immediately rowed back to the ships.

“The restrained situation of the party gave them very little opportunity of observing the country: for they were seldom an hundred yards from the place where they had been introduced to the chiefs, and consequently were confined to the surrounding objects. The first thing that attracted their notice was the number of people, which must have been at least two thousand. Except a few, those who had come on board the ships were all of an inferior class; for a great number of those seen on shore had a superior dignity of demeanor, and their complexion was much whiter. In general, they had their hair, which was long and black, tied on the crown of the head. Many of the young men were perfect models in shape, and of a delicate complexion. The old men were, many of them, corpulent; and they, as well as the young, had a remarkable smoothness of skin. Their general dress consisted of a piece of cloth wrapped about the waist, but some had pieces of mats most curiously variegated with black and white, formed into a kind of jacket without sleeves; while others wore conical caps made of the core of a cocoa nut, interwoven with beads. In their ears, which were pierced, they hung pieces of the membranous part of some plant, or stuck there some odoriferous flower. The chiefs, and other persons of rank, had two little balls, with a common base, made of bone, which they hung round their necks with small cord. Red feathers are here considered as a particular mark of distinction; for none but the chiefs, and the young women who danced, assumed them. Some of the men were punctured all over the sides and back, and some of the women had the same ornament (if it deserves that name) on their legs.

“The elderly women had their hair cropped short, and many of them were cut all over the fore part of the body in oblique lines. The wife of a chief appeared with her child laid in a piece of red cloth, which had been presented to her husband; she suckled the infant much after the manner of our women. Another chief introduced his daughter, who was young, beautiful,

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and modest. No personal deformities were observed in either sex, except in a few individuals, who had scars of broad ulcers remaining on the face, and other parts. Their weapons were spears and clubs, the latter of which were generally about six feet long, made of a hard black wood neatly polished. The spears were formed of the same wood simply pointed, and were in general twelve feet long; but some were so short as to seem intended for darts.

“ Our party continued all the day under the shade of various trees, where they preserved their canoes from the sun. They had eight or ten of them, all double ones; that is, two single ones fastened together by rafters lashed across.

“ Most of the trees observed were cocoa-palms, some species of *bibiscus*, a sort of *sapborbia*, and many of the same kind as had been seen at Mangeea. The latter are tall and slender, resembling a cypress, and are called by the natives *toa*. Here was seen a species of *convolvulus*, and some treacle-mustard. The soil, towards the sea, is nothing more than a bank of coral, generally steep and rugged, which, though it has been for many centuries exposed to the weather, has suffered no further change than becoming black on its surface.

“ The party which landed upon this occasion were gratified in no particular except that of curiosity in speculation; for they did not procure any article that could be ranked among the grand objects in view. Omai was questioned by the natives concerning us, our country, our ships, and arms: in answer to which he told them, among many other particulars, that our country had ships as large as their island, on board of which were implements of war (describing our guns) of such dimensions as to contain several people within them; one of which could demolish the island at one shot. As for the guns in our two ships, he acknowledged they were but small in comparison with the former; yet even these he said could with great ease, at a considerable distance, destroy the island and all its inhabitants. On their inquiring by what means this could be done, Omai produced some cartridges from his pocket, and having submitted to inspection the balls, and the gunpowder by which they were to be set in motion, he disposed the latter upon the ground, and, by means of a piece of lighted wood, set it on fire. The sudden blast, the mingled flame and smoke, that instantaneously succeeded, filled the natives with such astonishment, that they no longer doubted the formidable power of our weapons. Had it not been for the terrible ideas they entertained of the guns of our ships, from this specimen of their mode of operation, it was imagined they would have detained the party on shore the whole night; for Omai assured them, that if he and his friends did not return on board the same day, they might expect that the Commodore would fire upon the island.

“ But the Europeans were not the only strangers

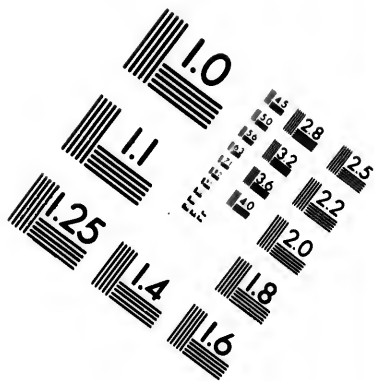
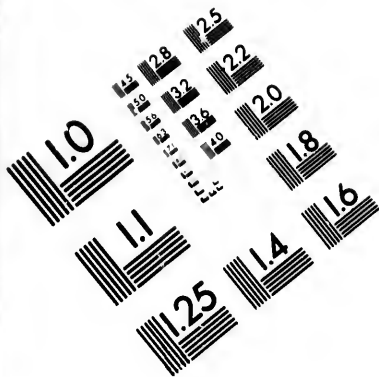
upon this island, as was discovered by Omai's accompanying our countrymen on shore. He had scarcely landed on the beach, when he found among the crowd three of his own countrymen, natives of the Society Isles. The mutual surprise and pleasure in which they engaged in conversation may be easily imagined. Their story is a very affecting one. About twenty persons, male and female, had embarked in a canoe at Oraheite, with an intention of crossing over to Ulietea; but were prevented by contrary winds from reaching the latter, or returning to the former island. Their stock of provision being soon exhausted, they suffered inconceivable hardships. They passed many days without sustenance, in consequence of which their number gradually diminished, worn out by famine and fatigue. Only four men survived, when their canoe was overfet. The destruction of this small remnant now seemed inevitable; however, they continued hanging by the side of the vessel, during some of the last days, till they providentially came in sight of the inhabitants of this island, who sent out canoes and brought them on shore. One of these four died. The other three were so well satisfied with the generous treatment they met with here, that they refused the offer made them by our party, at the request of Omai, of taking them on board our ships, and restoring them to their native islands. They had arrived upon this coast at least twelve years before. Their names were Tavee, Otirrerora, Orououte: the former was born at Huaheine, the second at Ulietea, and the latter at Otaheite. This circumstance will serve to explain, in a more satisfactory manner, than the conjectures of some speculative reasoners, how the detached parts of the world, and, in particular, the islands of the Pacific Ocean, may have been first peopled; those especially that lie at a considerable distance from each other, or from any inhabited continent.

“ Several of the houses of the natives were observed to be long and spacious. The produce of this island is nearly the same with that of Mangeea.

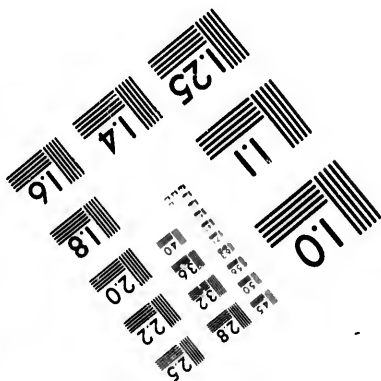
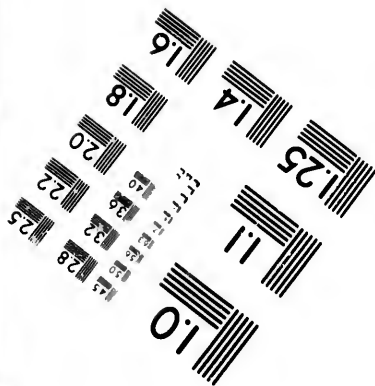
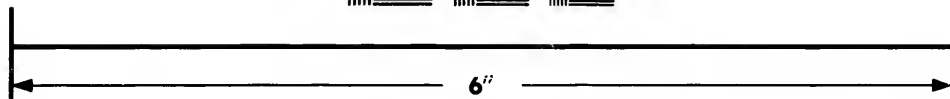
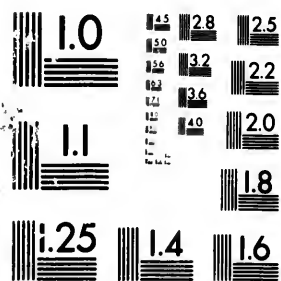
“ According to Omai's report of what he learned from his three countrymen in the course of conversation, the manners of the people of Wateoo, their general habits of life, and their method of treating strangers, greatly resemble those at Otaheite, and its neighbouring islands. There is also a great similarity between their religious opinions and ceremonies. From every circumstance, indeed, it may be considered as indubitable, that the inhabitants of Wateoo derive their descent from the same stock, which has so remarkably diffused itself over the immense extent of the Southern Ocean. Omai assured our people, that they dignified their island with the pompous appellation of *Wenooa no te Eatooa*, implying a *land of Gods*; esteeming themselves a kind of divinities, possessed with the spirit of the *Eatooa*. Their language was equally well understood by Omai, and by the two New Zealanders who were on board.

From divers particulars already mentioned, it appears
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that Watercoo can be of little service to any ship that wants refreshment, unless in a case of the most absolute necessity.

The natives being ignorant of the value of some of our commodities, might be induced to bring off fruits and hogs to ship standing off and on, or to boats lying off the reef, as the boats of our latest circumnavigators did. It is doubtful, however, if any fresh water could be procured; for though some was brought in cocoonut shells to the party who went on shore, they were told, that it was at a considerable distance; and probably it is not to be met with but in some stagnate pools, as no running stream was any where seen.

OTAKOOTAIA lies in latitude 19 deg. 15 min. south, and longitude 201 deg. 37 min. east. It was discovered by Captain Cook in 1777. It is about three or four leagues distant from Watercoo, and supposed not to exceed three miles in circuit.

The natives labour under a dearth of water. The only common trees found here were the cocoa palms, of which there were several clusters, and great quantities of the *waharra* or *pandanus*. There were also the *calliphylum*, *juriana*, with a few other shrubs, also a sort of *bind-weed*, *treacle-mustard*, a species of *spurge*, and the *matinda citri-folia*.

The only bird seen among the trees was a beautiful cuckoo, of a chestnut brown, variegated with black; but upon the shore was a small sort of curlew, blue and white herons, some egg-birds, and a great number of noddies. A lizard was caught running up a tree, and though small, had a forbidding aspect. Many of another kind were likewise seen. Infinite numbers of a kind of moth elegantly speckled with black, white, and red, swarmed on the bushes towards the sea. Other sorts of moths and pretty butterflies were seen.

Though our countrymen saw no fixed inhabitants upon this island, they discovered a few empty huts, which proved that it had been at least occasionally visited. Monuments, consisting of several large stones, were also erected under the shade of some trees: there were also some smaller ones, with which several places were enclosed, where it was thence inferred their dead had been buried. As many cockle shells were found very large, and of a particular kind, it was supposed that the island must have been visited by people who sometimes fed on shell-fish.

CHAP. IX.

NEW DISCOVERIES

By English Navigators, and not yet settled by the Europeans.

INTRODUCTION.

THOUGH we are greatly indebted to the moderns, for the amazing progress they have made in Geography, yet we are still far from knowing

all the parts of our terraqueous globe, or of being made acquainted with the prodigious variety of the human species inhabiting the different countries of the earth. Terra del Fuego was believed to be the extremity of South America, till Magellan, in 1519, discovered the straits which bear his name. It was then considered as an island; but succeeding navigators found that this also was a mistake; and that, instead of being one, it consists of several islands; but with regard to the nature of the country, or the dispositions of the inhabitants, we had but very imperfect notions, till the Endeavour, a ship fitted out by the government in pursuit of natural knowledge, visited Terra del Fuego in 1769. But before we give a particular account of that and other voyages, it will be necessary to give a compendious narrative of the several voyages and expeditions projected and accomplished by British navigators in the reign of King George III. for the discovery of a southern continent.

In August 1766, the Dolphin was sent out under the command of Captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by Captain Carteret, at the expence of the British government, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South-Sea, at the western entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and returned from thence by different routes to England: Captain Wallis, on the 6th of June 1767, discovered an island, about four miles long and three wide, to which he gave the name of Whitsun-Island, it being discovered on Whitsun-Eve. Its latitude is 19 deg. 26 min. S. and its longitude 137 deg. 56 min. W. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the appellation of Queen Charlotte's-Island; it is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19 deg. 18 min. S. and 138 deg. 1 min. W. He tells us, that the inhabitants of this island were of a middle stature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. A few days afterwards he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of Egmont-Island, Gloucester-Island, Cumberland-Island, Osnaburgh-Island, and Prince William Henry's-Island. On the 19th of the same month, he discovered the island of Otahite; and after quitting that, he discovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another island, about six miles long, which he called Sir Charles Saunders's-Island; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called Lord Howe's-Island. After having seen several other small islands, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good-Hope on the 4th of February 1768, and on the

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After Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, had parted
from Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having passed
through the Straight of Magellan, and made some stay
at the island of Masafuero, on the 2d of July 1767,
he saw an island about five miles in circumference, to
which he gave the name of Pitcairn's-Island; it is situ-
ated in lat. 25 deg. 2 min. south, and in 133 deg.
21 min. west long. about 1000 leagues to the eastward
of the continent of America. On the 11th of the
same month he observed another small island, to which
he gave the name of the Bishop of Osnaburgh's-Island.
The next day he discovered two other small islands, to
which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's-Islands;
and also three others, which he named Gower's-Island,
Simpson's-Island, and Carteret-Island. On the 27th
of the same month they discovered Sir Charles Hardy's-
Island; which lies in lat. 4 deg. 50 min. south, and the
next day Winchelsea's-Island, distant about 10 leagues
in the direction of south by east. He afterwards dis-
covered several other islands, and then proceeding
homewards round the Cape of Good-Hope, he arrived,
March 1769, in England.

The Royal Society, about the latter end of the year
1767, came to a resolution, that it would be proper to
send persons into some part of the South-Sea, to observe
a transit of the planet Venus over the sun's disk, which,
according to astronomical calculation, would happen in
the year 1769; and that the islands named Marguefas
de Mendoza, or those of Rotterdam or Amsterdams,
were the properest places then known for making such
observations. In consequence of these resolutions, it
was recommended to his majesty, in a memorial from
the society, dated February 1768, that he would be
pleased to order such an observation to be made; where-
upon his majesty signified by the Lord's Commissioners
of the Admiralty, his pleasure that a ship should be
provided to carry such observers as the society should
think fit to the South-Seas; and accordingly a bark of
370 tons was prepared for that purpose. It was called
the Endeavour, and commanded by Captain James
Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society, ap-
pointed with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who
had long been assistant to Dr. Bradley, at the Royal
Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But
while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition,
Captain Wallis returned; and it having been recom-
mended to him by Lord Martin, when he went out,
to fix on a proper place for this astronomical observation,
he by letter dated on board the Dolphin, May 18,
1768, the day before he landed at Hastings, mentioned
Port-Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite; the
Royal Society, therefore, by letter dated the beginning
of June, in answer to an application from the admir-
alty, to be informed whether they would have their
observers sent, mentioned that place.

Captain Cook set out from Plymouth, in the En-

deavour, on the 26th of August 1768. He was
accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, Esq. and
Dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got
within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoin-
Island, Two Groups, Bird-Island, and Chain-Island;
and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769.
During their stay at that island, they had an opportunity
of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce
and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June the whole
passage of the planet Venus over the sun's disk was
observed by them with great advantage: the philosophi-
cal transactions contain an ample account of the result
of their observations. After Captain Cook departed
from Otaheite, he discovered and visited the Society-
Islands and Ohetseoa, and thence proceeded to the south
till he arrived in the latitude of 40 deg. 22 min. and
147 deg. 29 min. west long. and afterwards made an
accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In
November he discovered a chain of islands, which lie
called Barrier-Islands. He afterwards proceeded to
New Holland, and from thence to New Guernsey;
and in September 1770 arrived at the island of Savus,
from whence he sailed to Batavia, and from thence
proceeding round the Cape of Good Hope, he arrived
on the 19th of June 1771, in England.

In a short time after Captain Cook's return home in
the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships, in
order to make further discoveries in the southern hemi-
sphere. Accordingly, the Resolution, commanded by
Captain Cook, and the Adventure, by Captain Tobias
Furneaux, were appointed for that purpose; and, exclu-
sive of excellent officers, and able seamen, several
learned and ingenious gentlemen were engaged to assist
in the undertaking. The two vessels sailed from Ply-
mouth Sound on July 13, 1772, and on the 29th of the
same month arrived at the island of Madeira. From
thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good-Hope,
which they came to on the 10th of October following;
and in February 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having
sought in vain for a southern continent. In that month
the Resolution and Adventure separated, in consequence
of a thick fog, but joined company again in Queen
Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In
August, they arrived at Otaheite, and in December
they discovered Hervey's-Island. On the 2d of Octo-
ber, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly
Islands; and about the close of the month, the two ships
separated, and did not join company any more. Cap-
tain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in
order to make discoveries in the Southern polar regions,
but was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the lati-
tude of 71 deg. 10 min. south, and 106 deg. 54 min.
west long. He then proceeded to Easter-Island, where
he arrived in March 1774, as he did also in the same
month at the Marquesas. He afterwards discovered four
islands, which he named Palliser's-Islands; and again
steered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of
April, and made some stay; and also visited the neigh-
bouring;

bouring isles. In August he came to the New Hebrides, some of which were first discovered by him. After quitting these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, Captain Cook again stood for New Zealand, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the dangers attending the navigation in the high southern latitudes. Directing his course to the south and east, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 35 deg. 6 min. south, 138 deg. 56 min. west long. without meeting with any continent. This able navigator gave up all hopes of discovering any in that ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly to the west entrance of the Straights of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the uttermost, or south side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 35, and steering nearly east, he arrived off the western mouth of these Straights, without meeting with any thing remarkable in this new route. In January 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of South Georgia. He afterwards perceived various capes, and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most extreme part of which he gave the name of the Southern Thule, as being the nearest land to that pole which has been yet discovered. In February, he perceived Sandwich-land, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good-Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned in the Adventure a year before, having sailed round the Cape of Good-Hope without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof, that cannibals really exist. Indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence of this disputed matter too plainly appeared.

Another voyage was performed by Captain Cook and Captain Clarke, in the Resolution and Discovery, in the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good-Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland; and in their course, they discovered two islands, which Captain Cook called Prince Edward's Isles. The largest, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in lat. 46 deg. 53 min. south, and 27 deg. 46 min. long. The other, about nine leagues in circuit, lat. 46 deg. 40 min. and long. 38 deg. 8 min. east, both barren, and almost covered with snow. From thence they proceeded to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society-Isles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich-Isles, which are twelve in num-

ber, and are situate between 22 deg. 15 min. and 28 deg. 53 min. north lat. Captain Cook afterwards discovered King George's-Sound, which is on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive. That part of it where the ships under his command anchored, is in lat. 42 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 232 deg. 28 min. east. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich-Sound, in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the natives in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the Island of Unalatchka, and after their departure from thence still continued to trace the coast. They arrived on the 20th of August 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. and 194 deg. 55 min. long. where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the further they proceeded to the eastward, the closer the ice, became compacted. This voyage afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and it also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, Captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, of which event, a full detail will be given in its proper place. In his last voyage, he had explored the coast of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 sec. north. After his death, the command devolved on Captain Clarke, who died at sea on his return to the southward, on the 22d day of August 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good-Hope, and anchored at the Nore, on the 5th of October 1780.

Captain Cook, in the course of his voyage in the Resolution, begun in 1772, had made the circuit of the southern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave little room for indulging an idea of a southern continent, except so near the pole, as to be out of the reach of navigation. It deserved also to be remembered, in honour of that experienced commander, that, with a company of 118 men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from 52 deg. north, to 71 deg. south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears in a great measure to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men, and devising all proper means for removing those diseases which long voyages and different climates had subjected them to.

Having presented the readers with this summary introduction we shall treat of the Isles discovered in the course of these voyages, beginning with Otaheite, in the description of which our readers may find both instruction and amusement.

C H A P. X.

OTAHEITE, OR, ST. GEORGE'S-ISLAND.

Its Situation and Extent. Captain Wallis anchors there. Endeavours to traffic with the Inhabitants. Natives assault and attack the Vessel. Various Affrays and Reconcilements. The Captain takes Possession of the Place in the Name of the King of England. Peace perfectly restored, and Traffic established. Oberoa, a Princess, comes on board. Her Friendship for Captain Wallis, and Sorrow at his Departure.

THE first discovery of this island is not perfectly known; it has however been visited by several navigators, particularly by Commodore Byron, and, lastly, by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, on the 19th of June 1767. It is situated in 17 deg. 30 min. south lat. and 149 deg. 5 min. west long. It consists of two peninsulas, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The length of the island is thirty miles. A border of low-land almost surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of the divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. But we shall now proceed to a detail of events in circumstantial order.

After Captain Wallis had passed several small islands, he discovered a high spot of land in hazy weather, near which having anchored, when the fog cleared up, he took a view of the land, and conceived it to be worthy of his notice.

About this time, a number of canoes surrounded the vessel, who seemed amazed at her construction. Many invitations were given to the natives in the canoes to come on board, which they did, but not till after several branches of plantain had been thrown on the ship's deck, in token of peace and friendship. On their first essay, one of the strangers being struck down by a he-goat, leaped into the sea, and his companions immediately followed. These circumstances impressed the English sailors with a strong idea of their timidity.

When this alarm was over, many of them came on board again; but could not be prevailed on to traffic, though they shewed great inclination to steal some articles; and one of them snatching a laced hat from an officer's head, jumped into the sea, and swam clear off with it.

When the boats were afterwards sent out in search of anchorage, the islanders surrounding our people, a gun was fired over their heads to intimidate them, when exhibiting signs of a hostile intention, a musket was discharged, whereby an offender was wounded; and the

consequence was, that his party dispersed in consternation.

The vessel now sailing along the coast, and coming to an anchor occasionally, the natives began to resort on board, bringing fruit, fowl, and hogs, in exchange for nails, toys, &c. And with the men also came some women, whose behaviour was not the most modest, but very friendly, so that there was reason to conclude a commerce and amicable connexion established, after having repelled some acts of hostility. But at this juncture, several canoes surrounded the ship, loaded with pebbles, which the islanders had been found very dextrous in slinging. The people in these canoes played on a sort of flute, and blowed their shells, and in this manner they advanced to the found of music.

One of these canoes came forward, with a chief sitting under an awning, who, being encouraged to come alongside, gave an English sailor a bunch of red and yellow feathers, as a present for the captain. This was accepted, and some things were preparing to be given him in return, when the canoe suddenly put off, and a branch of the cocoa-nut tree was thrown up in the air, as a signal for the commencement of hostilities, whereon volleys of stones were poured by the canoes from all quarters into the vessel. The unwelcome salute was returned by a discharge of musketry and two of the ship's guns, which at first disordered the islanders; but they rallied, and there were numbers seen ready to embark to support the assailants. Notwithstanding the cannon were brought to bear, they returned to the attack, and several of the seamen were wounded by their missiles. However, at length, a shot striking a canoe that seemed to have a chief on board, the canoes rowed off with precipitation, and the people fled behind the hills for shelter.

Soon after this Lieutenant Furneaux was sent on shore with the boats well armed, and a party of marines, with orders to land his men under cover of the ship; the intent being to procure water from a place where they had received intelligence by a reconnoitring party, that some of the purest was to be obtained.

This officer having executed that part of his orders, proceeded to take possession of the island in the name of the King of Great-Britain, and displayed a broad pendant on a staff set up on the occasion. They now perceived an old man on the opposite side of the river, who was apparently terrified, and in a supplicating posture. When signs were made for him to advance, he crossed, and crawled on his hands and knees towards the lieutenant, who gave him signs of encouragement, but could not forbear likewise pointing at the stones which the Indians used to annoy the ship. Several hatchets were then produced, and two water casks filled, in order to renew the idea of bartering with the natives. Some trinkets were also presented to this man, who danced round the flag-staff to express his joy; and this ceremony, returning again after the lieutenant embarked, he and several of the natives who came with him re-

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peated, though at first they appeared to be frightened by the pendants shaking in the wind.

The consequence of this reconciliation was, that two large hogs having been laid before the flag-staff, and danced round, were put into a canoe, which the old man brought as a present aloft side the vessel. He would not accept of any thing, but pronounced a speech, between the different parts of which he delivered, one by one, a number of plantain leaves, which seemed calculated to answer the same end as the belts of wampum delivered at their *talks* by the natives of North-America.

Notwithstanding all this, hostilities were renewed, and the flag-staff was taken away; but when the offenders were fired at, they retired in confusion. Therefore, finally to convince them of the power of those whom they seemed to rashly disposed to contend with, cannon were pointed, and fired first into the woods, and afterwards towards the hills, where numbers of the Otaheiteans were assembled, to their great terror and astonishment; besides which, fifty of their canoes were destroyed. These proceedings, together with the incident of some of them having seen the surgeon, when on shore, shoot three ducks flying, gave them such an idea of the extent to which fire-arms would reach, and the execution done by them, that levelling a cannon, or only pointing a musket, served to disperse whole bodies of warriors.

Thus by degrees, partly by force, and partly by kindness, was friendship established between our people and a set of men, who had displayed more courage in war than could have been rationally expected, from the fears shewn by individuals among them upon trifling occasions. But such paradoxes will ever appear among nations destitute of refinement, and such are to be traced and solved only by those who have read the book of human nature, and, combining the knowledge gained by books with that resulting from experience, can thereby in some measure form a judgment of the motives that actuate communities, too often termed *savage*, because they possess not our modern cultivation, which perhaps they might ignorantly deem a corruption of manners.

It should appear from the sequel, that the natives of Otaheite fought, not against the English in anger or malice, but from a supposition that they came with a design to invade or injure them; as nothing could be more friendly than their behaviour, when they were fully convinced to the contrary. The frequent overtures to barter commodities might not at first perhaps seem to them a sufficient token of intended amity, but as a snare laid, which they rather wished to avoid.

Soon after these transactions, a tall female, of a majestic deportment, and placid countenance, who seemed to have come from some distance, came on board his ship, where she was well entertained, presented with several trinkets, a looking-glass, and a blue mantle, which latter the captain himself tied on, and with these

she seemed greatly delighted; but in all her gestures, still retained her dignity.

It was afterwards asserted, that she was no less than she appeared. Her name was Oberca, and it was said she was queen at least of that part of the island where Captain Wallis landed.

She was visited the next day by the captain, who was not yet entirely recovered from a late indisposition that had confined him to his vessel, and rendered him very weak; and on which account, he was carried by her attendants to her own dwelling, as she was prepared for the visit. Numbers of persons assembled on the occasion were dispersed, on a sign from the queen; and when the guests entered her house, which was spaciouly built, according to the manner of the country, the captain's coat, stockings, and shoes being taken off, in which she herself assisted, some young girls were introduced, who smoothed his skin, and chafed it softly with their hands; the same was done by Lieutenant Furneaux and the purser, who attended him, and who had likewise been indisposed; and they all found benefit from this gentle operation, which however was interrupted for a time, by the surgeon's taking off his wig, in order to cool himself. This appeared to the natives as a most extraordinary circumstance, and excited their astonishment accordingly; but the girls soon returned to their employment.

The queen was so tender of her principal guest, that when she walked out with him, she laid hold of his arm, and lifted him like an infant over any dirt or water that happened to be in the way.

It appeared, that the Otaheiteans had no utensils for boiling their food, and were entirely ignorant of the possibility of such an operation, and of the effects of hot water. This was evident enough from a whimsical circumstance that happened on board the ship, where the queen was one morning at breakfast with the captain. One of her attendants (apparently a person of no mean rank) observing that the tea-pot was filled by turning the cock of an urn that stood on the table, took it into his head to turn it also, and received the boiling water on his hand. In consequence, being scalded, he roared out, and danced about the cabin with the most extravagant gestures, and his companions stood staring in astonishment, till the surgeon applied a lenient remedy to the part affected.

However, a person who was serviceable in bringing in provisions, and had curiously observed the gunner boiling his pork when on shore, was put in possession of an iron pot, and after that he always boiled his meat for himself and his associates.

The queen was equally surpris'd and pleas'd at looking through a telescope, which Captain Wallis brought with him to her house, directing her view to various objects which were very familiar to her, but not perceptible to the naked eye, which, when the glass was removed, to her amazement she strove to trace in vain. She had at first admir'd the structure, little guessing, as

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might well be conceived, the use of such an instrument. Captain Wallis gave his royal hostess two turkies, two geese, three guinea-hens, and a cat big with kitten; some looking-glasses, china, linen, needles, thread, and ribbands, together with cutlery-ware, and other articles (among which various vegetables and garden seeds were not forgotten) in memorial of the presents received from her, and her friendly behaviour.

When the time for his departure drew near, it was not without reluctance that the captain intimated this circumstance to the queen, who received the tidings with real concern, an intercourse of good offices having endeared them to each other. Trying the force of persuasion in vain to detain her guest, she came on board the Dolphin, where she remained till the anchor was weighed, and the vessel under sail; she then received the last presents he made her in solemn silence, when he bid farewell to Oherea, and the island of Otahite.

C H A P. XI.

Captain Cook on his first Voyage visits Otahite. His Reception by the Natives. Alterations there. Tootahab found to be a Man in Power. A Fort erected. Various Thefts. Oherea again brought forward. Strange Adventure with her. A Wrestling Match. A Chief's Honesty not Proof against a Basket of Nails. Observation of the Transit of Venus in those Parts.

IT was on the 13th of April 1769, as we have already observed, that Captain Cook, on his first voyage, fell in with Otahite, and came to an anchor in Port-Royal harbour. The canoes of the natives immediately swarmed round the Endeavour, bringing with them fruits and other provisions to exchange for various commodities. At the same time an old man came on board, who was known to many of the officers, who had been here before with Captain Wallis. This man, who was called Owahaw, had a respectable appearance.

When Captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander went on shore, accompanied by the above-named Indian, together with a party of men, they were received with the greatest joy and respect, by a vast number of the natives, who very thankfully accepted their presents; and promising to conduct them to a more agreeable spot, led them for some miles through pleasant groves of trees, intermixed with the huts of the natives; yet they saw no fowls and few hogs in their road. Things seemed to wear somewhat of a different appearance from what the officers who were with Captain Wallis had before observed; and, according to their opinion, the queen's house had been removed.

They were now informed, that such as they had seen before, were not any of the principal people of the island; but early the next morning some canoes ap-

peared alongside the ship, which contained persons whose dress seemed to denote their being of distinction; and two of them who came on board, having fixed on Mr. Banks and Captain Cook respectively as friends, invited them on shore to their dwellings; whither those gentlemen went accordingly, accompanied by Dr. Solander and others. Soon after landing, they were conducted to a large house, and introduced to a middle-aged man, whose name they found to be Tootahah. He presented Mr. Banks with a cock, a hen, and a piece of perfumed cloth, and received a suitable present in return. They afterwards visited several other large houses, where they were introduced to many females, who pressed them to sit down and stay, and behaved in a manner agreeably free and engaging. On their return, they were met by Tuborai Tamaidé, another chief, with whom they dined, and proceeded to settle a treaty of peace and mutual intercourse.

Nevertheless, the circumstance of most of the hogs, and all the poultry seeming to have vanished, caused the captain to suspect, that these had been driven up the country: it was therefore resolved to explore the woods, whilst an officer was left with a party of marines to guard the tent.

It is to be observed, that as soon as the Endeavour reached Otahite, Captain Cook established several very judicious rules and ordinances among his people, all tending to facilitate barter for provisions, and preserve peace and harmony between them and the natives, which those who broke through were to be severely punished; and these, with other precautions that had been taken, were deemed sufficient, with a people so friendly, to secure tranquillity. But where the customs and manners of nations are so different as those of England and Otahite, it must needs be that disputes will frequently arise, and sometimes on mere trifling occasions.

While this party were pursuing their design, they heard two pieces fired, which they knew must be discharged by the guard left at the tent, a circumstance not at all pleasing at such a juncture. However, Owahaw dispersed all the Indians, three excepted, who gave every possible token of fidelity.

It is natural to suppose, that the captain and his companions were anxious to know what had passed at the tent during the time of their absence; and on the strictest inquiry, they found the following circumstance had occasioned the alarm. One of the natives, whose propensity to theft was unconquerable, had snatched a sentinel's musquet out of his hand, in consequence of which, by order of a young midshipman who commanded the guard, they fired, but none were slain or wounded except the aggressor, who was pursued and killed as soon as overtaken. As it was apprehended that the matter would excite some resentment in the islanders, but few of whom appeared the next morning, and none of those few were inclined to come on board the ship, she was brought closer in shore, and so moored, that her broadside was brought to bear on a spot which had been pitched

on for the erection of a little temporary fortification, equally calculated for defence and convenience. Mr. Buchan, who was Mr. Banks's landscape painter, died the next day, universally regretted.

The anger of the natives seemed soon to have subsided, and our people remained quiet enough on shore, except their being annoyed by flies, which, to the working parties there, seemed the most troublesome of enemies.

Tuborai Tamaide, resolving to build a house near the English fort, brought the materials with him, and invited Mr. Banks to a place in the woods where he sometimes resided, entertained him with a dish of somewhat that had the appearance of wheat flour, but when stirred about with cocoa-nut milk, formed a jelly of an agreeable flavour, not unlike what is called *Blanc-Mange* in Europe. He also gave this gentleman two garments, one made of scarlet cloth, the other of fine matting. It was not long afterwards that the same chief, who was a frequent guest to Mr. Banks on board, preferred a complaint against the ship's butcher for having brutally threatened to cut his wife's throat, because she would not let him have one of the stone axes, or adzes, which they substitute for iron in this island, in return only for a single nail; a flagrant violation of justice and good order, and a breach of those rules which the captain had resolved should be attended to while the vessel staid at Otaheite. The consequence was, that the offender was flogged in sight of the Indians, and he went through the whole of the punishment notwithstanding they themselves interceded for him, and that even with tears and exclamations of sorrow, after they had seen the first lash given. This strictness of discipline being certainly as well timed as necessary, did honour to the justice and policy of the commander.

It was remarkable, that Captain Cook having produced an iron adze, made in imitation of one of those stone instruments just mentioned, Tootahah, to whom it was only shewed as a curiosity, laid hold of it, and could not be satisfied till he was permitted to take it away, though an offer was made him to select any article in its stead out of numbers contained in all the chests that could be conveniently opened before him.

On several of the natives bringing their axes to be ground, all of which, it was scarcely doubted, had been left there by Captain Wallis or some of his people; a French one was discovered among the rest. It appeared that the Otaheiteans were indebted for this to M. de Bougainville, who had visited the island in 1768.

About this time some coldness was occasioned by the following incident. Mr. Banks's gun was suddenly taken out of his hand by Tuborai Tamaide, one day when he seemed employed only in curiously observing it. The Indian also pulled the trigger, though the piece only flashed in the pan. This was an offence not so heinous in itself as it might tend to prove inconve-

nient in its consequences. It is unnecessary to observe, that in our expeditions to these places, the knowledge of fire arms furnishes almost the whole of the security of the few against the many; and experience has continually evinced how soon a sudden mistake, and fatal resentment may be kindled in the bosoms of those who seem most friendly among the uncultivated nations. Considerations of this nature appear to have influenced Mr. Banks, in giving a most severe reprimand for this presumption to one favourite Indian acquaintance, who was not insensible either of the rebuke, or the cause of its sharpness, as he demonstrated by his behaviour; but that of one of his female attendants was truly extraordinary on this occasion. She broke forth into tears, wounded herself with a shark's tooth, and exhibited before the offended party a number of extravagant gestures, refusing to answer such questions as were asked; and yet after all this, she carefully took up the certain pieces of cloth, which she had placed to receive her blood, and having thrown them into the sea, bathed herself in the river, and returned with a cheerful countenance.

The same chief's wife came one morning to solicit Mr. Banks's attendance on her husband, whom she represented as being in a most deplorable state, occasioned by having swallowed something very deadly, that was given him by one of the Endeavour's people. Mr. Banks went accordingly, found the person in question extremely sick indeed. On his arrival, he perceived that the Indian had already been vomiting, which saved the trouble of prescribing an emetic. It appeared likewise that he had thrown up a leaf which those around him affirmed to contain the poison; and indeed this, which was only a leaf of tobacco, proved to be all the poison that the sick chief had swallowed. The cause of the disorder being thus explained, the patient, who, while Mr. Banks examined the leaf, seemed in doubt whether he should live or die, was now only ordered to drink plentifully of cocoa-nut milk, in consequence of which simple and agreeable remedy he soon became as well and cheerful as ever.

In the mean time, Oberea, who seemed to have been lost, was luckily discovered at Mr. Banks's tent by the gunner, who recognized in her the same person that had been so friendly to Captain Wallis (with whom this officer sailed in the Dolphin) and was set down as queen of the Island. She was tall and majestic, as has been already observed, her eyes had great expression in them, her skin was white, and she appeared to have been what might properly be termed handsome; but being now past forty, she was rather on the decline. She was conducted on board the ship, where she was presented, amongst other matters, with a doll, which greatly delighted her. But this circumstance being observed by Tootahah, who, though not king, seemed to be invested with the authority of a regent, he would not be satisfied without a present of the same sort. And dolls now grew so much in fashion, that for

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a while they were preferred even to axes, till time and just reflexion caused the islanders once again to set a due value on the latter, as being so useful and necessary. Temporary fashions, however, were found to prevail in many more instances, even among these children of simple nature.

There was a circumstance relative to Oberea, which at first greatly surpris'd Mr. Banks; namely, that one morning being informed she was asleep under the awning of her canoe, when going to awake her, he found she was in bed with a young man, whose name was Obadec; but it was soon understood that a commerce of this kind was frequent with the ladies of Otahcite, and so familiarized were they to it, that no secrecy was observed in the matter.

About this time the natives exercising some of their usual dexterity, the astronomical quadrant was missing, though for the whole night a centinel had been placed within a few yards of the place where it was lodged.— But a proper application being made to Tubourai Tamaide, he found out the thief, and the instrument, which luckily had received no damage, was with some trouble recovered.

In Captain Cook's absence, who had gone to support Mr. Banks and Mr. Green, while they were travelling up the country, in search of the quadrant, an embargo having been laid on the canoes in the bay, by that commander's order, occasioned a disturbance: for one of these attempting to depart, a boat was sent out to detain her, on which the Indians, among whom was Tootahah, leaped into the sea. When this chief was taken up swimming, the lieutenant confined him in the port, which was now quite finished and fortified, and the captain found it surrounded by a number of the natives when he returned from his excursion.

He caused the prisoner, who had expected nothing but death, to be released; yet the affair raised great murmurings among his countrymen, who pretended that he had been beaten and ill used, but no proofs appeared of such treatment. Yet the markets were but ill supplied, which was doubtless owing to the circumstance just mentioned.

These were matters however, which, from the friendly disposition of the natives, their guests conceived might be well settled; and, in particular, they endeavoured to conciliate the affections of the chief whose confinement had occasioned the dispute. And in fact, little was done in the principal matter, which regarded provisions, till that was accomplished; nor was this brought about without some difficulty. Tootahah had left some hogs behind him which he demanded; but it was thought most proper not to send them, because his presence was deemed necessary for the desired reconciliation. This was at last happily effected, Messrs. Banks and Solander making a journey to the chief's residence, which was at seventy miles distance. From what had passed, they had some ideas of finding disgustful treatment from the people; but in this they were agreeably disappointed:

for they heard nothing but shouts, which in their language expressed that Tootahah was a friend to the English.

As this chief, not receiving the hogs he left, had demanded an axe and a shirt in return for them, these articles were brought and given to him, together with a garment of broad cloth; and he seemed well pleased with the additional present. He was found sitting under a tree, with many old men standing about him, who afterwards were conducted to the court-yard of his house, where a spectacle was prepared for their entertainment. It was a wrestling match, which was conducted in the following order.

Several combatants, to the number of ten or twelve, entering on an area which was left void for that purpose, after having challenged, engaged each other, the principal object of each being to overthrow his adversary by dint of strength. For this purpose they closed, and seized each other by the hand or any part of the body, as opportunity offered; thus grappling till he who had the best hold, or was the most powerful man, threw his antagonist. If this could be done by either party, in about the space of a minute, the conqueror received the plaudits of the old men, and three huzzas; if not, they generally parted, either by the intervention of their friends or by mutual consent, and in this manner one engagement succeeded another. A man who was provided with a stick, and who had first made way for the English by exercising it pretty smartly, kept the rings, and preserved order among the populace.

While this was going forward others performed a dance, but neither of these parties seemed at all disposed to take notice of what was going forward elsewhere; their own sport and the wished applauses of the audience, being all that engrossed their attention. When it was known that this reconciliation had been brought to bear, and that Tubourai Tamaide was gone on board the Endeavour, provisions, which had hitherto been with-held, were brought in great plenty.

But some more extraordinary spectacles than that of the wrestling match were soon after exhibited before Mr. Banks and others, of which we have the following account.

"As that gentleman was sitting in his chair, some ladies of the island, who were strangers, advanced in procession, the rest of the Indians forming a lane to let them pass in order. Coming up to Mr. Banks, they presented him with some plants and parrots' feathers. Tupia, who officiated as master of the ceremonies, received several branches, brought at six different times, and laid them down in the boat. Nine bundles of cloth were also afterwards brought and divided into three parcels.—What followed, appeared the most extraordinary part of the ceremony, which was, that one of the women called Ooratoo, who seemed to be the principal actress in the ceremony, stepped on one of the parcels, and pulled her clothes up as high as her waist, turning round three times

with an air of unaffected simplicity. This she repeated with the two other parcels; and then these females advancing, saluted Mr. Banks, who made them suitable presents. And on the Sunday following, (after divine service had been performed) the day was concluded with an act of open lewdness between a young fellow and a girl about twelve years of age, of which Oberea and some females of the first rank thought fit not only to be spectators, but also to give it their countenance and applause.

It was somewhat extraordinary that an inclination to theft prevailed so strongly among the natives of Otaheite, as to taint their chiefs and persons supposed to be of the greatest integrity among them. Tubourai Tamaide, of whom Mr. Banks had entertained a high opinion, could not resist the temptation offered by a basket of nails being left in the corner of his tent. On being taxed, he confessed that he had stolen four of them, but he was much more inclined to frame excuses, than to make restitution. He said, the things stolen were at Eparre; however he produced one of the nails, and, on restoring the rest, was to be forgiven; but, instead of doing this, he withdrew, and when he was seen about ten days afterwards, it was in vain that all persuasions were used to induce him to return this apparently trifling portion of property; and perceiving himself treated with reserve, he again withdrew in his usual manner.

A visit was determined on by Captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander, to Tootahah, who had lately twice changed his place of residence, and now lived about six miles distant from his former dwelling. He was found sitting under a tree, with a number of people round him, as was his usual custom; and when the guests had made their presents, they were invited to pass the night there. But there was a prospect of some inconvenience, as more people were assembled than the houses and canoe could contain. Oberea, however, being there with her train of attendants, Mr. Banks accepted of a place in her canoe, where he retired to rest accordingly. But, though Oberea herself had the charge of that gentleman's clothes, yet he lost them together with his pistols, his powder horn, and other articles. She got up, indeed, and Tootahah being roused, who lay in the next canoe, they went in search of the thief; but their endeavours proved fruitless. Mr. Banks being a second time roused by some music, as he afterwards observed lights at a small distance, rose, and went to seek for his companions. Accordingly he found where Captain Cook and the rest of the gentlemen lay, to whom he related his misfortune; but they had a story in some measure to match his: for they informed him that they had lost their stockings and jackets, and it appeared that Dr. Solander was the only one who was not robbed among them. Mr. Banks, who had at first been left in his waistcoat and breeches, had made a temporary shift with some garments which he

borrowed of Oberea, in which he cut an odd figure; but the clothes, and other matters that had been stolen from him, were never afterwards heard of.

Preparations having been made for viewing the transit of Venus, two parties were sent out to make observations from different spots. The parties sent out had good success in the pursuit of their undertaking, though they differed as to the time of the contact. The following was Mr. Green's account of that phenomenon.

	Morning.
The first external contact	9 25 4
The first internal contact, or total immersion	9 44 4
	Afternoon.
The second internal contact, or beginning of the emersion	3 14 8
The second external contact, or total immersion	3 32 10

The latitude of the observatory, was 170 deg. 29 min. 13 sec. south, long. 149 deg. 32 min. 30 sec. west from Greenwich.

We have already observed, that there were two parties. Those who went towards the Island of Emayo, after rowing the greater part of the night previous to the transit, hailed a canoe, and were informed by the Indians of a place that they judged proper for an observatory.

Mr. Banks left them as soon as it was light, and saw the sun emerge from an unclouded horizon, whence he drew favourable prognostics for the business of the day. He went to obtain fresh provisions on the island; and the following is an account of this short expedition:

"As he was trading with the natives, Tarrao, who was the king of the place, came to visit him, bringing his sister Nuna with him. As it was customary for the people of those places, at their conferences, to be seated, Mr. Banks spread his turban of Indian cloth, on which they all sat down. Then some bread-fruit and coconuts, together with a hog and a dog were brought as the king's present; and his guest, in return, sent for a shirt, an adze, and some beads, which the sovereign of Emayo received with apparent satisfaction. Tubourai Tamaide, and Tonio (said to be related to Tarrao) also gave him a long nail, and left a shirt as a present for Nuna. The king, his sister, and three beautiful young women, their attendants, afterwards went with Mr. Banks to the observatory, where he shewed them the planet Venus passing over the sun's disk; at the same time acquainting them, that to view it in this situation, was the cause of his undertaking a voyage to those remoter parts."

The people at Emayo seemed to resemble those of Otaheite, and appeared to be acquainted with the nature of trading articles.

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Some of the ship's company having broke into the store-room while the officers and gentlemen were employed in viewing the transit, a number of spike-nails were stolen from thence. The person who was found out in this theft, had but few in possession; however, he was ordered to receive two dozen of lashes. Some examples of this kind were necessary, because the seamen knowing what value was put on such commodities on shore, where the property of men, and the favours of women were alike to be purchased with them; if these thoughtless beings had not been restrained, it is probable, and indeed partly appeared from their conduct, that they would have left but few nails, and little iron-work that they could possibly remove in or about the vessel.

C H A P. XII.

Celebration of King George's Birth-Day at Otaheite. Mr. Banks acts a Part in an extraordinary Funeral Solemnity. Various disputes amicably settled. Journey to a different Part of the Island. Tupia, an Indian, resolves to embark with Captain Cook. Two Mariners are brought back. The Vessels depart from the Island.

THE two parties that went out to observe the transit of Venus on the 3d of June, being still absent on the 4th, it was resolved to defer the celebration of his Majesty's birth-day till the 5th of June. It was then kept, many of the Indian chiefs being invited to the entertainment provided, and drinking the King of Great-Britain's health by the name of *Kibiargo* (their best imitation of *King George*) upon the occasion.

An old female of some distinction dying about this time, gave the English an opportunity of observing the manner in which the islanders dispose of a corpse, which they do not bury directly, but place on a bier, till it is corrupted, and then the ceremony of interment is used with the bones. The morais were also found at length to serve as places of religious worship; but of these we shall treat at large hereafter. We shall here only give an account of the funeral rites, as performed after the decease of the person above-mentioned, in which Mr. Banks bore a principal part, because he was informed that he could not be admitted as a spectator on any other condition. The ceremony was thus conducted.

"This gentleman went in the evening where the body was deposited, and was there met by the relations of the deceased, and joined by several other persons. Tubourai Tamaide was the principal mourner, dressed in a whimsical, though, as some thought, not an ungraceful manner. To conform to the Indian custom, he was obliged for the time to quit his usual dress, and wear nothing but a small piece of cloth tied round his middle,

and suffer his flesh to be blacked over with charcoal and water, as were the bodies of several others, among whom were some females that were not any more covered than himself. The procession having begun, the chief mourner repeated something that was supposed to be a prayer, when he came up to the body, and repeated the same when he came to his own house. They afterwards went on by permission towards the fort. It is usual for the rest of the Indians, as much as possible, to shun these processions. Passing on from the fort along the shore, they crossed the river, passing several houses which, for the time, were deserted; and, during the rest of the procession, which lasted for half an hour, not an Indian was to be seen. The office which Mr. Banks filled was called *Niniveb*, and there were two others in the same character. These approached the chief mourners, when none of the rest of the natives were to be seen, exclaiming "Imatata!" Then those who had assisted at the ceremony resumed their former dress, after having first performed ablution in the river."

Mr. Banks, who certainly underwent no small inconvenience in adapting himself for these rites, received great applause from Tubourai Tamaide, for the propriety wherewith, it seems, he supported his part in a ceremony of which he must be supposed to entertain but an imperfect conception.

Tubourai Tamaide and Mr. Gore having challenged each other to a shooting match, the Indian brought his bow and arrows to decide the matter; but, before they were prepared for the contest, it was discovered that each had mistaken his antagonist's meaning; for the Indian meant only to try who could shoot furthest, but Mr. Gore designed to level at a mark. As soon as this was found out, the challenge consequently came to nothing. Nevertheless, for the honour of Otaheite, and to shew how skilful he was, Tubourai kneeled down and shot an unfeathered arrow (dropping the bow as soon as it was discharged) which held its course for near the sixth part of a mile.

As many things had still continued to be conveyed away by some of the light-fingered islanders, an iron coal-rake for the oven being stolen in the night of the 14th of June; and as the centinels had received orders not to fire on the natives, even if they should be detected in theft, Captain Cook resolved in his mind what expedient it would be best to adopt, in order, if possible, entirely to suppress these practices; and, in consequence, he tried the following expedient. Twenty of their double canoes containing cargoes of fish, being just arrived, he seized them, and caused notice to be given, that unless, not only the coal-rake, but also all the other articles that had been taken away, were returned, these vessels, so valuable to them, should certainly be burnt.

All the effect produced by this menace, was the restitution.

restitution of the coal-rake; but the other things were kept by those who stole them; and as Captain Cook's humanity would not permit him to let the innocent suffer for the guilty, in the end he gave up the cargoes of the vessels.

But there was another circumstance which was near raising a most serious dispute between the English and the islanders, as originating from a matter of which the former were most tenacious. A boat being sent out to procure ballast, as the officer could not immediately find what he wanted, he began to pull down one of the sepulchral monuments. This action was looked upon as such a piece of sacrilege, that the people, enraged, rose in opposition. But happily Mr. Banks, receiving intelligence of the circumstance, repaired to the spot, and brought about a reconciliation, and settled the matter in dispute, by sending the boats to the river side, where there were plenty of stones to be had without any hazard of offending.

Captain Cook and Mr. Banks having formed a design of sailing round the island, set out on the morning of the 16th of June for this purpose. When they came to a large bay, their design of crossing it was mentioned to this Indian guide, whose name was Tilubaola: he at first refused to cross it, and likewise endeavoured to persuade the English gentlemen to lay aside their intention, saying, "That country was inhabited by people that were not subjects to Tootahah, and who would destroy them all." Nevertheless, when he found them resolved to proceed, he at last ventured to accompany them.

After spending the night at the house of Oratora, a friendly lady, they departed, and landed the next day in the district of a chief, named Mairatata, and whose father was called Pahuirede. There was something which might be thought not very promising in those appellations, the former signifying, "The burying-place of men," and the latter, "The stealer of boats," in the language of the islanders.

It may not be amiss here to observe, that the inhabitants of that part of the country which had become familiar to the English, though very backward in learning to pronounce the names of their guests, were yet ready enough in giving them others. They called Captain Cook, Toote; Mr. Hicks, Hate; and the Master, Bobo; Mr. Gore they named Toarro; Dr. Solander, Torano; Mr. Banks, Tassane; Mr. Green, Eterrec; Mr. Parkinson, Patani; Mr. Sporing, Polini, &c. Now three or four at most of these names may be allowed imitations of the English ones, but the others seem so different, that they may be set down as appellations of significance, and occasioned by something relative to the person, situation, or actions of the party. What seems to support this conjecture, is its having been particularly remarked, that they called Mr. Monkhouse, who commanded the guard that shot the man for taking the musket, as before related, by a name which signifies *dead* or *deadly*, in their language,

as having caused the death of one of their countrymen.

Amongst a crowd of the natives that came round them, the English gentlemen recognized only two persons; the rest being absolute strangers to them. However, they proceeded (the whole party consisting of four only) till they came to a part of the country governed by one Waheatua; and met that chief, together with an agreeable woman, about twenty-two, called Toudidde, who appeared to fill the same rank here as Oberea did in another quarter of the island. Their journey here lay chiefly through a country fertile enough, as it appeared, in every thing but bread-fruit, and where there were numbers of morais, or burying-places, neat, and adorned with various carvings. Being fatigued, they went on board their boat, and in the evening of this day they landed on an island which was called Ootareite, and got some refreshment at the only house they could then discover. But they found a good harbour in the southern part of the island, and, after landing again in different places, were met by Mathiabo, the chief, of whom they purchased a hog, for a glass bottle. Here they remarked several human jaw-bones, seemingly fresh (and which had not lost any of the teeth) fastened on a board of a semicircular figure, but could not obtain any satisfactory account concerning them.

Having been piloted over certain shoals, and turning to the N. W. side of Otaheite, where a bay answering to that on the S. E. forms the isthmus, they were invited on shore by several beautiful women, and, accepting the invitation, supped at the house of a chief, named Wiverou, in company with Mathiabo, which latter, on retiring to rest, borrowed Mr. Banks's cloak, to serve as a coverlet, and made no scruple of taking it away with him the next morning. But this mean action being discovered, when he heard that the injured party was coming in search of him, he sent a person back with the property. However, the gentlemen at their return, finding the house deserted, and their boat missing, which it appeared had been driven away by the tide, considering the smallness of their party, and that they had not a spare ball, or charge of powder, they were not without apprehensions lest the Indians might take some undue advantage of their situation; but were agreeably disappointed to find themselves treated in the most civil and friendly manner.

A chief named Omae was building a house at Tiarrabou, the last district in which the travellers landed, and would have given a hog in exchange for a hatchet, but as they had not one left, he would not trade for nails; however, at last, both a hatchet and a nail were promised on his sending the beast to the port. At this place they saw one of the Indian Eutuas, a figure resembling a man, made of wicker work, near seven feet high, covered with black and white feathers, and which had protuberances that they called Tata Eie, or little men, on his head.

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Being come to the district call porra, where Oberea governed, they landed then. Finding that she was gone with intent to visit them at the fort, they slept at her house, where they were entertained by her father. In this neighbourhood, Mr. Banks saw a vast pyramid of stone work, with a slight of steps on each side. It appeared to be near fifty feet high, was about 270 feet in length, and about one third as wide, and they found it was intended for the morai of Oamo and Oberea. The foundation was of rock stones, the steps were of coral, and the upper part consisted of round pebbles, all of the same size, and squared with the greatest exactness, which must have been an almost immense labour for the builders, who were destitute of the proper implements, when this fabric was raised. At the top, in the centre, was a bird carved in wood, and near it a fish in stone. Part of one side of a court or square was constituted by this pyramid, the sides of which were almost equal. The whole was enclosed with a wall, and paved with flat stones, and exhibited the appearance of a firm and compact building. Another paved square was seen at a little distance, in which were several ewattas or altars, on which it appeared that they placed their offerings, when ceremony or inclination led them to acts of devotion. Returning to Port-Royal harbour, after an accurate survey, they determined the circumference of Otaheite to be about 100 miles, both peninsulas included.

While Captain Cook was preparing for his departure, two young marines thought proper to depart from the fort, and were not to be found the next morning; and notice was then given, that the vessel would sail on that or the ensuing day. However, the captain, rather than he would come to a rupture with the Indians just on quitting them, was willing to stay a little longer. But having waited in vain, when an inquiry was made, he was plainly given to understand, that these men had fled to the mountains, and did not intend ever to come back again, as they had chosen wives for themselves on the island. But as it was not reasonable to suppose the commander would lose his men in such a manner, he intimated to those chiefs who were then in the fort with the women (among which latter were Oberea and Fornia) that they must all be considered as prisoners, till the fugitives, whom it had been represented as impossible to take, should be returned. An officer being sent for Tootahah, brought him without any alarm on board the ship, whether when night came on, those who had been confined in the fort were also conveyed; a circumstance that excited some disagreeable apprehensions among them, especially the women, whom Captain Cook escorted with others to the vessel.

When one of the deserters was brought back, he related, that the partner of his flight, and two of those that had been sent to recover them, would be detained till Tootahah was set at liberty; who was immediately informed of this, and told, that it was expected he should

send proper orders, and some of his people, to assist a party dispatched in the long boat to effect a rescue. To this the Indian chief made no objections.

The design succeeded, and the men returned, though at first without the arms they had with them when they set out; but these also being afterwards restored, the captain set his hostages at liberty.

Tupia, an Indian, who was frequent in his intercourse with the English, had often expressed a strong desire of going with them whenever they should leave the island. He still persisted in his resolution; and as he was a priest, had some ideas of navigation, and was once a sort of minister to Oberea, it was thought proper to admit him on board, as also his servant Taiijota, at his earnest request.

When the time for departure approached, Captain Cook going to obtain a drawing of the morai which Tootahah had at Eparre, was met there by Oberea and others, and all in good humour. Tupia, who had taken leave of his friends, and given them some tokens of remembrance, came back with the captain and his train; the principal persons came likewise on board, the vessel was surrounded with canoes full of the common people, and all animosities being forgotten, the good-natured people of Otaheite shed tears at the departure of their guests. Tupia was much moved; but he used every effort to suppress the feelings natural to such an one on leaving his country. He went with Mr. Banks to the mast-head, from whence, waving his hand, he took his last farewell, and departed with Captain Cook, who had staid three months at this island.

C H A P. XIII.

State of Otaheite on Captain Cook's second Visit. Revolution there. Otoo, a timid Prince, King of the whole Island. Friendly Conference with Wabatoov. The King visited on Shore, and entertained on Board. Stratagem of one of the Natives defeated. Ships depart. Omai, a native of Bolobala, sails with Captain Furneaux for England.

AFTER having narrowly escaped the danger of a shipwreck on a tremendous rock, Captain Cook, in his second voyage of discovery, in the Resolution, having also with him the Adventure, Captain Furneaux, came to Otaheite, and anchored in Onitipha-Bay on the 18th of August 1773. Several of the natives were about, and even on board the ships, while they were in the utmost peril of destruction, yet they appeared quite insensible of the situation of the voyagers, and came and went without any seeming concern, a circumstance which was thought not a little singular. It was evening before they asked after Tupia, and they were satisfied when they heard the cause of his death.

There was now some difficulty in obtaining hogs, though these animals were seen on shore in great numbers.

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bers, it being asserted, that they belonged to the chief Waheatow.

At this time a man, supposed to be a principal person, came on board with many of his friends, and received some presents; but both he and they being detected in several thefts, they were all turned out of the ship, and the captain ordered two muskets to be fired over his canoe after he had embarked, which affrighted the pretended chief so much, that he quitted it and jumped into the water. A boat being dispatched for the canoe, the crew were pelted with stones from the shore. A cannon, loaded with ball, was therefore fired along the coast; and the captain going off in another boat, they soon obtained the object in question. However, the English and the Indians becoming friends again, the captured vessel was soon restored.

Mr. Banks and several people were now asked for, who had been at Otaheite on Captain Cook's first voyage; and the natives also informed their guests, that there had been a battle since the Endeavour's departure, in which both Tubourai Tamaide, and Tootahah, the regent, were slain. That a prince, named Otoo, now governed in his stead, and peace was fully established on the island.

When Waheatow came into the neighbourhood, being desirous to see Captain Cook, the latter went accordingly, accompanied by Captain Furneaux, some gentlemen, and several of the natives, and met him advancing, with a numerous train, at the distance of about a mile from the landing-place; who halted, when he perceived the company. He well recollected the captain, whom he placed on the same seat with himself, and inquired after some of the English that he had seen at Otaheite in 1769, at which time this chief was called Terace, he having assumed his father's name after his decease. He received many presents from the captain, seemed concerned when he was told the vessel would sail the next day, and promised that the English should be supplied with plenty of hogs, if they would stay longer. He could not be gratified in this particular, but his guests remained with him all the morning. This chief gave them two hogs at parting, and more were got at the trading places; so that fresh pork was served up to the crews of both the ships; besides that a lieutenant who was left on shore for the purpose, followed and brought eight pigs on board the vessels, after they had departed (being plentifully supplied by the canoes attending them with fruits, which relieved the sick) for Matavai Bay in the same island.

Arriving there on the 25th of the month, the deck was presently crowded with natives (most of whom knew Captain Cook) before the ships could come to an anchor; and the new king, Otoo, waited with a great crowd on shore; but when the captain was going to pay him a visit, he understood that this timid prince had suddenly retired to Oparree in a sort of panic. It was not possible to assign or guess at any rational grounds for such a behaviour, since the people in general were

happy in seeing this gallant officer; and as they well knew he never attempted to exert his force against them without sufficient provocation. Notwithstanding this, the captain set out for Oparree, accompanied by Captain Furneaux, Marituta, his wife, and other persons; and they were all conducted to the king, who sat, attended by numbers, in the old patriarchal fashion common here, under the spreading branches of a tree. Several presents being made him and his attendants, some pieces of cloth were offered on their part; but they were given to understand, that as all they had received was intended only in token of friendship, nothing would be accepted in return. Otoo was well made, of an agreeable person, six feet high, and about thirty years of age. All his subjects were uncovered before him. He promised to send some hogs, but seemed backward in engaging himself to come on board one of the ships, because, as he acknowledged, he was afraid of what he would have had more reason to fear at a distance, the great guns; but in uncultivated minds there is no accounting for prejudices.

However, he got the better of his fears so far as to pay the English a visit, after much persuasion, coming on board, accompanied by his younger brother, his sisters, and attendants, all of whom received presents, which they carried back to Oparree, after they had breakfasted. When Captain Cook landed with his company, the mother of Tootahah laid hold of his hand, and burst into a flood of tears, exclaiming, that her son, his friend Tootahah, was no more; and this humane man must have melted in sympathetic sorrow, had not the king separated them; and it was not without difficulty he was prevailed on to give his consent that they should meet again.

This prince, to whom Captain Furneaux gave a he and she-goat, having found that the great guns were not likely to do him any harm, took courage, and honoured the English a second time with his presence, bringing a hog, some fruits, and cloth to Captain Cook; and then going on board the Adventure, complimented Captain Furneaux with similar presents, for all which he received a suitable return; and his sister was dressed out by Captain Cook in a very agreeable manner. When he thought proper to depart, he was entertained with bagpipes and dancing, which latter was pretty closely imitated by some of his own attendants. His majesty of Otaheite promised also to pay his English friends a third visit; but as this was only on condition that they should first wait on him, both the captains made an excursion to Oparree, and presented him with some articles which he had never seen before. One of the gifts was a broad sword, which so much affrighted him, that at first he had desired it might be taken away. With much persuasion, however, he was prevailed on for a little time to wear it by his side. After this, they repaired to the theatre, where they were entertained with a piece, consisting of comedy and dance. The subject they could not well find out; though they heard frequent

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When this diversion was over, the king desired his guests to depart, and loaded them with fruit and fish. He sent more fruit and fish the next morning. Captain Cook presented him with three Cape sheep, as it was his last visit. With this present he was well pleased, though he had not much reason to be so, as they were all weathers; this he was made acquainted with. Tootahah's mother again presented herself to Captain Cook; but could not look upon him without shedding many tears. Having determined to leave the island, the king seemed much affected when Captain Cook told him of his resolution. They embraced each other several times, and departed. The lieutenant returning, who had been sent for the hogs promised, there came with him Pottatou (the chief of the district of Attahounou) with his wife, to pay Captain Cook a visit, and made him a present of two hogs and some fish. The lieutenant got likewise two more hogs. As the wind was westerly, they were obliged to dismiss their friends sooner than they wished; but they were well satisfied with their reception.

Captain Wallis had planted several sorts of garden-seed and divers kinds of fruits, of which there were no remains when Captain Cook left the island on the former voyage. On his arrival in 1773, he found none of the various seeds, that had been sown by Europeans, had succeeded except pumpkins, and for these the natives had not, as may be well supposed, the least esteem. While the ships staid at Otaheite, Tervah, a sensible old chief, invited two of the gentlemen into his canoe, in which they accompanied him and his wife to the place of their residence. In their passage the old man asked a variety of questions relative to the nature and constitution of the country, from whence these wonderful strangers came. He concluded that Mr. Banks, whom he had seen a few years before, could be no less than the king's brother, and that Captain Cook was high admiral. The information that was given him, was received with the greatest marks of surprise and attention; but when he was told, that in England there were neither bread-fruit nor cocoa-nut trees, he seemed to think meanly of it, notwithstanding all its other advantages.

A short time before the ships got under sail, a young man, whose name was Pores, came on board the Resolution, and requested the commander to take him with him, which, as it was apprehended he might be of occasional service, was complied with. Many others offered themselves, but were refused. The only terms proposed by this youth were an axe and a spike-nail for his father, who was then on board. He had them accordingly, and they parted just as the vessel was getting under sail, without the least apparent natural affection. This raised a doubt as to their consanguinity; which was confirmed by a canoe conducted by two more

coming alongside, as they were standing out of the bay, and demanding the young man in the name of Otoo, who was not then in that neighbourhood.

As the person in question seemed at first undetermined in his own choice, whether he should go or stay, an offer was made to send him back, if the axe and spike-nail were returned; but the man who demanded him, declared they were not on shore, and, waving their claim, departed.

In the year 1767 and 1768, the island of Otaheite, as it were, swarmed with hogs and fowls; but at this time it was so ill supplied with these animals, that hardly any thing would tempt the owners to part with them; and the little stock they had, seemed to be at the disposal of their kings. When the vessels lay at Oaitipih-Bay, in the kingdom of Tiarrabou, or lesser Peninsula, our people were given to understand, as we have observed, that every hog and fowl belonged to Waheatow; and that all the kingdom of Opoureonu, or the greater Peninsula, belonged to Otoo.

While at this island, they got only twenty-four hogs in seventeen days, half of which came from the kings themselves, and the other half they were inclined to think were sold by their permission: They attributed the scarcity of hogs to two causes; first, to the great number of these animals which had been consumed, and carried away for stock, by the ships that had touched here of late years; secondly, to the frequent wars between the two kingdoms. Two, they knew, had commenced since the year 1767; but now peace reigned among them, though they did not seem to entertain a cordial friendship for each other. Our people could not learn the occasion of the late war, nor who were victorious in the conflict; but they learnt, that in the last battle, which terminated the dispute, numbers were killed on both sides. On the part of Opoureonu, Tootahah, their very good friend, was killed, and several other chiefs.

Captain Furneaux, in September 1773, agreed to receive on board his ship a young man named Omai, a native of Ulietea, one of the Society Islands, where he had some property, of which he was dispossessed by the people of Bolabola. The two ships separating in a storm a few months afterwards, the voyage of the Adventure was brought to a much earlier conclusion than that of the Resolution; for she arrived at Spithead in July following.

Captain Cook did not at first think Omai a proper person to bring to England; but, upon his arrival, he changed his opinion, and declared, that he much doubted whether any others of the natives would have given more general satisfaction by his behaviour amongst our people; being of opinion, that the qualities of his head and heart did honour to human nature; and he was described, perhaps rather too partially, as being endued with a great share of understanding, quick parts, and honest principles, which rendered him acceptable to the best company, and a proper degree of pride, which induced

duced him to avoid the company of persons of inferior rank; and it was said, that though, doubtless, he had passions in common with others of the same age, he had judgment enough not to indulge them to an excess. His principal patrons whilst in England were the Earl of Sandwich, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander. His noble patron, then first lord of the admiralty, introduced him to his majesty at Kew, and during his stay in England he received many favours; and his taste for pleasure, whatever share he possessed of it, was certainly amply gratified; though perhaps more care was taken to satisfy him, and also render him pleasing to others, than to cultivate more solid talents, and thoroughly enlighten his mind. Some of this kind appears likely, at least, from the sequel of his adventures, as far as they have come to our knowledge.

C H A P. XIV.

Captain Cook on his third and last Voyage, arrives with Omai at Otaheite. Visited by the Natives. Account of the Spaniards having landed on the Island. Great Joy there on the Captain's Arrival, who introduces Omai to the King. A Banquet and dramatic Entertainment. Manner of embalming the Bodies of Persons of Distinction. Description of the House built by the Spaniards. Departure of the Vessels. Observations on Omai's Conduct at Otaheite.

CAPTAIN COOK, sailing on his third and last voyage, for discoveries in the Pacific-Ocean, &c. with Omai on board, came to Otaheite, and steered for Oaitipha-Bay, on the 12th of August 1777.

On approaching the land, the vessels were attended by several canoes, but as these did not appear to contain any persons of distinction, no notice was taken of them; nor did those on board seem to know that Omai was their countryman: but at length a chief, called Ootee, whom the captain had known before, with some others, recognised Omai; among these was his brother-in-law. There was nothing striking, however, in the meeting of these two persons, till Omai, conducting his relation into the cabin, made him a present of some red feathers. As soon as this was known, Ootee, who before scarcely thought it worth while to speak to him, now desired they might exchange names, and become friends (which was confirmed by a present) according to the custom of the country. This might serve as a specimen of what was to be expected; and it was a pity that the traveller, thus happily returned, who wanted not for proper advice, did not conduct himself accordingly.

The Resolution and Discovery standing for the bay, where they did not come to an anchor till the 13th, at nine in the morning, were surrounded by a number of canoes, the news of Omai's being on board, and of the red feathers, having been sufficiently circulated; but as numbers on board were possessed of this article, it ap-

peared, that so precarious and fluctuating was the state of traffic and barter, that a quantity of feathers, which might be taken from the body of a tom-tit, would, early in the morning, have purchased a hog of forty or fifty pounds weight; they decreased above five hundred per cent. in value in a few hours: however, the balance, even then, was considerably in favour of our people, and red feathers still preserved a superiority over every other commodity.

The officers were now informed by the natives who came off to them, that since Captain Cook had been at this island in 1774, two ships had been twice in this bay, and had left animals there resembling those they had on board; but on a minute inquiry into particulars, they were found to consist only of hogs, dogs, goats, a bull, and the male of another animal; which the natives so imperfectly described, that they could not conjecture what it was. These ships, they said, had come from a place called Keema, which was supposed to be Lima, the capital of Peru, and that these late visitors were consequently Spaniards. They added, that the first time they arrived, they built a house, and left behind them two priests, a boy or servant, and a fourth person whom they called Mateena, much spoken of at this time, taking away with them, when they sailed, four of the natives: that about ten months after, the same ships returned, bringing back only two of the natives, the other two having died at Lima; and that, after a short stay, they took away the people they had left, but that the house they had erected was then standing.

Not long after the ships had anchored in the bay, Omai's sister came on board, in order to congratulate him on his return. It was pleasing to observe, that their meeting was marked with expressions of the tenderest affection, more easily conceived than described.

Captain Cook having received a message from Wahaiadooda, Prince of Tiarraboo, notifying his arrival, and requesting he would come ashore to meet him, Omai and the captain prepared to make him a visit in form. Omai, on this occasion, took some pains to dress himself, not after the manner of the English, nor that of Otaheite, or Tongatattoo, or in the dress of any other country; but in a strange medley of all the habiliments and ornaments of which he was possessed. Thus equipped, on landing, they first paid a visit to Etary, an old chief, who being carried on an hand-barrow, accompanied them to a large building, where he was set down. Omai seated himself on one side, and the captain on the other. The young chief soon after arrived, attended by his mother and several principal men, who all seated themselves opposite to their visitors. One who sat near the captain made a short speech, consisting of separate sentences, part of which was dictated by those about him. Another, on the opposite side, near the chief, spoke next; Etary after him, and then Omai. The subjects of these orations were, Captain

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The most extravagant signs of joy were displayed by the natives of Otaheite on the arrival of the English, some of the ceremonies attending which, namely, women's beating their breasts, and people's wounding themselves with shark's teeth, could not but appear strange, and even disgusting to Europeans. In the mean time, there was scarcely a child that could list the word Tooté (Captain Cook's appellation among them) who was silent, or did not give some tokens of sharing in the general satisfaction; yet in their subsequent dealings, they shewed sufficiently, as usual, that a mercenary disposition prevailed among them.

Otoo, the king of the island, accompanied by a great number of the natives, in their canoes, came from Oparree soon after the arrival of the English; and having landed on Matavai-Point, sent a messenger on board, intimating his desire to see Captain Cook there. The captain accordingly went on shore, attended by Omai, and some of the officers. They found a vast multitude of people assembled on this occasion, in the midst of whom was the king, with his father, his two brothers, and three sisters. The captain saluted Otoo, and was followed by Omai, who kneeled and embraced his legs. Though Omai had prepared himself for this ceremony, by dressing himself in his best apparel, and behaved with great respect and modesty, yet very little notice was taken of him. He made the king a present of two yards of gold cloth, and a large tassel of red feathers; and the captain gave him a gold-laced hat, a suit of fine linen, some tools, a quantity of red feathers, and one of the bonnets worn at the Friendly Islands.

Afterwards the king and all the royal family accompanied Captain Cook on board, followed by several canoes plentifully laden with all kinds of provisions. Each family owned a part, so that the captain had a present from every one of them; and each received from him a separate present in return. Not long after the king's mother came on board, bringing with her some provisions and cloth, which she divided between the captain and Omai. Though the latter was but little noticed at first by his countrymen, they no sooner gained information of his wealth, than they began to court his friendship. Captain Cook encouraged this as far as lay in his power, being desirous of fixing him with Otoo, and intended to leave all the European animals at this island, as he thought Omai would be able to give the natives some instructions with regard to their use and management.

Soon after the ships were moored, Captain Cook, with Omai, took an airing on horseback, to the great astonishment of the inhabitants, many hundreds of whom followed him with loud acclamations. Omai, to excite their admiration the more, was dressed cap-a-pee in a suit of armour, and was mounted and caparisoned with his sword and pike, like St. George going to kill the dragon, whom he very nearly represented; only that

Omai had pistols in his holsters, of which the bold saint knew not the use. Omai, however, made good use of his arms; for when the crowd became clamorous and troublesome, he every now and then pulled out a pistol, and fired it over them, which never failed to disperse them.

While the vessels lay in Matavai-Harbour, the commanders, with the principal officers and gentlemen, embarked on board the pinraces, which, on this occasion, were decked in all the magnificence that silken streamers, embroidered ensigns, and other gorgeous decorations could display, to pay a visit to the king at Oparree. Omai, to surprise them the more, was clothed in a captain's uniform, and could hardly be distinguished from a British officer.

From Matavai to Oparree, is about six miles. When the party arrived at the landing-place, they were received by the marines then under arms. As soon as the company were disembarked, the whole band of music struck up a military march, and the procession began. The road from the beach to the entrance of the palace (about half a mile) was lined on both sides with natives from all parts, expecting to see Omai on horseback, as the account of his appearance on the other side of the island had already reached the inhabitants on this. The whole court were likewise assembled, and the king, with his sisters, on the approach of Captain Cook, came forth to meet him. As he was perfectly known by them, their first salutations were friendly, according to their known customs; and when these were over, proper attention was paid to every gentleman in company, and that too with a politeness quite unexpected by those who had never before been on this island.

As soon as the company had entered the palace, and were seated, some discourse passed between the king and Captain Cook; after which Omai was presented to his majesty, and paid him the usual homage of a subject to a sovereign of that country, which consists of little more than being uncovered before him, and then entered into a familiar conversation on the subject of his travels.

Otoo, impatient to hear his story, asked him many questions before he gave him time to answer one. He inquired about the King of England, his place of residence, his court, his attendants, his warriors, his ships of war, his morals, the extent of his possessions, &c. &c. Omai did not fail to magnify the grandeur of the great king. He represented the splendor of his court, by the brilliancy of the stars in the firmament; the extent of his dominions, by the vast expanse of heaven; the greatness of his power, by the thunder that shakes the earth. He said, this monarch had three hundred thousand warriors every day at his command, and more than double that number of sailors. That his ships of war exceeded those at Matavai in magnitude, in the same proportion as those exceeded the small canoes at Oparree.

The king, astonished, interrupted him: he asked,
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where people could be had to navigate so many ships? and if there were, how could provisions be got for such a multitude? Omai assured him, that in one city only there were more people than were contained in the whole group of islands; that the country was full of large populous cities; notwithstanding which, provisions were so plentiful, that for a few pieces of yellow metal, like those of which he had seen many (meaning the medals given by Captain Cook to the chiefs) the Great King could purchase a quantity of provisions sufficient for the maintenance of a sailor for a whole year. That in the country of the Great King, there were more than an hundred different kinds of four-footed animals, from the size of a rat, to that of a stage erected on an ordinary canoe; and that all these propagated very fast.

He added, that the ships of war, in Pretanne, were furnished with poo-pooos (guns) each of which would receive the largest poo-poo his majesty had yet seen, within it; that some carried a hundred and more of those poo-pooos, with suitable accommodations for a thousand fighting men, and stowage for all kinds of cordage and warlike stores, besides provisions and water for a thousand days; that they were sometimes abroad as long, fighting with the enemies of the Great King; that they carried with them frequently, in these expeditions, poo-pooos that would hold a small hog, and which threw hollow globes of iron, of vast bigness, filled with fire and all manner of combustibles, and implements of destruction, to a great distance; a few of which, were they to be thrown among the fleet of Otaheite, would set them on fire, and destroy the whole navy, were they ever so numerous.

The king seemed more astonished than delighted at this narration, and suddenly left Omai, to join the company that were in conversation with Captain Cook. By this time dinner was nearly ready, and, as soon as the company were properly seated, was brought in by as many tow-tows as there were persons to dine; besides these, the king, the two commanders, and Omai, had each of them several persons of superior rank to attend them. The dinner consisted of fish and fowl of various kinds, dressed after their manner; barbecued pigs, stewed yams, and fruit of the most delicious flavour; all served with ease and regularity.

The guests were conducted to the theatre, where a company of players were in readiness to perform a dramatical entertainment.

The drama was regularly divided into three acts: the first consisted of dancing and dumb-show; the second of comedy, which, to those who understood the language, was very laughable; for Omai, and the natives, appeared highly diverted the whole time; the last was a musical piece, in which the young princesses were the sole performers. Between the acts, some feats of arms were exhibited, by combatants with lances and clubs. One made the attack, the other stood upon the defensive. He who made the attack, bran-

dished his lance, and either threw, pushed, or used it instead of his club. He who was upon the defensive, stuck the point of his lance in the ground, in an oblique direction, so that the upper part rose above his head; and by observing the eye of his enemy, parried his blows, or his strokes, by the motion of his lance, and it was rare that he was hurt by the club. If his antagonist struck at his legs, he shewed his agility by jumping over the club; and if at his head, he was no less nimble in crouching under it. Their dexterity consisted chiefly in the defence, otherwise the combat might have been fatal, which always ended in good-humour.

These entertainments, which generally lasted about four hours, were really diverting. In the hornpipe, they excelled the Europeans, for they added contortions of the face and muscles to the nimbleness of the foot, that were inimitable. Their comedy seemed to consist of some simple story, made laughable by the manner of delivery, somewhat in the style of the merry-andrews formerly at the fairs in England.

As night came on, the commanders took their leave, after inviting the king and his attendants to dine on board the Resolution. They were conducted to the water-side, in the same manner as they approached the palace, and were attended by the king and royal family. The next morning Omai's mother, and several of his relations arrived; but their interview was not like that between him and his sister, for the old lady wounded herself with shark's teeth, which appeared but an odd idea of joy to the voyagers.

Our people had brought from the other islands several shaddock-trees, which they planted here, and there appeared to them a probability of their succeeding, unless their growth should be checked by the same idle curiosity which destroyed a vine planted at Oaitipha by the Spaniards. Many of the natives assembled to taste the first fruits it produced; but being still sour, they considered it little better than poison, and trod it under foot.

The captain attending Otoo to his father's, he saw several people employed in dressing two girls with fine cloth, after a very singular fashion. There were several pieces, one end of each was held over the heads of the girls, while the remainder was wrapped round their bodies under the arm-pits. The upper ends were then let fall, and hung in folds to the ground, over the other, so as to bear some resemblance to a circular hoop-petticoat: lastly, round the sides of all were wrapped several pieces of cloth, of various colours, which considerably increased the size, it being five or six yards in circuit; and the weight of this singular attire was as much as the poor girls could support. To each were hung two taames, or breast-plates; in order to establish the whole, and give it a picturesque appearance. Thus equipped, they were taken on board, together with several hogs, and a quantity of fruit, the whole being a present to the English commander from Otoo's father.

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Those who are dressed in this manner, are called *atee*; but this ceremony is never performed, except when large presents of cloth are to be made. It never was seen practised upon any other occasion; but both Captain Cook and Captain Clerke, who sailed under his command, had cloth presented to them afterwards wrapped round the bearers in the same manner.

Captain Cook, going to see an embalmed corpse, near the residence of Otoo; on inquiry, it was found to be the remains of Tee, a chief well known to him, when he last visited this island. It was lying in an elegant *toopapao*, in all respects similar to that at Oaiti-piha, in which the remains of Waheiatow, the elder, were deposited. The body was found uncovered within the *toopapao*, and wrapped up in cloth. At the captain's desire, the person who had the care of it, brought it out and placed it upon a kind of bier, so as to exhibit a perfect view of it. The attendants then ornamented the place with mats and cloth, disposed in such a manner as to produce a pleasing effect. The body was entire in every part; putrefaction seemed hardly to be begun, and not the least disagreeable smell proceeded from it, though this was one of the hottest climates, and Tee had been dead above four months. There was, indeed, a shrinking of the muscular parts and eyes, but the hair and nails were in their original state, and the several joints were pliable. The deceased was thus preserved, by drawing out the intestines, and other viscera, after which the whole cavity is stuffed with cloth; that when any moisture appeared, it was immediately dried up, and the body rubbed all over with perfumed cocoa-nut oil, which, frequently repeated, preserved them several months; after which they mouldered away gradually. Omai told them, that the bodies of all their great men, who die a natural death, are thus preserved, and exposed to public inspection.

We must not omit to mention here, that Captain Cook having heard so much of the strangers who visited Otaheite, and the house they had erected, was resolved to survey this edifice, of which the reader will take the following description:

"It stood near the beach, and was comprised of wooden materials, such as seemed to have been brought thither ready prepared, the planks being all numbered; and it consisted of two small rooms, in the innermost of which were a bedstead, a table, and a bench: some old hats and other trifles were also left there; and of these the natives appeared particularly careful, as well as of the building itself, which was preserved from the injuries of the weather by a sort of shed they had erected over it. Around it were a number of scuttles, as if intended for air-holes, though there might be a design of rendering them serviceable for firing muskets from, if occasion required it; and the whole structure seemed to Captain Cook to indicate a deeper plan than the natives were aware of. At a little distance stood a wooden cross, on the transverse part of which was inscribed, *Cbristus vincit*, and on the perpendicular, *Carulus III.*

imperat. 1774. This latter circumstance being noticed by the captain, he preserved the memory of the visits of the English, by inscribing *Georgius Tertius, rex, annis* 1767, 1769, 1773, 1774, & 1777. Near the foot of the cross, was the Spanish commodore's grave, who died on the island."

As it appeared, that whatever might be the views of the Spaniards, they had spared no pains in endeavouring to gain the friendship of the islanders, who spoke of them with the greatest respect; so Captain Cook thought proper to caution them how they trusted their new friends, if ever they should pay them another visit. And he afterwards heard, in the course of a conference with the natives, that the Spaniards had desired, the English should never more be admitted into Oaiti-piha-Harbour, as they asserted, that all was *their* property. But the islanders added, in a soothing manner, "that they were so far from entertaining a thought of complying with this injunction, that they came to surrender to the English the province of Tiaraboo, and every thing in it."

Many of the sailors being very desirous to stay at Otaheite, Otoo interested himself in their behalf, and endeavoured to prevail on Captain Cook to grant their request; but he rejected peremptorily every application of that kind, though often repeated; nor would he suffer any of the natives to enter on board, though many would have gladly accompanied the Europeans wherever they intended to sail, and that too after they were assured, that they never intended to visit their country any more. Some of the women also would have followed their Ehoonoas, or British husbands, could they have been permitted; but the commander was equally averse to the taking any of the natives away, as to the leaving his own people behind.

When the king found he could not obtain his wishes in this respect, he applied to Captain Cook for another favour, which was, to allow our carpenters to make him a chest, or press, to secure the treasures he had accumulated in presents: he even begged that a bed might be placed in it, where he intended to sleep. This request the captain readily granted; and while the workmen were employed in making this uncommon piece of furniture, they were plentifully supplied with barbecued hog, and such dainties as the country afforded, so that they thought themselves amply compensated for their pains. Captain Cook accompanied Otoo to Oparree; and before he left it took a survey of the cattle and poultry which he had consigned to his friend's care. Every thing was in a promising way, and properly attended to. Two of the geese, and two of the ducks, were sitting; but the pea-hen and turkey-hen had neither of them begun to lay. He took four goats from Otoo, two of which he intended to leave at Ulietea, and to reserve two for the use of any other islands he might touch at in his passage to the north. The captain was informed by Otoo, that he had a canoe, which he desired he would take with him as a present from the Earee of Otaheite,

Otaheite, to the Eareerahie of Pretanne. The captain was highly pleased with Otoo for this mark of his gratitude. At first, he supposed it to be a model of one of their vessels of war, but it proved to be a small iwahah, about sixteen feet long. It was double, and probably had been built for the purpose, and was decorated with carved work, like their canoes in general. It being inconvenient to take it on board, the captain could only thank him for his good intention; but the king would have been much better pleased if his present could have been accepted.

By the following manœuvre of this prince, it will appear, that the people of this island do not want for address in bringing about their purposes. Among other things which the captain had at different times given Otoo, was a spying-glass: having been two or three days possessed of this glass, he, perhaps, grew tired of it, or discovered that it could not be of any use to him; he therefore, carried it privately to Captain Clerke, telling him, that he had got a present for him, in return for his friendship, which he supposed would be agreeable: "But, says Otoo, Toote must not be informed of this, because he wanted it, and I refused to let him have it." Accordingly he put the glass into Captain Clerke's hands, assuring him, at the same time, that he came honestly by it. Captain Clerke, at first, wished to be excused from accepting it; but Otoo insisted that he should, and left it with him. A few days after, he reminded Captain Clerke of the glass; who, though he did not wish to have it, was yet desirous of obliging Otoo; and thinking a few axes would be more acceptable, produced four, and offered them in exchange. Otoo immediately exclaimed, "Toote offered me five for it." Well, says Captain Clerke, if that be the case, you shall not be a loser by your friendship for me; there are six axes for you. He readily accepted them, but again artfully desired that Captain Cook might not be made acquainted with the transaction, which he knew could not redound to his own honour.

The English were detained here some time longer than they expected, during which the ships were crowded with friends, and surrounded with canoes, for none of them would quit the place till they departed. At length, the wind came round to the east, and they weighed anchor. When the Resolution and Discovery were under sail, to oblige Otoo, and to gratify the curiosity of his people, several guns were fired, after which all friends, except his majesty, and two or three more, took leave of their visitors with such lively marks of sorrow and affection, as sufficiently testified how much they regretted their departure. Otoo being desirous of seeing the Resolution sail, she made a stretch out to sea, and then in again immediately, when the king took his last farewell, and went ashore in his canoe. It was strictly enjoined the captain by Otoo, to request, in his name, the Eareerahie of Pretanne (meaning the King of England) to send him by the next ship some red

feathers, and the birds which produced them; also axes, half a dozen muskets, powder and shot, and by no means to forget horses. Before the English left the island, Captain Cook was much pressed to join Otoo's forces in an expedition against Emayo, where some years since, they said, a chief had been murdered, whom the inhabitants of the last-mentioned place had desired those of Otaheite to send them for a king. A fleet indeed had sailed before against these people, but had returned without achieving any thing; and therefore another attack was resolved on. The captain answered, that he could not think of engaging in hostilities against those who had not given him any offence, and predicted the miscarriage of the expedition, on account of their offering a human sacrifice to insure its success.

Otoo left the most valuable presents he had received, in the captain's possession, till the day before they sailed, the king declaring that they could be no where so safe. From the acquisition of new riches, the inducements to pilfering must certainly have increased, and the chiefs were sensible of this, from their being so exceedingly desirous of having chests. The few that the Spaniards had left among them were highly prized, and they were continually asking for others from our people. Locks and bolts were not considered as a sufficient security, so that a chest must be large enough for two people to sleep upon, and consequently guard it in the night. Yet, in the midst of all this insecurity of property, it is no less strange than true, that no laws were made, or even suggested, to suppress such a growing evil; no reason for which can be assigned, but the weak one, that custom had appeared to authorise these shameful depredations.

On account of the incapacity of these people to calculate the time of past events, it could never be learned, to a certainty, when the Spaniards landed on the island. The live stock they left here, consisted of one bull, some goats, hogs, and dogs, and the male of another animal, which, according to information, was a ram, at that time at Bolabola. The hogs being large, had already much improved the breed originally found upon the island. Goats were also plentiful, there being hardly a chief without them.

The dogs that the Spaniards put ashore, were of two or three sorts: had they all been hanged, instead of being left upon the island, it would have been better for the natives. A young ram fell a victim to one of these animals.

Four Spaniards remained on shore when their ship left the island, two of whom were priests, one a servant, and the other was much caressed among the natives, who distinguished him by the name of Mateema. He seemed to have so far studied their language, as to have been able to speak it, and to have been indefatigable in impressing on the minds of the Otaheiteans exalted ideas of the greatness of the Spaniards nation, and inducing them to think meanly of the English.

It is hard to conceive, what were the views of the priests; they could not relate to religion; for the natives said, they never conversed with them, either on this or any other subject. The priests resided the whole time at Oaitipaha; but Mateema roved about continually, visiting many parts of the island. After he and his companions had staid ten months, two ships arriving at Otaheite, took them on board, and sailed in five days. Whatever designs the Spaniards might have on this island, their hasty departure shewed they had now laid them aside. However, they endeavoured to make the natives believe, that they intended to return, and would bring them all kinds of animals, and men and women, who were to settle on the island.

As Captain Cook had received a visit from one of the two natives of this island who had been taken to Lima by the Spaniards, it is somewhat remarkable that he never saw him afterwards, especially as the captain received him with uncommon civility. It was imagined that Omai, from motives of jealousy, had kept him from the captain, he being a traveller, who, in some degree, might vie with himself. Captain Clerke, who had seen the other man, spoke of him as an inconsiderable character; and his own countrymen entertained the same opinion of him. In short, those two adventurers seemed to be held in little or no esteem.

In the mean time, Omai himself, who had been fortunate enough to return with so many more advantages, was far from improving them, as might have been expected. He exhibited little indeed of dignity, but much of a puerile vanity: slighting the advice of his best friends, he, like many Europeans, seemed to delight only in that sort of society where he expected to be deemed the head of the company. By such means, he lost the friendship of all the principal persons in the country, who presently found, that they could not get from any person in either of the ships such gifts as Omai bestowed on the lower orders of the people. This conduct naturally lost him the favour of Otoo, and of those with whom he should have been careful to cultivate an acquaintance. His sister and his brother-in-law likewise very unkindly joined a select body, that seemed to have laid a scheme for plundering him, which they would have done completely, but for the interference of Captain Cook, who took the most useful articles this traveller had under his care, and forbade these greedy relations to appear at Huahaine all the time he continued at the Society-Islands, whither he intended directing his course after leaving Otaheite, according to the plan of his voyage.

But before we pursue the captain's track any further, we shall here present the reader with a summary view of the most remarkable customs and manners of the natives of Otaheite, and such other particulars as we could not have introduced so properly before, without breaking in upon the thread of our narrative.

3

C H A P. XV.

Soil, Persons, Dwellings, Habits, Disposition, and various Customs of the Inhabitants of Otaheite. Their Food and Manner of Eating. Birds and Beasts peculiar to the Island.

THE inhabitants of Otaheite have the happiness to be situate on an island, which, though within the tropics, may be reckoned as one of the most healthy in the world. M. Bougainville, who visited this place, as we have already mentioned, takes notice, that the greatest part of his sailors who were sent on shore for the cure of disorders occasioned by heat, salt provisions, and other causes incidental to long voyages, here regained their strength, finding the land fertile, and the warmth of the sea tempered with the purest air.

The soil, which is of a blackish colour, is watered by a number of rivulets. On the borders of the valley through which the river flows, there are several houses with walled gardens, and plenty of fowls and hogs. Channels are cut in many places to conduct the water from the hills to the plantations. Streams meander through various windings, and stupendous mountains overhang the vallies. Towards the sea, the view is delightful, the sides of the hills being covered with trees, and the vallies with grass. No under-wood was found beneath the trees, neither on the sides or bottoms of the hills, but there was plenty of good grass. Many fine springs gush from the borders of the mountains, all of which are covered with wood on the sides, and fern on the summits. Sugar-cane grows without cultivation on the high land, as also turmeric and ginger.

This island, known by the general name of O T A H E I T E, forms two distinct kingdoms, which are united by a narrow neck of land. The largest of these is called by the natives *Tiarrabou*, or *Otaheite-Nue*; the smaller *Opourenou*, or *Otaheite-Ete*.

It is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, forming several bays, among which the principal is Port-Royal, called by the natives *Matavai*. The country affords a beautiful prospect. It rises in ridges, forming mountains in the middle of the island, that may be seen at the distance of sixty miles. Towards the sea, it is level, and covered with fruit-trees of divers kinds, but particularly the cocoa-nut. In this part are the houses of the inhabitants, which do not form villages, being ranged along the whole border, at about fifty yards distance from each other.

The vegetable productions of this island are as various as numerous in their respective species. There are bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas of many sorts, sweet potatoes, plantains, yams, a delicious fruit known here by the name of *jambu*, sugar-cane, the paper-mulberry, ginger, turmeric, and several sorts of figs, all of which the soil produces spontaneously, or with very little culture. They have the *ava-ava*, from which they extract

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tract the intoxicating liquor already described in the other islands. A most extraordinary tree here received the name of *Barringtonia*. The leaves are of a most beautiful white, tipped with a bright crimson. It is called *huddoo* by the natives, who affirm, that its fruit, which is a large nut, being bruised, mixed with shell-fish, and strewed in the sea, has an effect so intoxicating upon the fish, that they will come to the surface of the water, and suffer themselves to be taken with hands. There are other plants of a similar quality in these climates, particularly one called *tubbe*, which grows on another island, and intoxicates fish in the same manner as the *barringtonia* or *huddoo*. It is remarked from observation, that the fish caught by means of these intoxicating plants, were neither nauseous or unwholesome. There are also the *wharra*, *pandanus*, and a sort of shady trees, covered with a dark green foliage, bearing what they call golden apples, which resemble, in flavour and juiciness, the anana, or pine.

The people of Otaheite are robust, well proportioned, comely, and alert. With respect to stature, the men in general are from five feet seven to five feet ten inches. The tallest man seen by Captain Wallis, measured six feet three inches and an half; and Otoo, King of Otaheite, is described by Captain Cook as reaching that stature. Monsieur de Bougainville says, they would, in point of form, be most excellent models for painting an Hercules or a Mars. The standard of the women in general is near three inches shorter. Their noses are generally rather flat, though in other respects they are handsome and agreeable, having delicate skins, eyes fully expressive, and teeth beautifully white and even. Their hair is for the most part black, though some, in contradistinction from the natives of Asia, Africa, and America, in general, have it brown, red, or flaxen; the children of both sexes in particular have that of the latter colour. The complexion of the men is tawny, though that of those who go upon the water is reddish. The women are of a fine clear olive colour, or what we call a brunette. The men wear their beards in various forms, plucking out a great part. Contrary to the custom of most other nations, the women of this country cut their hair short, whereas the men wear it long, sometimes hanging loose upon their shoulders, and at other times, tied in a knot on the crown of the head, in which they stick the feathers of birds of various colours. Like the Chinese, the principal men of the island suffer the nails of their fingers to grow very long as a badge of honour, and as an indication of their not being subject to any servile employment. The nail of the middle-finger on the right-hand, was observed to be short; but the reason of that peculiarity could not be learned. Their mien and deportment are perfectly graceful.

Tattooing or puncturing is in general practised here with both sexes, and performed in the same manner as at the other islands in these seas already described. They

usually undergo this operation at the age of about ten or twelve years, and in different parts of the body; but those which suffer most severely, are the breech and the loins, which are marked with arches, carried one above another a considerable way up the back.

Mr. Banks, who accompanied Captain Cook, was present at the operation of tattooing performed on the posteriors of a girl between twelve and thirteen years of age. The instrument used had twenty teeth, and at each stroke, which was repeated every moment, issued an ichor or serum tinged with blood. The girl bore the pain with great resolution for some minutes, till at length it became so intolerable, that she burst out into violent exclamations; but the operator, notwithstanding the most earnest entreaties to desist, was inexorable, whilst two women who attended upon the occasion, both chid and beat her for struggling. The operator had continued for the space of a quarter of an hour, in which only one side was tattooed, the other having undergone the same ceremony some time before, and the arches upon the loins, which they deem the most ornamental, was yet to be made.

Their dress consists of cloth and matting of various kinds; the first they wear in fine, the latter in foul weather. Two pieces of this cloth or matting compose the dress; one of them having a hole in the middle to put the head through, the long ends hang before and behind; the other pieces, which are between four and five yards long, and about one broad, they wrap round the body in an easy manner. The men's dress differs from the women's in this instance, that in one part of the garment, instead of falling below the knees, it is brought between the legs. This dress is worn by all ranks of people; but that of the better sort of women consists of a great quantity of materials. In the heat of the day, both sexes wear only a piece of cloth tied round the waist. They have small bonnets made of cocoa-nut leaves or matting, constructed, in a few minutes, to shade their faces from the sun. The ornaments of both sexes consist of feathers, flowers, shells, and pearls, but the latter are more worn by the women. Boys and girls go naked, the former till they are seven or eight years old, and the latter till they are five or six. Their clothes are in general strongly perfumed. They have a custom in many hot countries of anointing their hair with cocoa-nut oil, the smell of which is very agreeable.

The chief uses for which the houses of the inhabitants of Otaheite are designed, are to sleep in, or to avoid rain; as in fair weather, they eat in the open air, under the shade of trees. They are at best but sheds, and in general without division or apartments. The roof resembles our thatched houses, and consists of two flat sides, inclining to each other. The floor is covered with hay, over which they spread mats. The size of the houses is proportioned to the number of the family, and the several departments adapted for the convenience of the different ranks. The master and his wife

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ple; next the unmarried females; then, at some dis-
tance, the unmarried men; then the servants at the ex-
tremity of the shed, but, in fair weather, in the open
air. The houses of the chiefs differ in some particu-
lars, having more convenient apartments constructed for
privacy. Some are so formed as to be carried in can-
oes; they are very small, and enclosed with leaves of
the cocoa-nut, but the air nevertheless penetrates; these
are designed only for the accommodation of the great.

With respect to the disposition and temper of these
islanders, it has been remarked, that their passions are
violent, and subject to frequent transitions from one ex-
treme to another, especially after the succession of grief
and rapture. As they seem absorbed in luxury, it is nat-
ural to suppose them unable to endure pain in an
acute degree; but it will appear otherwise, when ob-
served, that the women undergo the most excruciating
tortures from their own hands on the death of rela-
tions, as will hereafter be described. They point
out particular friends, by taking off a part of their
clothing and putting it on them. Their treatment
of our countrymen, after prejudices arising from
novelty had subsided, was generous and courteous.
If an engaging look from a native was returned by a
smile from any of our countrymen, they would avail
themselves of the opportunity to prefer the request of
a bead, or some other bauble; but maintained an even-
ness of temper whether granted or denied. When the
frequency and importunity of their solicitations
became subjects for the display of sarcasm amongst our
people, they would only carry it off with an hearty
laugh. Novelty was the leading topic of their conver-
sation; their intercourse with strangers, and the infor-
mation they derived, and observations they made, were
subjects reserved for the entertainment and diversion of
each other. Though they always expressed emotions at
the explosion of gunpowder, they overcame, by degrees,
their former dread and apprehension.

Their mode of paying obeisance to strangers or supe-
riors, at a first meeting, is by uncovering themselves to
the middle; and they have a common phrase when
any one sneezes, implying, "May the Good Ge-
nius awake you!" or, "May not the Evil Genius lull
you asleep!"

Though they possess many good qualities, they par-
take, as we have seen, of the propensity to theft, that
characterises the inhabitants of the South-Sea islands in
general. The terrible apprehensions of the effects of fire-
arms, as upon every occasion, seldom failed of producing
restitution.

One of the natives having the dexterity to cross the
river unperceived, and steal a hatchet, the gunner of
the Dolphin, who was commanding officer of a watering
party on shore, signified by signs to an old man who
was appointed to superintend commerce on the part of
the Indians, the offence committed, and drew out some

of his people, as if he would have gone into the woods
in quest of the delinquent. The old man, intimidated
by this specious preparation, gave the officer to under-
stand he would prevent the execution of his design,
by restoring the article missed; and setting off immedi-
ately, returned in a very short time with the article stolen.
The gunner insisting on the thief being produced, it
was complied with, though with apparent reluctance;
and being known to be an old offender, he was sent
prisoner on board. The captain, however, only punish-
ed him with apprehension, and then dismissed and sent
him on shore. He was received on his return by his
countrymen with loudest acclamations, and carried off
in triumph by them into the woods. Conscious, how-
ever, of the lenity of the gunner, he expressed his grati-
tude by presenting him with a roasted hog, and some
bread-fruit.

Another trait of the disposition of these people is,
that they have not an idea of any thing being indecent,
and transgress the rules of modesty, without the least
sense of shame, or notion of impropriety. Notwith-
standing this disposition, the wives here owe their hus-
bands a blind submission, nor does the passion of jealousy
prevail amongst them in the least degree.

The sagacity of these people in foretelling the
weather, particularly the quarter from whence the wind
will blow, is very extraordinary. In their long voy-
ages, they steer by the sun in the day, and in the night
by the stars, all of which they distinguish separately by
names, and know in what part of the heavens they will
appear in any of the months during which they are vi-
sible in their horizon. They can also determine with
precision the times of their annual appearing or disap-
pearing.

Vegetables compose the chief part of the diet of the
common people of this island, whilst those of exalted
rank feed on the flesh of hogs, dogs, and fowls, and
gormandize to an excess. Amongst the articles of ve-
getable food, are the bread-fruit, bananas, plantains,
yams, apples, and a four fruit, which, though not plea-
sant in itself, affords an agreeable relish to roasted
bread-fruit, with which it is frequently beaten up.
The bread-fruit, which is the chief support of these peo-
ple, is attended with no other trouble after the tree is
planted, than that of climbing to gather its produce.
When the fruit is not in season, its deficiency is supplied
with cocoa-nuts, bananas, and plantains.

A very common dish, is a pudding composed of
bread-fruit, plantains, taro, and pandanus-nuts, each
rasped, scraped, or beat up very fine, and baked by
itself. A quantity of the juice of cocoa-nut kernels is
put into a large tray or wooden vessel, in which the
other articles from the oven are put, together with
some hot stones, in order to make the contents fir-
mer. Three or four persons are employed in stirring
up the several ingredients, till they are perfectly incor-
porated, and the juice of the cocoa-nut turns to oil;
and, at last, the whole mass is nearly of the consistency

of a hasty-pudding. Some of these puddings are excellent, and few that we make in England equal to them.

They substitute, instead of the bread-fruit, a kind of paste made of cocoa-nuts, bananas, and plantains, which they gather before the bread-fruit is perfectly ripe, and lay in heaps, covering it closely with leaves. It then ferments, after which the core is extracted, and the fruit put into a hole dug in the earth, which is lined with grafs. This is also covered with leaves, and pressed down with a weight of stones. This occasions a great fermentation; when the fruit becomes sour, it is then baked and eaten. It will keep a considerable time before it is baked, and afterwards. The paste so made, is called Maline. Different dishes are made of the bread-fruit itself.

Their method of killing such animals as are intended for food, is by suffocation; stopping the mouth and nose with their hands. This done, they singe off the hair, by holding the animal over a fire, and scraping him with a shell. They then cut him up with the same instrument, take out, wash the entrails, and put them into cocoa-nut shells, together with the blood. Such dogs as are designed for food, are fed wholly upon vegetables; and some of our countrymen who have tasted the flesh of that animal thus fed, have declared it to be little inferior to lamb.

In dressing their food, they observe the following process. First, the fire is kindled by rubbing one piece of dry wood upon the side of another. Then digging a pit about half a foot deep, and two or three yards in circumference, they pave the bottom with large pebble-stones, which they lay down very smooth and even, and kindle a fire in it with dry wood, leaves, and the huks of cocoa-nuts. They take out the embers when the stones are sufficiently heated, and, after raking up the ashes on every side, cover the stones with a layer of cocoa-nut leaves, and wrap up the animal that is to be dressed in the leaves of the plantain. If it is a large hog, they split it; but if a small one, they wrap it up whole. Having placed it in the pit, and covered it with hot embers, they lay upon them bread-fruit and yams, which are also wrapped in the leaves of the plantain. Over these they frequently spread the remainder of the embers, mixing among them some of the hot stones, with more cocoa-nuts among them, and then close up all with earth, so that the heat is kept in. The oven is kept thus closed a longer or shorter time, according to the size of the meat that is dressing.

The usual sauce to their food is salt-water: those who live near the sea, have it furnished as it is wanted; those at a distance keep it in large bamboos. The kernels of the cocoa-nut furnish them with another sauce, which, made into paste, something of the consistence of butter, are beaten up with salt water, that has a very strong flavour, and, at first, seems nauseous, but after being used some time, is much relished. Till visited by

the English, they were quite unacquainted with the method of boiling, having no vessels that will bear fire.

The females here are totally excluded from men's society whilst at their meals. Such indeed was their prejudice in favour of this custom, that they expressed their disgust even at their visitants eating in the society of women, and of the same food. And the women were so accustomed to this mode of separation, that the Europeans could never prevail with them to partake with them at their table when they were dining in company. When any of them has been occasionally alone with a woman, she has sometimes eaten; but not only expressed the greatest reluctance, but exerted the strongest promises of secrecy. Even brothers and sisters among them have their separate baskets of provisions, and separate apparatus for their meals. The women have their food separately prepared by boys for this purpose.

They usually eat under the shade of a spreading tree; their table-cloth is composed of broad canvas, spread in great abundance. If a person of rank, he is attended by a number of servants, who seat themselves round him. Before he begins his meal, he washes his mouth and hands very clean, and repeats this practice several times while he is eating. He peels off the rind of the bread-fruit with his fingers and nails. He never eats apples before they are pared, to do which, a small shell, of a kind that is to be picked up every where, is tossed to him by one of the attendants. Whilst he is eating, he frequently drinks a small quantity of salt-water, either out of a cocoa-nut shell which is placed by him, or out of the hand. If he eats fish, it is dressed and wrapped up in canvas; the fish being broken into a cocoa-nut of salt-water, he feeds himself by taking up a piece with the fingers of one hand, and bringing with it as much of the salt-water as he can retain in the hollow of his palm. When he dines on flesh, a piece of bamboo is tossed to him to serve as a knife; having split it transversely with his nail, it becomes fit for use, and with this he divides the flesh. He crams a great quantity into his mouth at a time, and ends his repast by sipping some bread-fruit pounded and mixed with water, till it is brought to the consistency of an unbaked custard. He then washes his mouth and hands; at the same time, the attendants close the cocoa-nut shells that have been used, and place every thing that is left in a kind of basket.

Such is their aversion to feeding themselves, that one of the chiefs, on a visit on board an European vessel, would have gone without his dinner, if one of the servants had not fed him. Some of the English had an opportunity of observing a singular instance of gluttony. Arriving, upon an excursion, at a neat house, they saw a very corpulent man, who seemed to be a chief of the district, lolling at his ease, while two servants were preparing his desert, by beating up with water some bread-fruit and bananas in a large wooden bowl, and mixing

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with than a quantity of fermented four paste; while this was doing, a woman who sat near him, crammed into his throat, by handfuls, the remains of a large baked fish and some bread-fruit, which he swallowed most voraciously. He had a heavy phlegmatic countenance, which seemed to indicate, that all his enjoyment centered in the gratification of his appetite, or, in other words, that he wished to live merely to gourmandize.

The people of Otaheite appear to have an aversion to strong liquors, their chief drink being water, or milk of the cocoa-nut. If any of them had drank too freely with the seamen, they ever after refused the liquor which had produced that effect. They have the intoxicating plant called *ava-ava*, but they use the liquor from it with great moderation. Sometimes they chew the root, and sometimes eat it wholly.

One of our people made particular inquiry concerning the nature of the perfume-root, with which the natives perfume their clothes and oils. An Indian, more communicative than the rest, pointed out to him several plants, which are sometimes used as substitutes; but he would not, or could not point out the real plants. According to the accounts received afterwards, there are no less than fourteen different plants used in the preparation of perfume, from which it appears, that these people were particularly fond of a compound of smells.

Diseases in general do not prevail so much in this island as in many others. The natives, however, are subject to leprous complaints, which appear in cutaneous eruptions. Some had ulcers in different parts of their bodies, but they were so little regarded, that no application was made to cure them. They are sometimes afflicted with cholics and coughs, and those who live luxuriously are liable to the attack of a disorder similar to the gout. It is affirmed by Monsieur de Bougainville's surgeon, that many had evident marks of the small-pox.

The crew of the French ship that visited this island a short time after Captain Wallis had left it, are said to have entailed the venereal disease upon the natives. Above half of Captain Cook's people, in 1769, had contracted it during a stay of three months. The natives distinguished it by a name implying rottenness, but of a more extensive signification. They described the sufferings which the first victims to its rage endured in the most moving terms; and assured our people, that it caused the hair and nails to rot off, and the flesh to rot from the bones; that it excited such dread and horror among the inhabitants, that, fearing infection, the afflicted were abandoned by their nearest relations, and suffered to perish in extreme misery. But they seem since to have found out a specific remedy for it, as none were seen labouring under the dreadful symptoms before mentioned upon future visits.

The management of the sick belongs to the priests, whose method of cure generally consists in pronouncing a set form of words, after which the leaves of the

cocoa-tree plant are applied to the fingers and toes of the sick; so that nature is left to conflict with the disease without the assistance of art. Without medical knowledge, they appear to possess considerable skill in surgery, which they displayed while the Dolphin lay in Port-Royal harbour. One of the crew, who, on shore, happened to run a large splinter into his foot, and the surgeon not being at hand, one of his comrades endeavoured to take it out with a pen-knife; but, after giving the man great pain, he was obliged to desist. An old native, of a friendly, social disposition, happening to be present, called a man of his country from the other side of the river, who, having examined the lacerated foot, fetched a shell from the beach, which he broke to a point with his teeth, and with this instrument laid open the wound, and extracted the splinter. While this operation was performing, the old man went a little way into a wood, and returned with some gum, which he applied to the wound with a piece of clean cloth that was wrapped round him, and in the space of two days it was perfectly healed. The surgeon of the ship procured some of this gum, which was produced by the apple tree, and used it as a vulnerary balsam with great success. Captain Cook saw many of the natives with dreadful scars, and amongst the rest, one man, whose face was almost entirely destroyed, his nose-bone included was quite flat, and one cheek and one eye were so beaten in, that the hollow would almost receive a man's fist, yet no ulcer remained.

Among the birds found on this island, are small paroquets, very remarkable on account of the mixture of blue and red on their feathers. There is another sort of a greenish colour, with a few red spots; these were frequently seen tame in the houses of the natives, who valued them for their red feathers. Here is a king-fisher, of a dark green, with a collar of the same hue round his white throat; a large cuckoo, and a blue heron. There are small birds of various kinds, which harbour in the shade of the bread-fruit, and other trees. Contrary to the commonly-received notion, that birds in warm climates are not remarkable for their song, these have a very agreeable note.

The domestic poultry here are cocks and hens, exactly like those in Europe. There are besides wild-ducks, also turtle-doves, and large pigeons, of a dark blue plumage, and excellent taste.

The only quadrupeds in the island are hogs, dogs, and rats. The natives are said to have a scrupulous regard for the latter, and that they will by no means kill them. But Captain Cook, in 1773, turned a number of cats on the island, from which, it is reasonable to suppose, the number of these favoured vermin must be reduced.

On comparing various accounts, it appears, that musquitos and flies infest the island; but this seems to be only at certain seasons, and in particular places. Here were found neither frogs, toads, scorpions, centipedes, or any kind of serpent. The

most troublesome insect was the ant, of which there were but few.

They have fish in great variety, and of excellent flavour. Their principal employment is to catch, and their principal luxury to eat, them.

They make ropes and lincs, and thereby provide themselves with fishing-nets, of the bark of a tree, which supplies the want of hemp: of the fibres of the cocconut they make thread, with which they fasten the different parts of their canvas, and subserve other purposes. Their fishing-lines are made from the bark of a nettle which grows on the mountains, and is called *crava*; they are capable of holding any kind of fish. Their hooks are made of mother-of-pearl, to which they fix a tuft of hair made to resemble a fish. Instead of being bearded, the point turns inwards. They have a kind of seine, made of a coarse broad grass, the blades of which are like flags. These they twist and tie together in a loose manner, till the neck, which is about as wide as a large sack, is from sixty to eighty fathoms long. This seine they haul in shoal, smooth water, and its own weight keeps it so close to the ground, that scarcely a single fish can escape. They have harpoons made of cane, and pointed with hard wood, with which they can strike fish more effectually than an European can with one loaded with iron. They have no method, however, of securing a fish when they have only pierced it with their harpoon, as the instrument is not fastened to a line. Pieces of coral are used as files to form mother-of-pearl and other hard shells into the shape required.

CHAP. XVI.

Language, Manufactures, Succession, Manner of embalming the Dead, Dances, Musical Instruments, Government, Customs, Human Sacrifices, and Manner of treating the Bodies of the Chiefs that fall in Battle at Otaheite.

WITH regard to the language of these islanders, we are not sufficiently acquainted with it to speak of its extent; however, by such specimens as have been seen, it appears to be rather expressive than copious; few words commonly producing few words amongst all the children of Adam; dialects of this language, however, are found to be used at most of the southern islands.

The principal manufacture of Otaheite is cloth; of this there are three sorts, all which are made out of the bark of different trees, namely, the mulberry, the bread-fruit, and a tree which bears some resemblance to the West-Indian wild fig-tree. The first of these produces the finest, which is seldom worn but by those of the first rank. The next sort is made of the bread-fruit tree; and the last, of that which resembles the wild fig-tree. But this last sort, though the coarsest,

is scarcer than either of the other two, which are manufactured only in small quantities, as the same manner is used in manufacturing all these cloths in general.

They soak the bark of the tree for two or three days in water; then take it out, and separate the inner from the external coat, by scraping it with a shell, after which it is spread out on plantain-leaves, placing two or three layers over one another, care being taken to make it of an equal thickness in every part. In this state it continues till it is almost dry, when it adheres so firmly, that it may be taken from the ground without breaking. After this process, it is laid on a smooth board, and beaten with an instrument made for the purpose, of the compact heavy wood called *Etoa*. The instrument is about fourteen inches long, and about seven in circumference; it is of a quadrangular shape, and each of the four sides is marked with longitudinal grooves or furrows, differing in this instance, that there is a regular gradation in the width and depth of the grooves on each of the sides; the coarser side not containing more than ten of these furrows, while the finest is furnished with above fifty. It is with that side of the mallet, where the grooves are deepest and widest, that they begin to beat their cloth, and, proceeding regularly, finish with that which has the greatest number. By this beating, the cloth is extended in a manner similar to the gold that is formed into leaves by the hammer; and it is also marked with small channels, resembling those which are visible on paper, but rather deeper; 't is in general beat very thin, but when they want it thicker than common, they take two or three pieces, and paste them together with a kind of glue, prepared from the root called *Pea*. This cloth becomes exceeding white by bleaching, and is dyed of a red, yellow, brown, or black colour; the first is exceeding beautiful, and equal, if not superior, to any in Europe. They make the red colour from the mixture of the juices of two vegetables, neither of which used separately has this effect.

The whole process of making cloth is performed by women, who are dressed in old dirty rags of this cloth, and have very hard hands. They prepare a red dye, which is made by mixing the yellow juice of a small species of fig, called by the natives *mattee*, with the greenish juice of a sort of fern, or of several plants which produce a bright crimson, and this the women rub with their hands if the whole piece is to be uniformly of the same colour; or they make use of a bamboo-reed, if it is to be marked or sprinkled with different patterns. This colour fades very soon, and becomes of a dirty red, besides being liable to be spoiled by rain, or other accidents. The cloth, however, which is dyed, or rather stained with it, is highly valued by the natives, and worn only by persons of rank among them. Their matting manufacture is also very considerable: it constitutes a great part of their employment, and may be said, in its produce, to excel any in Europe. The materials they work up for this purpose are rushes,

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grass, the bark of trees, and the leaves of a plant they call *wharraw*. The uses to which they apply their matting are various: on that of the canvas kind, they sleep in the night, and sit in the day. The fine sort they convert into upper garments in rainy weather, as their cloth is soon wetted through.

They are very dextrous at basket and wicker-work; both men and women are employed at it, and they make them of many different patterns.

A dramatic haiva, or play, consists of dancing, and a kind of comedy, or rather farce. The performers are of both sexes. The music on this occasion consists of drums only: it lasts about two hours, sometimes longer, and upon the whole is generally well conducted.

One of their dances is called *Timoredee*, which is performed by eight or ten young girls, and consists of loose attitudes and gestures, in which they are trained from their infancy. Their motions are so very regular, as scarcely to be excelled by the best performers upon any of the stages of Europe.

Their principal musical instruments are the flute and the drum. Their flutes have only two stops, and therefore sound no more than four notes by half-tones. They are sounded like our German-flute, only the performer, instead of applying it to the mouth, blows it with one nostril, stopping the other with his thumb. They are made of a hollow bamboo, about a foot long. To the stops they apply the fore-finger of the left-hand, and the middle-finger of the right. While these instruments are sounding, others sing and keep time to them. The drum is made of a hollow block of wood, of a cylindrical form, solid at one end, and covered at the other with a shark's skin. They are beaten with their hands instead of sticks. Their skill extends to turning of two drums of different notes into concord: they can likewise bring their flutes into unison. Their songs are generally extemporary, and in rhyme.

They have the exercise of throwing the lance, not at a mark, but for distance. The weapon is about nine feet long; the mark is the bowl of the plantain, and the distance about twenty yards.

The form of government in Otaheite, though rather unsettled, and in some degree apparently uncertain, bears a resemblance, in point of subordination, to the early state of all the nations in Europe when under the feudal system. The people are divided into four ranks or classes, viz. *Earee Rabie*, signifying king, or superior governor; *Earee*, answering to the title of baron; *Manabouni*, to that of vassal; and *Toutou*, to that of villain, according to the old law term amongst us. Under the latter is included the lowest order of the people.

The island is divided into what our countrymen termed the Greater and Lesser Peninsula, generally go-

verned by two independent kings: but Captain Cook, however, left Otoo in the situation of monarch of the whole island; yet there was a dependent prince of the smaller Peninsula. *Earierabie*, great king, or emperor, is their highest title. *Earie*, is applied to a petty king, or a considerable chief, though sometimes the monarch is content with that title.

As children in this country succeed to the title and authority of their fathers as soon as they are born, the sovereignty of the king of course ceases as soon as he has a son born. It is so likewise with the *Earee*, or baron, as the son succeeds to the titles and honours of his father as soon as he is born. He is indeed reduced to the rank of a private man, all marks of respect being transferred to the son. But here it is proper to observe, with respect to the former, that a regent is chosen, and the father generally retains his power under that title, till the son becomes of age; and as to the latter, that the estates remain in his possession, and under the management of the father, to the same period.

The subordination of the *Toutous*, or lower class, deserves attention. Though employed in feeding the animals for their luxurious chiefs, they are not suffered to taste a morsel of their food. They undergo, without daring to repine, the severest chastisements, if through the unavoidable means of a concourse, they press upon or incommode the king, or any chief, in his progress; and this subordination is preserved without any formal power vested in the king to enforce it. He does not appear to have any military force, either to awe his subjects into obedience, or suppress a species of rebellion. He has no body or life-guard; the barons who attend his person do not go armed; so that the distinction of rank that is maintained here, must be attributed to the placid and complacent disposition of the people in general.

Notwithstanding this distinction of rank, and its consequent subordination, the necessities of life are within the reach of every individual, at the expence of very moderate labour; and if the higher class possess exclusively some articles of luxury, as pork, fish, fowls, and cloth, there are no objects here so extremely destitute and wretched, as those which too often shock the humane beholder in more civilized states.

The conduct of these people does not appear to be under the restriction of any stated form of government. From divers causes, very few actions among them are deemed criminal. They have no idea of the use of money; though adultery is held criminal, yet as concubinage with unmarried women is exempt from that imputation, it takes off from the temptation to it. Besides, in a country where there is very little, or none at all of that delicacy prevalent in more enlightened or civilized parts of the world, a predilection for any one woman is not liable to be attended with any serious consequences.

Adultery,

Adultery, however, is sometimes punished with death from the hands of the injured party, when under the influence of a passion naturally excited by such a cause; though in general the women, if detected, only undergo a severe beating, and the gallant passes unnoticed.

The chief defect here, is trusting executive justice to the lawless bounds of the injured party, who inflicts punishment as judge and executioner on the delinquent at his own will, without any restriction. The chiefs, however, in acts of flagrant violation of justice and humanity, sometimes interpose.

A sort of livery distinguishes the servants of the higher class. They wear their sashes higher or lower in proportion to the rank of their masters. The servants of the chiefs are distinguished by the sash being fastened close under the arm; those of the inferior rank of nobility by its going round the loins. One circumstance which does honour to their system of government is, the obtaining immediate information of any design that is formed. As a proof of this it is observed, that one of the water casks being stolen from an European vessel in the night; the transaction next morning was universally known among the Indians, though, it was evident, the theft was committed in a distant part of the island. By the same means the Europeans were apprised of a similar intent the following night; so that in consequence of placing a centinel over the casks, the thief who came accordingly was disappointed of his booty.

Several parts of the island were private property, descending to the heir of the possessor at his death, and that descent appeared to fall indiscriminately to man or woman.

The number of the inhabitants of one district of the island was estimated at 2,400, women and children included.

Captain Cook, on a certain occasion, receiving information from Otoo the king, that the war canoes of several of his districts were about to undergo a general review, went in his boat to take a survey of it. Their war canoes, which are with stages whereon they fight, amount to about 60 in number; and there are nearly as many more of a smaller size. The captain was ready to have attended them to Oparree; but the chiefs resolved that they would not move till the next day. This happened to be a fortunate delay; as it afforded him an opportunity of getting some fight into their manner of fighting. He therefore desired Otoo to give orders, that some of them should go through the necessary manoeuvres. Two of them were accordingly ordered into the bay; in one of which were the king, Capt. Cook, and an officer, and one of the islanders went on board another.

As soon as they had got sufficient sea room, they faced and advanced, and retreated by turns as quick as their rowers could paddle. In the mean time, the warriors on the stages flourished their weapons, and played

a variety of antic tricks, which could answer no other purpose than that of rousing their passions, to prepare them for the onset. The king stood by the side of the stages, giving the necessary orders when to advance, and when to retreat. Great judgment and a quick eye seems to be necessary in this department, to seize every advantage, and to avoid every disadvantage. At length the two canoes closed stage to stage; and after a severe though short conflict, all the troops on Otoo's stage were supposed to be killed, and the opposite party boarded them; when instantly Otoo and the paddler in the canoe, leaped into the sea, as if reduced to the necessity of preserving their lives by swimming. But they sometimes lash the two vessels together head to head, and fight till all the warriors on one side or the other are killed; yet this close combat is never practised, except when the contending parties are determined to conquer or die. Indeed, in this instance, one or the other must infallibly happen; for they never give quarter unless it be to reserve their prisoners for a more cruel death the following day. All the power and strength of these islands lie in their navies.

A general encounter on land was never heard of; and all their decisive actions are on the water. When the time and place of battle are fixed by both parties, the preceding day and night are spent in feasting and diversions. When the day dawns, they launch the canoes, make every necessary preparation, and with the day begin the battle; the fate of which, in general, decides the dispute. The vanquished endeavour to save themselves by a precipitate flight; and those who reach the shore fly with their friends to the mountains; for the victors, before their fury abates, spare neither the aged, women, or children. They assemble the next day at the morai, to return thanks to the Eatooa for the victory, and offer there the slain and the prisoners as sacrifices. A treaty is then set on foot; and the conquerors obtain usually their own terms; whereby large districts of land, and even whole islands, sometimes change their proprietors and masters.

One of our most celebrated navigators acknowledged, that their naval armaments exceeded every idea he had formed of the power of this small island. The same remark was made of their dock yards, in which were large canoes, some lately built, and others building; two of which were the largest ever seen in that sea, or any where else under that name; and it must be confessed, that the power and consequence of the island never appeared to such advantage as when, upon another occasion, the fleet of war canoes was assembled. The amount of those collected was 159 of the largest, besides 70 smaller ones. The concourse of people was more surprising than the number of canoes; for, upon a moderate computation, they could not contain less than fifteen hundred warriors, and four thousand rowers or paddlers. Our countrymen were given to understand, that this formidable fleet was only the naval force of a single district, and that all the

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others could furnish a naval armament in proportion to their number and size. The officers were dressed in their war habits, which consisted of a great quantity of cloth, turbans, breast-plates, and helmets; some of the latter were of such a size as greatly to encumber the wearer. Their whole dress appeared rather calculated for show than use, and not adapted to the purpose designed. The vessels being decorated with flags, streamers, &c. made upon the whole a noble appearance.

Two kinds of canoes are here in use, one they call Ivahahs, the other Pahies; the former serve for short voyages at sea, and the latter for long ones. These boats do not differ either in shape or size, but they are in no degree proportionate, being from sixty to seventy feet in length, and not more than the thirtieth part in breadth. Some are employed in going from one island to another, and others used for fishing. There is also the Ivahah, which serves for war; these are by far the longest, and the head and stern are considerably above the body. These Ivahahs are fastened together side by side when they go to sea, at the distance of a few feet, by strong wooden poles, which are laid across them and joined to each side. A stage or platform is raised on the fore part, about ten or twelve feet long, upon which stand the fighting men, whose missile weapons are slings and spears. Beneath these stages the rowers sit, who supply the place of those who are wounded. The fighting Ivahahs are from thirty or forty to ten feet in length, and those for travelling have a small house fixed on board, which is fastened upon the fore part, for the better accommodation of persons of rank, who occupy them both day and night. The Pahies differ also in size, being from sixty to seventy feet long, they are also very narrow, and are sometimes used for fighting, but chiefly for long voyages. In going from one island to another they are out sometimes a month, and often at sea a fortnight or twenty days; and if they had convenience to stow more provisions, they could stay out much longer. These vessels are very useful in landing, and putting off from the shore in a surf, for by their great length and high stern they landed dry, when the English boats could scarcely land at all.

The chief parts or pieces of these vessels are formed separately without either saw, chisel, or any other iron tool, which renders their fabrication more surprising and worthy observation. These parts being prepared, the keel is fixed upon blocks, and the planks are supported with props, till they are sewed or joined together with strong plaited thongs, which are passed several times through holes bored with a chisel of bone, such as they commonly make use of, and when finished they are sufficiently tight without calking.

Their instruments of war are clubs, spears, and stones. They use their slings with great dexterity. They have likewise bows and arrows; but the arrows are of no other use than merely to bring down a bird, being headed only with a stone, and none of them

pointed. Their targets are of a semicircular form, made of wicker work and plaited strings of the cocoon fibres, covered with glossy bluish green feathers, and ornamented with sharke' teeth curiously displayed.

The tools which these people make use of for building houses, constructing canoes, hewing stones, and for cleaving, carving, and polishing timber, consist of nothing more than an adze of stone, and a chisel of bone, most commonly that of a man's arm; and for a file or polisher, they make use of a rasp of coral and coral sand. The blades of their adzes are extremely rough, but not very hard; they make them of various sizes, those for felling wood weigh six or seven pounds, and others which are used for carving, only a few ounces; they are obliged every minute to sharpen them on a stone, which is always kept near them for that purpose. The most difficult task they meet with in the use of these tools, is the felling of a tree, which employs a great number of hands for several days together. The tree which is in general use is called Aoi, the stem of which is straight and tall. Some of the smaller boats are made of the bread-fruit tree, which is wrought without much difficulty, being of a light spongy nature. Instead of planes they use their adzes with great dexterity. Their canoes are all shaped with the hand, the Indians not being acquainted with the method of warping a plank.

They are remarkable swimmers. It is related that on a part of the shore where a tremendously high surf broke, inasmuch that no European boat could live, and the best swimmer in Europe could not preserve himself from drowning, if by any accident he had been exposed to its fury, ten or eleven Indians were swimming here for their amusement. If a surf broke near them, they dived under it and rose again on the other side. They availed themselves greatly of the stern of an old canoe, which they took before them and swam out with it as far as the outermost beach, when two or three getting into it and turning the square end to the breaking wave, were driven towards the shore with incredible rapidity, sometimes almost to the beach; but generally the wave broke over them before they got half way, in which case they dived and rose on the other side with the canoe in their hands, and swimming out with it again, were again driven back. During this arduous effort, none of the swimmers attempted to come on shore, but seemed to enjoy the sport in the highest degree. A bead intended to have been dropped into a canoe, having accidentally fallen into the sea, a little boy about six years old jumped immediately overboard, and, diving after it, recovered his jewel. Our officers, to encourage the child, dropped more beads, which excited the desire of a number of both sexes of the natives to amuse the strangers with their feats in the water; they dived, and not only brought up several beads scattered at once, but likewise large nails, which from their weight descended quickly to a considerable depth. Swimming

seems to be familiar to both sexes from the earliest childhood, and the pliancy of their limbs and easy positions in the water were most amazing, and seemed to indicate that they were a kind of amphibious creatures.

Among many articles of traffic, feathers became of the highest value with the women, and of course objects which attracted their particular attention. They filed them *Ossa*, and they seem to have been prized equal to jewels in Europe.

The most attractive were those called *coravine*, which grow on the head of the green parroquet, and the natives soon became judges competent to distinguish the superior from the inferior sorts. Our people endeavoured to impose dyed feathers upon them for those of a genuine colour; but all their arts of deception were abortive. The rage for the possession of feathers became boundless, and they were the wages of the females favours in general; nor did even husbands seem to discountenance them in throwing out allurements to our countrymen to obtain possession of them. To such a degree of phrenzy did their desire for this article prevail, that a single little feather was preferred to a bead or a nail, and a very small piece of cloth closely covered with them was received with a rapture of delight equal to any that could be excited in the mind of an European on the presentation of a diamond of the first magnitude. Their warriors exchanged their very helmets for red feathers, and the sailors purchased targets innumerable with them.

Their curious and singular mourning dresses, which formerly had been prized so highly, were disposed of when feathers became the objects of barter. Captain Cook presented one of these mourning dresses to the British Museum.

The islanders also at this time discovered great inclination for baskets, clubs, and painted cloth, and were excessively taken with the mats of Tongataboo, though, in general, they resemble those of their own manufacture. Our people, however, availed themselves of this disposition, and imposed on them, under another name, the very mats they had formerly purchased at Otaheite, and they had more success in this deception, than in the imposition of dyed feathers.

The natives here live to an advanced age, without being much incommoded by infirmities, retain their intellectual powers, and preserve their teeth to the last. Mons. de Bougainville, the French navigator often referred to, describes an old man, who had no other trait of age than that venerable one which is imprinted on a fine figure. Silver locks and a white beard adorned his head. His body was nervous and his flesh solid. He had neither wrinkles or any other tokens of decrepitude. This man, however, so respectable in appearance, seemed averse to the society of strangers: he was totally regardless of their caresses, and gave no indications of fear, astonishment, or curiosity. Those objects that excited the rapture of the multitude had

no charms for him; he accounted them batibles: from which consideration it appeared that his mind was as found and unimpaired as his body.

The same navigator relates, that his people found upon this island five or six men of most singular appearance. Their skins were of a dead white like the nose of a white horse, scurfy, covered with a kind of down, and of a hue that could not admit of being termed complexion. The hair on their heads, eyebrows, and beards, were of the same dead white: they had eyes resembling those of a ferret, and were remarkably near sighted. They were, upon the whole, considered as being of no particular race of mankind, nor did they appear to propagate beings similar to themselves.

In this island marriages do not come under the cognizance or sanction of the priests, being merely secular contracts, abstracted from any solemn tie, or formal ceremony. But if the priests are deprived of the benefits that might result from marriages, if under the list of their functions, they are amply compensated by an exclusive right to perform the ceremony of tattooing, which being universally adopted must be very lucrative, and furnish them with all the luxuries of life. The males in general undergo a kind of circumcision, which they intimate as done from a principle of cleanliness: however, it is deemed a foul disgrace not to submit to it. The performance of this ceremony is likewise the exclusive right of the priests.

As to their religion, it is very mysterious; and as the language adapted to it was different from that which was spoken on other occasions, our voyagers were not able to gain much knowledge of it. All the information they could obtain in regard to this particular was, that the natives imagined every thing in the creation to proceed from the conjunction of two persons. One of these (which they consider as the first) they call *Taroaitheetoomo*, and the other *Tapapa*; and the year which they call *Tettowmatatayo*, they suppose to be the daughter of these two. They also imagine an inferior sort of deities, known by the name of *Eatooas*, two of whom, they say, formerly inhabited the earth, and they suppose that the first man and woman descended from them. The Supreme Being they style, "The Cauler of Earthquakes;" but more frequently address their prayers to *Tane*, whom they conceive to be a son of the first progenitors of nature. They believe in the existence of the soul in a separate state, and suppose that there are two situations differing in the degrees of happiness, which they consider as receptacles for different ranks, but not as places of rewards and punishments. Their notion is, that the chiefs and principal people will have the preference to those of lower ranks; for as to their actions they cannot conceive them to influence their future state, as they believe the deity takes no cognizance of them.

As Mons. Bougainville had firmly asserted, on the testimony of a native, whom he took with him to

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France, that human sacrifices constitute a part of the religious ceremonies of the people of Otaheite; therefore, Captain Cook, desirous of having further information concerning so interesting a matter, went to a morai, or place of worship (which we shall describe in course) accompanied by captain Furneaux of the Adventure, having with them a seaman who spoke the language tolerably well, and several of the natives. Observing in the morai a kind of bier with a shed erected over it, on which lay a corpse and some provisions, inquiry was made if the plantains were for the Eatooa or Divinity, and if they sacrificed to him hogs, dogs, fowls, &c. To all this a native replied in the affirmative. On inquiry being made whether they sacrificed men to the Eatooa, the answer was *taato eno*, "bad man," first *tiparthy*, beating them till they were dead. When the question was put, If good men were put to death in this manner? the reply was in the negative. Being asked whether Towtows, that is, men of the lowest class, were ever thus sacrificed, if good men? a native replied in the negative, repeating the words *taato eno*, or bad men. It appeared, from what could be gathered upon this occasion, that men, for certain crimes, were condemned to be sacrificed to the Deity, provided they did not possess any property to purchase their redemption.

The following is a circumstantial account of the sacrifice at which Captain Cook was present. Having asked permission to be a spectator, which was readily granted, he repaired to Attahooroo, where the ceremony was to be performed. Being arrived there with many others, Otoo desired that the sailors might be ordered to continue in the boat; and that the persons present would take off their hats as soon as they should come to the morai. To this they immediately proceeded, followed by numbers of men and some boys; but not one woman was present. They found four priests with their assistants waiting for them, and on their arrival the ceremonies commenced. The dead body or sacrifice was in a small canoe that lay on the beach fronting the morai. Two of the priests, with several of their attendants, were sitting by the canoe that lay on the beach; the others at the morai. The company stopped at the distance of 20 or 30 paces from the priests. Here Otoo placed himself; the European visitors and a few others standing by him, while the bulk of the people were removed to a greater distance. The ceremonies now commenced. One of the assistants of the priests brought a young plantain tree, and laid it down before the king. Another approached, bearing a small tuft of red feathers, twitted on some fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, with which he touched one of Otoo's feet, and afterwards retired with it to his companions. One of the priests who were seated at the morai then began a long prayer, and at particular times sent down young plantain trees, which were placed upon the sacrifice. During this prayer, one of the natives who stood by the officiating priest, held in his hands two bundles, in one of which, as was afterwards found, was the royal

maro; and the other, if it may be allowed the expression, the ark of the Eatooa. The prayer being finished, the priests at the morai, with their assistants, went and sat down by those who were upon the beach, carrying the two bundles with them. They here renewed their prayers; during which the plantain-trees were taken, one by one, at various times, from off the dead body, which, being wrapped up in cocoa-leaves and small branches, was now taken out of the canoe and laid upon the beach. The priests placed themselves round it, some standing, and others sitting; and one or more of them repeated sentences for about ten minutes. The body was now stripped of the leaves and branches, and placed parallel with the sea-shore. Then one of the priests standing at the feet of the corpse, pronounced a long prayer, in which he was joined occasionally by others, each of them holding a tuft of red feathers in his hand. While this prayer was repeating, some hair was pulled off the head of the intended sacrifice, and the left eye was taken out; both which being wrapped in a green leaf, were presented to the king, who, however, did not touch them, but gave to the man who brought them to him the tuft of red feathers which he had received from Towha who was related to the king and chief of the district of Tettaha. This, with the eye and hair, were taken to the priests. Not long after this the king sent them another bunch of feathers.

In the course of this last ceremony, a king-fisher making a noise, Omai said to Captain Cook, "That is the Eatooa;" and he seemed to consider it as a favourable prognostic. The corpse was then carried a little way, and laid under a tree, near which were fixed three thin pieces of wood neatly carved in various figures. The bundles of cloth were placed on a part of the morai; and the tufts of red feathers were laid at the feet of the dead body, round which the priests stationed themselves; and our people were at this time permitted to go as near as they pleased. He who seemed to be the chief priest spoke for about a quarter of an hour, with different tones and gestures; sometimes appearing to expostulate with the deceased, at other times asking several questions; then making various demands, as if the dead body had power himself, or interest with the deity, to engage him to grant such request; among which, he desired him particularly to deliver Eimeo, Maheine its chief, the women, hogs, and other things of the island into their hands; which was, indeed, the express object of the sacrifice. He then prayed near half an hour, in a whining tone, and two other priests joined in the prayer, in the course of which one of them plucked some more hair from the head of the corpse, and put it upon one of the bundles. The high priest now prayed alone, holding in his hand the feathers received from Towha. Having finished, he gave them to another priest, who prayed in like manner; then all the tufts of feathers were placed upon the bundles of cloth, which concluded

the ceremony at this place. The dead body was now carried to the most conspicuous part of the morai, with the feathers, and the two bundles of cloth, while the drums beat slowly. The feathers and bundles were laid against a pile of stones, and the body at the foot of them. The priests having again seated themselves round the corpse, renewed their prayers, while some of their assistants dug a hole about the depth of two feet, into which they threw the victim, and covered it over with stones and earth. While they were depositing the body in the grave, a boy squeaked aloud, upon which Omai told the captain, it was the Eatooa. In the mean time, a fire having been made, a lean dog, half starved, was produced, and killed by twisting the neck. The hair was then singed off, and the entrails being taken out, they were thrown into the fire, and left there to be consumed; but the kidney, heart, and liver, were baked on heated stones. The carcase, after having been rubbed over with the blood of the animal, was, with the liver, &c. laid down before the priests, who were seated round the grave praying. They, for some time, uttered ejaculations over the dog, while two men, at intervals, beat very loud on two drums; and a boy screamed in a loud shrill voice three times. This, they said, was to invite the Eatooa to feast on the banquet, that they had prepared for him. When the priests had finished their prayers, the body, heart, liver, &c. of the dog, were placed on a whatta, or scaffold, about six feet in height, on which lay the remains of two other dogs, and of two pigs, that had been lately sacrificed. The priests and their attendants now gave a shout, and this proclaimed the ceremonies ended for the present.

As it grew towards evening, the English were conducted to a house belonging to Patatou, where they were entertained and lodged for the night. Having been informed, that the religious rites were to be renewed the next day, they could not quit the place while any thing remained to be seen.

Early in the morning they repaired to the scene of action; and soon afterwards a pig was sacrificed, and laid upon the same scaffold with the others. About eight o'clock Otoo took our party to the morai, where the priest and a great multitude of people were by this time assembled. The two bundles occupied the place where they had been deposited the preceding evening; the two drums were in the front of the morai, and the priests were stationed beyond them. The king placed himself between the drums, and desired Captain Cook to stand by him. The ceremony commenced with bringing a young plantain tree, and laying it at the king's feet. A prayer was then repeated by the priests, holding in their hands several tufts of red, and a plume of ostrich feathers; which the commodore had presented to Otoo on his first arrival.

When the priests had ended the prayer, they changed their station, and placed themselves between our party and the morai. One of them, the same who had performed the principal part the preceding day,

began another prayer, which continued near half an hour. During the prayer, the tufts of red feathers were put, one by one, upon the ark of the Eatooa. Not long after, four pigs were produced, one of which was killed immediately, and the three others were taken to a neighbouring sty.

The maro with which the natives invest their kings, was contained in one of the bundles. When taken out of the cloth, it was spread on the ground at full length before the priests. It is a girdle about fifteen feet in length, and one foot and a quarter in breadth, and is probably put on in the same manner as the common maro, or piece of cloth, used by these islanders to wrap round the waist. It was ornamented with yellow and red feathers; but principally with the former. One end of it was bordered with eight pieces, about the size and figure of a horse-shoe, whose edges were fringed with black feathers; the other end was forked, having the points of various lengths. The feathers were ranged in two rows, in square compartments, and produced a pleasing effect. They had been first fixed upon some of the cloth of the island, and then sewed to the upper part of the pendant, which Captain Wallis had left flying on shore, the first time of his arrival at Matavai. The priests pronounced a long prayer, relative to this part of the ceremony; and after it was ended, the badge of royalty was folded up with great care, and put into the cloth. The other bundle, already mentioned under the name of the ark, was next opened at one end; but our party were not permitted to approach near enough to examine its mysterious contents. The intelligence they obtained respecting its contents was, that the Eatooa (or rather, what is supposed to represent him) was concealed therein.

The twisted fibres of the husk of the cocoa-nut compose the sacred repository, and its figure is nearly circular, with one end considerably thicker than the other. The pig that had been killed, was by this time cleaned, and its entrails taken out. These happened to have many of those convulsive motions which frequently appear, in different parts, when an animal is killed; and this was considered as a very favourable omen. After having been exposed for some time, the entrails were carried and laid down before the priests, one of whom closely inspected them, turning them for this purpose gently with a stick. Having been sufficiently examined, they were thrown into the fire. The sacrificed pig, and its liver, heart, &c. were now put upon the scaffold where the dog had been deposited; and then all the feathers, except the ostrich-plume, being enclosed in the ark, an end was put to the whole solemnity.

Four double canoes remained upon the beach all the time, before the place of sacrifice. A small platform, covered with palm leaves, fastened in mysterious knots, was fixed on the fore-part of each of those canoes; and this also is called a morai. Some plantains, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, fish, and other articles, lay upon each

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each of these naval morais. The natives said, that they belonged to the Eatooa, and that they were to attend the fleet sent out against Eumaio.

The unfortunate victim offered on this occasion was, to appearance, a middle-aged man, and one of the lowest class of the people; but it did not appear that they had fixed upon him on account of his having committed any particular crime that deserved death. It is certain, however, that they usually select such guilty persons for sacrifices, or else vagabonds, who have no visible way of procuring an honest livelihood. Having examined the body of the unhappy sufferer, now offered up as the object of these people's adoration, our party observed, that it was bloody about the head, and much bruised upon the right temple, which denoted the manner in which he had been killed; and they were informed, that he had been knocked on the head with a stone. The wretches who are devoted on these occasions, are never previously apprised of their fate. Whenever any one of the principal chiefs conceives a human sacrifice necessary, on any great emergency, he fixes upon the victim, and then dispatches some of his trusty servants, who fall upon him suddenly, and either stone him to death, or beat out his brains with a club. The king is then acquainted with it, whose presence is said to be absolutely necessary at the solemn rites that follow; and, indeed, in the late performance, Otoo bore a capital part. The solemnity itself is called Poore Eree, or the prayer of the chief: and the victim is termed Taata-taboo, or consecrated man. The morai, where the late sacrifice was offered, is always appropriated for the burial of the king of the whole island, and likewise of his family, and some other persons of distinguished rank. It differs little, except in extent, from the common morais. Its principal part is a large oblong pile of stones, about thirteen feet in height, and contracted towards the top, with a quadrangular area on each side, loosely paved with pebbles, under which the bones of the chiefs are deposited. Towards the end nearest the sea, is the place of sacrifice, where is a very large whatta, or scaffold, on which the offerings of fruits and other vegetables are placed; but the animals are laid on a smaller one, and the human sacrifices are interred under the pavement. There are several reliques scattered about this place; such as small stones raised in several parts of the pavement; some with bits of cloth fastened round them, others entirely covered with it; and upon the side of the large pile fronting the area, are a great number of pieces of carved wood, in which their gods are supposed to reside occasionally.

There is an heap of stones at one end of the large scaffold, with a sort of platform on one side. On this are deposited all the skulls of the human sacrifices, which are taken up after they have remained under ground for some months. Just above them many of the carved pieces of wood are placed; and here the Maro, and the other bundle, supposed to contain the god Ooro, were laid during the celebration of the late solemn rites.

This barbarous custom of offering human sacrifices most probably prevails in all or most of the islands of the Pacific Ocean, however distant from each other some of them may be. And though it may be supposed, that not more than one person is offered at one time, either at Otaheite, or other islands, yet these occasions, in all probability, occur so frequently, as to make a terrible havoc of the human species; for no less than forty-nine skulls of former victims, were counted lying before the morai at Attahooroo; and as none of those skulls appeared to have suffered any considerable change or decay from the weather, it may be inferred, that only a short time had elapsed since the victims to whom they belonged had been offered.

Yet this horrible solemnity appeared not to impress any awe for their deity, such as they supposed him, nor any veneration for religion, upon the minds of the spectators; as this was far from being the case on the late occasion; for though a vast multitude had assembled at the morai, they shewed very little reverence for what was transacting; and Omai happening to arrive after the ceremonies had begun, many of the islanders thronged round him, and were engaged for the remaining part of the time in making him recount some of his adventures; to which they listened with great eagerness of attention, regardless of the solemn offices which their priests were then performing. Indeed, the priests themselves, except the one who sustained the principal part, either from their being familiarized to such objects, or from their reposing no great degree of confidence in the efficacy of their religious institutions, maintained very little of that solemnity, so necessary to give, even to acts of real devotion, their proper effect.

Their habit was but an ordinary one; they conversed together with great familiarity; and the only attempt they made to preserve decorum, was by exerting their authority, to prevent the populace from encroaching on the spot, and to suffer our party, as strangers, to come forward. They were, however, very candid in the answers which they gave to any interrogatories that were put to them, with regard to this inhuman institution. Being asked, what was the design of it? they replied, that it was an ancient custom, and highly pleasing to their god, who came and fed upon the sacrifices; in consequence of which, he granted their petitions. It was then objected, that he certainly did not feed on these, as he was neither seen to do it, nor were the bodies of the sacrificed animals soon consumed; and that as to the corpse of a human victim, they prevented his feeding on that by interring it. In answer to these objections, they observed, that he came in the night, invisibly, and fed only on the soul, or immaterial part, which (as these people say) remains about the place of sacrifice, till the carcase of the victim is wholly waited by putrefaction.

Besides this, among other savage customs, they adopt that of cutting out the jaw-bones of their enemies slain

in battle, which they carry about with them as trophies; and they, in some measure, offer up their bodies to the Eatooa: for after an engagement, in which they have come off victorious, they collect all the dead, and bring them to the morai, where, with great form and ceremony, they dig a large hole, and bury them all in it, as so many offerings to their divinities. But they treat in a different manner their own chiefs that fall in battle. A late king, Tootaha, Tubourai Tamaide, and another chief, who were slain in an engagement with those of Tiaraboo, were brought to the morai at Attahooroo; at which place the priests cut out their bowels before the great altar; and their dead bodies were afterwards interred in three different places near the great pile of stones above mentioned; and the common men who lost their lives in the battle, were all buried in one hole, at the foot of the same pile. This was performed the day after the battle, with much pomp and formality, amidst a numerous concourse of people, as a thanksgiving offered to the deity, for the victory they had obtained the preceding day. The vanquished, in the mean time, had taken refuge in the mountains, where they remained upwards of a week, till the fury of the victors began to abate. A treaty was then set on foot, by which it was agreed, that Otoo should be proclaimed king of the whole island; and the solemnity of investing him with the maro, or badge of royalty, was performed at the same morai, with great magnificence.

As the natives call their places of interment Morais, so likewise they do their places of worship. They approach these morais with awe and reverence; not, as it should seem, because they esteem any thing there sacred, but because they there worship an invisible being, for whom they entertain the profoundest respect, although not excited by the hope of reward, or the dread of punishment. They hold these cemeteries, or places of worship, so venerable, that the chiefs themselves, and their wives, on passing them, take their upper garments from their shoulders. The manner in which they bury their dead, and express their sorrow for the loss of relatives and friends departed, is thus described by the latest and most intelligent observers.

The corpse was placed in the open air, till the bones became quite dry. A shed was erected near the residence of the deceased; one end was left quite open; the other end and the two sides were partly enclosed with a sort of wicker-work. The bier was a frame of wood, like that on which the seamen's beds, called cots, are placed, with a matted bottom, and supported by four posts, at the height of above four feet from the ground. The body was covered first with a mat, and then with white cloth. By the side of it lay a wooden mace, one of the implements of war, and near the head of it cocoa-nut shells; at the other end a bunch of green leaves with some dried twigs, all tied together, were stuck in the ground, by which lay a stone as big as a cocoa-nut. Near these lay one of

the young plantain leaves that are used for emblems of peace, and close by it a stone axe. At the open end of the shed also hung a great number of palm nuts, in several strings; and without the shed was stuck up in the ground a stem of a plantain tree, about six feet high, upon the top of which was placed a cocoa-nut shell full of fresh water: against the side of one of these pots hung a small bag containing some bread-fruit ready roasted. The food thus placed by the corpse was designed as an offering to their deities.

Round about the spot where the body is placed they strew small pieces of cloth, on which the tears and blood of the mourners have been shed; for in their paroxysms of grief, it is an universal custom to wound themselves with a shark's tooth.

The mourning that is worn here is a head-dress of feathers, the colour of which is consecrated to death, and a veil over the face. The dress is called *Eeva*. The whole country is said to appear thus on the death of their king. The mourning for fathers is very long. The women mourn for their husbands; but not the husbands for their wives.

The island producing no commodities that can be converted to the purpose of foreign traffic, the main benefit that can accrue from a knowledge of it is the supplying of ships with refreshments in passing through the South-Seas: and certainly it might be rendered competently subservient to that desirable purpose, as such European productions, both animal and vegetable, as are conducive to the same, might be abundantly cultivated in so favourable a climate which must alike benefit the voyagers and the inhabitants of Otaheite.

CHAP. XVII.

SOCIETY-ISLANDS.

Situation, Number, and Extent. Their Soil and Productions. Various Incidents. Omai settled at Huahine. Ship's Departure.

THE SOCIETY-ISLANDS, so called in honour of the Royal-Society, form a group of six in number, called Huahine, Ulietea, Bolabola, Otaha, Tubai, and Morona. They are situate between 16 deg. 10 min. north, and 16 deg. 55 min. south latitude, and between 150 deg. 57 min. and 152 deg. of west longitude; and were discovered by Captain Cook, in the year 1769.

After the commander left Otaheite, in the Endeavour, having Tupia on board, he came in sight of Huahine, lying in latitude 160 deg. 43 min. south, and 150 deg. 52 min. west longitude. It is divided into two peninsulas connected by an isthmus, which however is overflowed at high water. The appearance of the country is somewhat like that of Otaheite; but it seems to have suffered some shocks from volcanoes.

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Though several canoes made up towards the Endeavour, as she approached, yet none of the Indians would come along-side, till they received encouragement from Tupia, in whom they placed so much confidence, and who so far removed their fear, that the king and queen came on board. Almost every thing these people saw in the vessel, excited their astonishment; but it was remarked, that they made no inquiries after any other objects, than such as immediately presented themselves to their view, appearing to be entirely satisfied with what was shewn them, though they might reasonably have supposed that a building of such utility and extent as the ship, must have afforded many curiosities. The ceremony of exchanging names, generally considered as a mark of friendship in these islands, passed between the king, whose name was Oree, and Captain Cook.

Anchoring in a small but fine harbour, Captain Cook went on shore, accompanied by Mr. Banks and some other gentlemen, with Tupia and the king. Various ceremonies then passed between the king and our people, which were considered as a kind of ratification of a treaty between the English and the king of Huahine.

The level part of this island is very fertile, and abounds with bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees; and its productions are more forward than those at Otaheite. The mountains here, and in the Society-Islands in general, continually attract the vapours from the atmosphere, and many rivulets descend from the broken rocks into the plain, so that they are supplied with plenty of water.

The islanders take great pains with the cultivation of their cloth-tree, having drains made through beds of earth to draw off the water, and the sides neatly built up with stones; and in the drains they plant the *arum*, which yields the yam they call *tatoo*.

When the commander left this island, he presented the king with a small plate of pewter, on which was inscribed, "His Britannic Majesty's ship Endeavour, Lieutenant Cook, Commander, 16th July 1769."

Many of the younger men of the natives, during the stay of the ship at this island, voluntarily offered to take their passage with the commander for England. From the whole he singled out one, called by some, Oedidee, by others, Mahine. This youth was a native of Bolabola, and a near relation of O-Poony, the king of that island, and conqueror of several adjacent ones. He is described as possessing mental and personal accomplishments, which endeared him to the people in general on board the ship.

Arriving in 62 degrees south latitude, Mahine expressed his surprise at several little snow and hail showers on the preceding days, such phenomena being utterly unknown in his country. The appearance of white stones, which melted in his hand, was altogether miraculous in his eyes; and though pains were taken to explain to him that cold was the cause of their for-

mation, his ideas on that subject did not seem to be very clear. A very heavy fall of snow surprised him more than ever; and after long consideration of its singular qualities, he said he would call it white rain when he got back to his own country. In fine, it was with difficulty he was persuaded to believe that snow and ice were only fresh water, till he was shewn some congealed in a cask on the deck. He still, however, declared that he would call this 'the white land,' by way of distinguishing it from all the rest.

He had collected a number of little slender twigs, which he carefully tied in a bundle, and made use of instead of a journal: for every island he had seen and visited after his departure from the Society-Islands, he had selected a little twig, so that his collection, by this time, amounted to about nine or ten, of which he remembered the names perfectly well, in the same order as he had seen them; and the white land, or *whennua teatea*, was the last. He inquired frequently how many other countries they should meet with in their way to England, and formed a separate bundle of them, which he studied with equal care.

Having crossed the antarctic circle, where the sun scarce sunk below the horizon, Mahine was struck with the greatest astonishment at this appearance, and could scarcely believe his senses; all the endeavours used to explain it to him miscarried, and he assured the gentlemen, that he despaired of finding belief among his countrymen, when he should go back to recount the wonders of congealed rain, and of perpetual day.

The approach of winter led Captain Cook once more to seek the refreshments of milder climes, and therefore determining on a visit to these islands, he made Otaheite in his passage, where Mahine met with several of his relations, and married the daughter of a chief of the district of Matavia. The ceremony performed on this occasion was not observed by any of the ship's company, who could convey any kind of idea of it: only a petty officer, who was present, reported, that a number of ceremonies were performed which were extremely curious, but could not relate any one of them, so that this interesting particular, respecting the manners of these people, remains entirely unknown. Mahine embarked with Captain Cook, leaving, as supposed, his new-married wife behind him.

He would willingly have proceeded for England, had he had the least hopes given him of ever returning to his native home; but, as Captain Cook could not promise, or even suppose, that more English ships would be sent to these islands, Mahine chose to remain in his native country; but he left the ship with regret, fully demonstrative of the esteem he bore to the English.

The greatest anguish appeared in this young man's breast when he went away. He looked up at the ship, burst into tears, and then sunk down into the canoe. Just as he was going out of the ship, he made a request

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to Captain Cook, with which he complied, and then gave him a certificate of the time he had been on board, and recommended him to the notice of those who might touch there after him.

When Captain Cook visited this island on his second voyage with the Resolution and Adventure under his command, the former anchored in twenty-four fathoms water, but the latter got on shore on the north side of the channel, though she was happily got off again without receiving any damage. The natives received our people with the utmost cordiality.

Captain Cook was informed that Oree was still alive, and waited to see him. The commanders, with others, went to the place appointed for the interview. The chief had carefully preserved the piece of pewter, with an inscription on it, which Captain Cook had presented him with in 1769, together with a piece of counterfeit English coin, which, with a few beads, were all in the same bag the captain made for them; these the chief sent on board. This part of the ceremony being over, our party were desired by their guide to decorate three young plantain trees with nails, looking-glasses, beads, medals, &c. With these in their hands they landed, and were conducted through the multitude. They were directed to sit down a few paces before the chief, and the plantains were laid one by one before him. They were told that one was for the Deity, another for the king, and a third for friendship. This being done, the king came to Captain Cook, fell on his neck, and kissed him. A great effusion of tears fell down the venerable cheeks of this old man, which appeared such as spoke the language of the heart. Presents were made to all his attendants and friends. Captain Cook regarded him as a father, and therefore presented him with the most valuable articles he had.

Going on shore after breakfast, the commander heard that one of the inhabitants had been very insolent and troublesome. The man was shewn to him, equipped in his war habit, with a club in each hand. The captain took these from him, as he perceived him bent on mischief, broke them before his face, and obliged him to retire. Being informed that this man was a chief, he became a little suspicious of him, and sent for a guard. About this time a gentleman had gone out to collect plants alone; two men assaulted him, and stripped him of every thing but his trowers; luckily they did him no harm, though they struck him several times with his own hanger. They made off when they had done this, and another of the natives brought a piece of cloth to cover him. This gentleman presently appeared at the trading-place, where a number of the natives were assembled, who fled at seeing him. Captain Cook persuaded some of them to return, assuring them that none should suffer who were innocent. When the king heard this complaint, he and his companions wept bitterly; and as soon as his grief was alluaged, he made a long harangue to the

people that had returned, telling them the baseness of such actions, when the captain and his crew had always behaved so well to them. He then took a very particular account of all the things the gentleman had lost, and pronounced they should be returned, if it was in his power to find them. After this, he desired Captain Cook to follow him to the boat, but the people being apprehensive of his safety, used every argument to dissuade him from it. It is impossible to describe the grief they expressed in the entreaties they used; every face was bedewed with tears, and every mouth was filled with the most dissuasive arguments. Oree was deaf to them all, and insisted on going with the captain; when they both were in the boat, he desired it might be put off. The only person who did not oppose his going, was his sister, and she shewed a magnanimity of spirit equal to her brother.

Peace was now perfectly re-established, provisions poured in from all quarters, the gentleman's coat and hanger were returned, and thus ended these troublesome transactions.

The Captains Cook and Furneaux went to pay their farewell to Oree, and presented him with things both valuable and useful. They also left him a copper-plate with this inscription, "Anchored here his Britannic Majesty's ships Resolution and Adventure, September 1773." Having traded for such things as were wanted, they took their leave, which was very affectionate. On returning to the ships, they were crowded, with canoes filled with hogs, fowls, &c. Soon after they were on board, the king came and informed them that the robbers were taken, and desired them to go on shore in order to behold their exemplary punishment. This they would have done, but were prevented by the Adventure's being out of the harbour, and the Resolution under sail. Oree staid with them till they were near two miles out at sea, and then, after taking another affectionate leave, parted. During their short stay at the small but fertile island of Huabeine, they procured upwards of 300 hogs, besides fowls and fruit in great abundance.

The Resolution and Discovery, on Captain Cook's third voyage, anchored on the 12th of October 1777, at the northern entrance of Owhere harbour, situated on the west side of this island. Omai, in his canoe, entered the harbour just before them, but did not land; and though many of his countrymen crowded to see him, he did not take much notice of them. Great numbers also came off to the ships, insomuch that they were greatly incommoded by them.

The next morning, all the principal people of the island repaired to the European ships, agreeable to the wishes of the commodore, as it was now time to settle Omai, and he supposed that the presence of these chiefs would enable him to effect it in a satisfactory manner. But Omai now seemed inclined to establish himself at Ulitea; and if he and Captain Cook could have agreed with respect to the mode of accomplishing that

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design, the latter would have consented to adopt it. His father had been deprived by the inhabitants of Bolabola, when they subdued Ulitea, of some land in that island; and the captain hoped he should be able to get it restored to the son without difficulty. For this purpose, it was necessary that Omai should be upon friendly terms with those who had become masters of the island; but he would not listen to any such proposal, and imagined that the captain would make use of force to reinstate him in his forfeited lands.

This prepossession preventing his being fixed at Ulitea, the captain began to consider Huaheine as the more proper place, and therefore determined to avail himself of the presence of the chief men of that island, and propose the affair to them.

The ships were no less crowded with hogs, than with chiefs, the former being poured in faster than the butchers and salters could dispatch them. Indeed, for several days after arrival, some hundreds, great and small, were brought on board; and, if any were refused, they were thrown into the boats and left behind.

The captain prepared to make a visit in form to Tairetareea, the Earee rahie, or then reigning king of the island. Omai, who was to accompany him, dressed himself very properly on the occasion, and provided a handsome present for the chief himself, and another for his Eatooa. Their landing drew most of the visitors from the ships, so that the concourse of people became very great.

When the king appeared, his presence might have been dispensed with, as his age did not exceed ten years. Omai, who stood at a little distance from the circle of great men, began with making his offerings to the gods, which consisted of cloth, red feathers, &c. Another offering succeeded, which was to be given to the gods by the young chief; and after that, several other tufts of red feathers were presented. The different articles were laid before the priest, being each of them delivered with a kind of prayer, which was spoken by one of Omai's friends, though in a great measure dictated by himself. In these prayers he did not forget his friends in England, nor those who had conducted him safe back to his native country. The Earee rahie of Pretanne (king of Great-Britain), the Earl of Sandwich, Toote (Captain Cook), Tatee (Captain Clerke), were mentioned in every one of them. These offerings and prayers being ended, the priest took each of the articles in order, and, after repeating a concluding prayer, sent every one of them to the morai.

After the performance of these religious rites, Omai seated himself by the captain, who bestowed a present on the young prince, and received another in return. Some arrangements were then agreed upon, relative to the mode of carrying on the intercourse between our people and the natives. The establishment of Omai was then proposed to this assembly of chiefs. They

were informed, that the English had conveyed him into their country, where he was well received by the great king of Pretanne, and his Earees; and had been treated, during his whole stay, with all the marks of regard and affection; that he had been brought back again, enriched with a variety of articles, which, it was hoped, would be highly beneficial to his countrymen; and that, besides the two horses which were to continue with him, many other new and useful animals had been left at Otaheite, which would speedily multiply, and furnish a sufficient number for the use of all the neighbouring islands. They were then given to understand, it was the commodore's earnest request, that they would give his friend Omai, a piece of land, upon which he might build a house, and raise provisions for himself and family; adding, that if he could not obtain this at Huaheine, either by donation or purchase, he was resolved to carry him to Ulitea, and settle him there.

This conclusion seemed most to gain the approbation of all the chiefs; and the reason was obvious. Omai had flattered himself, that the captain would use force in restoring him to his father's possessions in Ulitea; and he had vaunted himself on this subject among some chiefs, at this meeting, who now expected that they should be assisted by our people in an invasion of Ulitea, and driving the Bolabolans out of that island.

But as it was proper that they should be undeceived in this particular, the captain, with this view, signified to them, in the most decisive manner, that he would neither give them any assistance in such an enterprize, nor even suffer it to be put in execution, while he remained in their seas; and that, if Omai established himself in Ulitea, he should be introduced as a friend, and not forced upon the people of Bolabola as their conqueror. This declaration gave a new turn to the sentiments of the council; one of whom expressed himself to this effect: that the whole island of Huaheine, and whatever it contained, were Captain Cook's, and therefore he might dispose of what portion he pleased to his friend: but, though Omai seemed much pleased at hearing this, he desired them to mark out the spot, and likewise the exact quantity of land, which they intended to grant for the settlement. Upon this, some chiefs, who had retired from the assembly, were sent for, and after a short consultation the commodore's request was unanimously complied with, and the ground immediately fixed upon, adjoining to the house where the present meeting was held. It extended along the shore of the harbour near two hundred yards; its depth, to the bottom of the hill, was somewhat more; and a proportionate part of the hill was comprehended in the grant.

Captain Cook rode with Omai on horseback, to give him an air of consequence, followed by the natives, who, attracted by the novelty of the sight, flocked from the most remote parts of the island to be spectators.

The affair being settled between the commodore and the chief, the carpenters and calkers were ordered on shore to erect a house for Omai, wherein he might secure the various European commodities that he had in his possession: at the same time others of our people were employed in making a garden for his use, planting vines, shaddocks, melons, pine-apples, and the seeds of various kinds of vegetables; all which were in a flourishing state before their departure from the island.

Omai began now to pay a serious attention to his own affairs, and heartily repented of his ill-judged prodigality at Otaheite. He was now the only rich man in the kingdom; and master of an accumulated quantity of a species of treasure, which his countrymen could not create by any art or industry of their own. It was natural, therefore, to imagine, that while all were desirous of sharing this envied wealth, all would be ready to join in attempts to strip its sole proprietor. As the most likely means of preventing this, Captain Cook advised him to distribute some of his moveables among two or three of the principal chiefs; who, on being thus gratified, might be induced to favour him with their patronage, and shield him from the injuries of others. Omai promised to follow this advice, and before our people sailed, this prudent step was taken. The captain, however, not confiding wholly in the operations of gratitude, had recourse to the more forcible and effectual motive of intimidation, taking every opportunity of notifying to the inhabitants that it was his intention to make another visit to their island, after having been absent the usual time; and that if he did not find his friend in the same state of security in which he should leave him at present, all those who had been his enemies might expect to become the objects of his resentment.

The intercourse of trade and friendly offices between the English and the inhabitants of Huaheine was interrupted; for, in the evening, one of them found means to get into Mr. Bayley's observatory, and carry off a sextant unobserved. Captain Cook was no sooner informed of this theft, than he went ashore, and desired Omai to apply to the chiefs to procure restitution. He accordingly made application to them, but they took no steps towards recovering the instrument, being more attentive to a beeva that was then exhibiting, till the captain ordered the performers to desist. Being now convinced he was in earnest, they began to make some inquiry after the delinquent, who was sitting in the midst of them, with such marks of unconcern, that the captain was in great doubt of his being guilty, particularly as he denied it. Omai assuring him this was the person, he was sent on board the *Resolution*, and put in irons. This raised a great disturbance among the islanders, and the whole body fled with precipitation. The prisoner being examined by Omai, was with some difficulty brought to confess where he had concealed the sextant, and it was brought back unhurt the

next morning. After this, the natives recovered from their consternation, and began to gather about the English as usual.

As the thief appeared to be a shameless villain, the commodore punished him with greater severity than he had ever done any former culprit; for, besides having his head and beard shaved, he ordered both his ears to be cut off, and his eye-brows to be flayed, than which no punishment could have subjected him to greater disgrace. In this bleeding condition he was sent on shore, and exposed as a spectacle to intimidate the people from meddling with what was not their own. The natives looked with horror upon the man, and it was easy to perceive that this act gave them general disgust: even Omai was affected, though he endeavoured to justify it, by telling his friends, that if such a crime had been committed in the country where he had been, the thief would have been sentenced to lose his life. But, how well soever he might carry off the matter, he dreaded the consequences to himself, which, in part, appeared a few days afterwards.

A report being spread that one of our goats had been stolen by the before-mentioned thief; and though, upon examination, every thing was found safe in that quarter, yet it appeared that he had destroyed and carried off from the grounds of Omai several vines and cabbage plants; that he had publicly threatened to put him to death, and to set fire to his house as soon as his European friends should quit this place. To prevent his doing any further mischief, the captain ordered him to be seized, and confined again on board the ship, with a view of carrying him off the island; and this intention seemed to give general satisfaction to all the chiefs. He was a native of Bolabola; but there were too many of the people here ready to cooperate with him in all his designs.

Their Earee rahie was but a child; and it was not observed that there was an individual; or any set of men, who held the reins of government for him; so that whenever any misunderstanding occurred between the English and the natives, they never knew properly to whom it was necessary to apply, in order to effect an accommodation, or procure redress. Early in the morning, five days after his imprisonment, the Bolabola-man found means to escape from his confinement, and out of the ship, carrying with him the shackle of the bilboe-bolt that had been put about his leg, which was taken from him as soon as he arrived on shore, by one of the chiefs, and given to Omai, who went with all expedition on board the ship, to inform the captain, that his mortal enemy was again let loose upon him.

Indeed our people were pleased at hearing that the delinquent who escaped had gone over to Ulitea; but it was thought by some he only intended to conceal himself till their departure, when he would revenge the supposed indignity by open or secret attacks upon

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Omai, whose house being nearly finished, many of his moveables were carried on shore. Among other articles was a box of toys, which greatly pleased the gazing multitude; but as to his plates, dishes, drinking mugs, glasses, &c. scarce one of his countrymen would even look at them. Omai himself began to think, that they would be of no service to him; that a baked hog was more savory than a boiled one; that a plantain leaf made as good a dish or plate as pewter; that a cocoa-nut shell was as convenient a goblet as one of our mugs. He therefore disposed of most of those articles of English furniture among the crew of the ships; and received from them in return, hatchets, and other implements, which had a more intrinsic value in this part of the world. Among the numerous presents bestowed upon him in England, fireworks had not been omitted; some of which were now exhibited, before a great number of people, who beheld them with a mixture of pleasure and fear. Those that remained were put in order, and left with Omai, on the island.

Preparations were now made for departure from Huahine, and every thing taken off from the shore except a goat big with kid, a horse and a mare, which were left in the possession of Omai, who was now to be finally separated from his English friends. They gave him also a boar and two sows, of the English breed; and he had two sows of his own. The horse had covered the mare at Otaheite; so that the introduction of a breed of horses into these islands has probably succeeded by this valuable present.

Omai's European weapons consisted of a fowling-piece, two pair of pistols, several swords, cutlasses, a musket, bayonet, and a cartouch box. After he had got on shore whatever belonged to him, he frequently invited the two captains, and most of the officers of both ships, to dine with him; on which occasions his table was plentifully spread with the best provisions that the island could afford. He went through the fatigues of the day better than could have been expected from the dependancy that appeared in his countenance, when first the company began to assemble. Perhaps his awkward situation, between half Indian and half European preparations, might contribute not a little to embarrass him; for having never before made an entertainment himself, though he had been a partaker at many, both in England and in the islands, he was yet at a loss to conduct himself properly to so many guests, all of them superior to himself in point of rank, though he might be said to be superior, in point of fortune, to most of the chiefs at his table.

Nothing, however, was wanting to impress the inhabitants with an opinion of his consequence. The drums, trumpets, bagpipes, hautboys, flutes, violins, in short, the whole band of music attended, and took by turns to play while dinner was getting ready; and when the company were seated, the whole band joined in full concert, to the admiration of crowds of

the inhabitants, who were assembled round the house on this occasion.

The dinner consisted, as usual, of the various productions of the island, barbecued hogs, fowls dressed, some after the manner of the country, and some after the English fashion, with plenty of wine and other liquors, with which two or three of the chiefs made very free. When the dinner was over, heivas and fireworks succeeded; and when night approached, the multitudes that attended as spectators, dispersed without the least disorder.

Before they set sail, the commodore caused the following inscription to be cut in the front of Omai's house:

Georgius tertius, Rex, 2 Novembris, 1777.

*Navis { Resolutiun, Jac. Cook, Pr.
Discovery, Car. Clerke, Pr.*

Having thus executed his main design, he took advantage of an easterly breeze, and sailed out of Owharre harbour. Our people had procured more than 400 hogs on this island.

It was agreed upon, that immediately after the departure of the ships, Omai should erect a spacious house, after the fashion of his own country; and the chiefs of the island promised to contribute their assistance. Many of the natives continued on board till the vessels were under sail; when the captain, to gratify their curiosity, ordered five of the great guns to be fired. They then all departed except Omai, who remained till the ships went out to sea.

He then went on shore in a boat, and took a very affectionate and final leave of the captain, never to see him more. On this occasion he gave him his last instructions how to act, directing him to send his boat to Ulitea, to acquaint him with the behaviour of the chiefs in the absence of the ships, which he was to signify by particular and private tokens. He had endeavoured to prevail on Captain Cook to let him return to England, which made his parting with him and our officers the more affecting. If tears could have prevailed on the commander to let him return, Omai's eyes were never dry; and if the tenderest supplications of a dutiful son to an obdurate father could have made any impressions, Omai hung round his neck in all the seeming agony of a child trying to melt the heart of a reluctant parent. He twined his arms round him with the ardour of inviolable friendship, till Captain Cook, unable any longer to contain himself, broke from and retired to his cabin, to indulge that natural sympathy which he could not resist, leaving Omai to dry up his tears, and compose himself on the quarter deck.

Having then bid farewell, he was accompanied by Lieutenant King in the boat, who informed Captain Cook he had wept all the time he was going on shore. It was hoped that he would exert his endeavours to bring to perfection the various fruits and vegetables that were planted by his English friends. Indeed the principal

principal advantage these islands are likely to receive from the travels of Omai, will probably arise from the animals that have been left upon them; which, perhaps, they never would have obtained, if he had not come over to England. When these multiply, Otaheite, and the Society-Isles, will equal any places in the known world, with respect to provisions. Omai's return, and the substantial proofs he had displayed of British liberality, encouraged many to offer themselves as volunteers on an expedition to England.

ULIETEÀ, which we come next to treat of, is about 20 leagues in circumference. When Captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and others went on shore, accompanied by Tupia, they were received by the natives in the most courteous manner; reports concerning them having been transmitted from Otaheite. After some ceremonies had passed, Captain Cook took possession of this and the adjacent islands, in the name of the king of Great-Britain.

The country has extensive plains and high hills, the soil on the top of which was found to be a kind of stone marle. On the sides were some scattered flints, and a few pieces of a spongy stone *lava*, of a whitish colour, which seemed to contain some remains of iron; it was conjectured that great quantities of that metal might be lodged in the mountainous parts of the island. Its vegetable productions are chiefly plantains, coconuts, and yams: those of the animal kind, hogs and fowls; but the latter articles do not abound.

There is great similarity in person, manners, and customs between the natives of this and the islands adjacent. Ulietea, however, was distinguished from the rest, by a remarkable morai, which the natives called Tapodelotea. The walls which were about eight feet, were raised of coral stones, some extremely large. The whole enclosed an area, of about 25 yards square, which was filled up with smaller stones. Upon an altar, at a small distance from this enclosure, was deposited as a sacrifice, a hog, very nicely washed, weighing about fourscore pounds.

Several structures dedicated to the deities were placed about here. These structures are a kind of chest or ark, the lid of which is fixed on with art, and neatly thatched with palm-nut leaves. Each of them was fixed on two poles, the use of which seemed to be to remove it from place to place.

On the first arrival of Captain Cook here, he received a present of considerable value from Opooney, the king of Bolabola, who was then at the island of Otaha. In return for the compliment, the commander, principal officers, &c. determined to pay him a visit; when, behold, to their astonishment, this triumphant conqueror appeared to be nothing more than a man, tottering with the decrepitude of age, incapable of the common functions of life, and in a word a mere lumpish mass.

Three extraordinary persons were seen at this island; two of them were as brother and sister: the former measured six feet four inches, and the sister younger than him five feet ten inches and an half. The third was a chief named Herca, a native of Bolabola. He was the most corpulent man in any of the South-Sea islands. He measured round the waist no less than 54 inches; one of his thighs was 31 inches and 3-quarters in girth. His hair was likewise remarkable; for it hung down in long black wavy tresses to the small of his back, and in such quantities, that it increased the apparent bulk of his head considerably.

When Captain Cook anchored here, on his second voyage, he was visited by Oreo, the chief, who brought with him a handsome present. A party of them went on shore to make him a return, and as they entered the house, were met by five old women, who were lamenting on some incident, and had cut their faces in a shocking manner. This was not the worst part of the story, for they were obliged to submit to their embraces, and got themselves covered with blood. After the ceremony was over, they washed themselves, and appeared as cheerful as any other person.

Soon after, intelligence was received, that two of the Discovery's people, a midshipman and a gunner's mate, had made their escape in a canoe, and landed on an adjoining island, with a view to continue their course to Otaheite, as soon as they had furnished themselves with provisions for the voyage. They were no sooner missed, and report made to Captain Cook, than he ordered all the boats to be manned, and a pursuit to commence with all possible expedition; at the same time confining the king, his two sons, and two of the principal chiefs of the island, on board the Discovery, till the fugitives should be taken and restored.

This he did, no doubt, to interest the people of the island in the pursuit, and to prevent their assisting the deserters in making their escape. He also promised a reward of large axes, looking-glasses, and other articles of considerable value, to any of the natives, who should be instrumental in apprehending and bringing them back. To enforce his orders he caused all the vessels to be seized, and threatened destruction to the country if his men should be withheld. He even menaced the king and the young princes with death, if they were not brought back within a certain time. This might seem hard usage, yet it had its effect; as without this steady resolute proceeding, the deserters would never have been recovered.

The ship's boats went day after day to all the adjoining islands, without being able to learn the least trace of them; and this they continued, till having searched every island within the distance of two days' sail, they were at length obliged to give over any further search as fruitless.

At length, after fourteen days absence, some Indians came on board, and acquainted Captain Cook that the fugitives were found, and that in a few days they

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they would be brought back; desiring, at the same time, the release of the prisoners, as a condition without which they would again be set at large. But Captain Cook paid no regard to this information. On the contrary, he renewed his threatenings, which he said he would instantly order to be carried into execution, if the men were not delivered up.

The very day following, about five in the evening, a number of canoes were seen at a distance, making towards the ships, and as they approached nearer they were heard to sing and rejoice as if they had succeeded in finding what they went in search of. About six they came so nigh, that they could discern, with glasses, the deserters fastened together. They were no sooner brought on board, than the royal prisoners were released, to the unspeakable joy of all but the two fugitives, who were under great apprehensions for their lives; their punishment, however, was not so severe as might have been expected.

When Captain Cook, on his third voyage, entered the harbour of Ulietea, in the Resolution, having the Discovery, Captain Clerke, under his command, the natives surrounded the ships in their canoes, for the purpose of exchanging their commodities for those of our people.

A few days after their arrival, a centinel on shore, named John Harrison, deserted, taking with him his musket and accoutrements. As soon as intelligence was gained which way he was gone, a party was detached in search of him; but they returned in the evening without success. The next day the captain applied to the chief concerning this affair, who promised to send a party of the islanders after the fugitive, and gave hopes that he should be brought back in the course of that day. This, however, did not happen; and there was reason to imagine, that Oreo the chief had taken no steps to find him.

A considerable number of the natives were at this time about the ships, and several thefts committed, the consequences of which being apprehended by them, very few came on board the next morning. Oreo himself caught the alarm, and fled with his whole family. Captain Cook considered this as a good opportunity to insist upon their delivering up the deserter; and having heard he was at a place called Hamoa, situate on the other side of the island, he repaired thither with two armed boats, attended by a native. In their way, they met with the chief, who embarked with them. The captain, with a few of his men, landing about a mile from the spot, marched up to it with great expedition, lest the sight of the boats should give the alarm, and allow the offender sufficient time to escape to the mountains. This precaution was found unnecessary; for the natives of that part of the island having obtained information of the captain's approach, were prepared to deliver the deserter. He was found with

his musket lying before him, seated between two women, who, the instant that the captain entered the house, rose up to plead in his vindication.

As such proceedings deserved to be discouraged, the captain, with a stern look, bid them be gone; upon which they burst into tears, and retired. Paha, the chief of the district, now came with a sucking pig, and a plantain-tree, which he was on the point of presenting to Captain Cook, as a peace-offering, who rejected it; and having ordered the chief to quit his presence, embarked with the deserter in one of the boats, and returned to the ships. After this, harmony was speedily restored. The delinquent made no other excuse for his conduct, than that the natives had enticed him away; which, perhaps, was in a great measure true, as Paha, and the two women above mentioned, had been at the ship the day before his desertion. As he had remained on his post till within a few minutes of the time in which he was to have been relieved by another, the punishment he received was not very severe.

About a fortnight after they arrived at Ulietea, Omal, according to instruction given him by Captain Cook, dispatched two of his people in a canoe, with intelligence, that he continued undisturbed at Huaheine, and that every thing succeeded with him, except that his goat had died in kidding. This information was accompanied with a request, that the captain would send him another, and also two axes. Pleased with this additional opportunity of serving him, the captain sent back the messengers to Huaheine, with the two axes, and a male and female kid to his friend.

The circumstance attending the desertion of these people, and particularly the confinement of the chiefs, induced the natives to meditate an attempt for their relief, which had it not been prevented, might have involved our people in still greater distress. Captain Cook being on shore, abreast of the ship, observed all their canoes, in and about the harbour, began to move off. He inquired, in vain, for the cause of this; till information was received from the Discovery, that a body of the islanders had seized Captain Clerke and Lieutenant Gore, as they were walking at a small distance from the ships.

The commodore, struck with the boldness of this scheme of retaliation, which seemed to counteract him in his own way, instantly commanded his people to arm; and in a few minutes, a strong party, under the conduct of Mr. King, was sent to the rescue of the two gentlemen. At the same time, two armed boats were dispatched to intercept the flying canoes in their retreat to the shore. These detachments had scarcely gone out of sight, when intelligence arrived, which proved the information erroneous, so that they were immediately, in consequence of this, called in. However, it appeared from several corroborating particulars, that the natives had actually formed the design of seizing Captain Clerke; and the following day it became no secret.

But the principal part, at first, of the plan of their operations was, to have secured the person of Captain Cook. He was accustomed to bathe every morning in the fresh water; on which occasions he frequently went alone, unarmed. Expecting him to go this evening, as usual, they had resolved upon seizing him, and Captain Clerke likewise, if he had accompanied him. But the commander, after confining the chief's family, had taken care not to put himself in their power; and had cautioned Captain Clerke and the officers not to go any considerable distance from the ships.

In the course of the afternoon, Oreo asked the commodore, three or four times, if he would not go to the bathing place; till at length finding that he could not be prevailed upon, he retired, with his people, notwithstanding many entreaties to the contrary. Having no suspicion at this time of their design, Captain Cook imagined that a sudden panic had seized them, which would be soon over. Being disappointed with respect to him, they fixed upon those whom they thought more in their power.

It was a fortunate circumstance that they did not succeed in their design, and that no mischief was done on the occasion; no muskets being fired except two or three to stop the canoes; to which firing, perhaps, Captain Clerke and Mr. Gore owed their safety; but Mr. King ascribed this to the captain's walking with a pistol in his hand, which, he says, he once fired; at which time a party of the islanders, armed with clubs, were marching towards them, but dispersed on hearing the report of the muskets. This conspiracy was first discovered by a girl, who had been brought from Huahine by one of our officers. Happening to overhear some of the Uliteans say, they would seize Captain Clerke and Mr. Gore, she immediately ran to acquaint the first of our people that she met with of the design. Those who had been trusted with the execution of the plan threatened to put her to death, as soon as the ships should quit Ulitea, for disappointing them. Being aware of this, it was so contrived, that the girl's friends should come a day or two afterwards, and take her out of the ship, to convey her to a place where she might remain concealed till an opportunity should offer for her escaping to Huahine.

This island of Ulitea differs essentially from the rest of the Society-Islands in one particular instance, which is, that the women have more liberty here, and are not restrained from eating in company with the men.

BOLABOLA is situated about four leagues distant from Otaha; surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, and several small islands, in compass together about eight leagues, and made up of one forked peak, with seven low islands round it.

The harbour of Bolabola, called Oteevanooa, on the west side of the island, is very capacious, and though

our countrymen did not enter it, they had the satisfaction of being informed, by persons employed for that purpose, that it was a very proper place for the reception of ships. There are many islets or small islands that surround it, which add to the number of its inhabitants, and the amount of its vegetable productions.

The principal reason that induced Captain Cook to touch at this island on his voyage was, to procure one of the anchors which had been lost at Otahite by Monsieur de Bougainville, which, he was informed, had been afterwards found by the natives there, and sent by them to Opoony, the chief of Bolabola. It was not on account of the want of anchors that he was anxious to get possession of it; but the people having parted with all the hatchets and other iron tools and implements, in purchasing refreshments, they were now obliged to create a fresh assortment of trading articles, by making them out of the spare iron they could find on board, and even the greatest part of that had been already expended. Captain Cook, therefore, supposed Monsieur de Bougainville's anchor would, in a great measure, supply the want of that useful material, and he did not entertain a doubt but Opoony might be induced to part with it.

Oreo, accompanied by six or eight others from Ulitea, attended the commodore to Bolabola; and, indeed, most of the natives, except the chief, would gladly have taken their passage to England.

On his landing, the commodore was introduced to Opoony, surrounded by a vast concourse of people. The necessary formality of compliments being over, he requested the chief to give him the anchor; and by way of inducement produced the present he intended for him. It consisted of a linen night-gown, some gauze handkerchiefs, a shirt, a looking-glass, some beads and toys, and six axes. Opoony, however, refused to accept the present till the commodore had received the anchor; and ordered three persons to go and deliver it to him, with directions to receive from him what he thought proper in return. With these messengers persons deputed set out in boats for a neighbouring island, where the anchor had been deposited; but it was neither so large or so perfect as was expected. By the mark that was upon it, it appeared to have originally weighed 700 pounds; but it now wanted the two palms, the ring, and part of the shank. The reason of Opoony's refusing Captain Cook's present was now apparent; he, doubtless, supposed that the anchor, in its then state, was so much inferior to its former value, that, when he saw it he would be displeased. The commodore, notwithstanding, took the anchor as he found it, and sent the whole of the present which he at first intended.

It might at first seem surprising that Bolabola should become so responsible. The reason will be seen by the following short narrative.

Ulitea and Otaha had long been friendly; or, as the natives emphatically express it, they were considered

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On the 10th of October, the Captain Cook to procure one of the islands at Otaheite by Monsieur de Bougainville, and sent by them.

It was not on account that he was anxious to have parted with his arms and implements, in order to be now obliged to give articles, by making which he could find on board, had been already exhausted, supposed Monsieur de Bougainville to take a great measure, supposed that he did not think he induced to part

with eight others from the island of Bolabola; and, in respect to the chief, would have returned to England.

On the 11th of October, a French vessel was introduced to the assistance of the people, the vessels being overboard, and by the assistance of the present he intended to have a night-gown, some looking-glasses, some powder, and Opoony, however, refused the commodore had received three persons to go and attend to receive from him the vessel. With these men in boats from a neighbouring island had been deposited; the vessel appeared as was expected, and it now wanted the vessel to the shank. The reason for the present was supposed that the anchor, inferior to its former one, would be displeased, and took the anchor as was the present which he

thought that Bolabola should be seen by the

island friendly; or, as they were considered

as two brothers, whose views and interests were the same. The island of Huaheine was also admitted as a friend, but not in so eminent a degree. Like a traitor, Otaheite leagued with Bolabola, jointly to attack Ulietea, whose people required the assistance of their friends in Huaheine against these united powers. The inhabitants of Bolabola were encouraged by a pretended prophetess, who predicted their success. The canoes of Bolabola attacked those of Ulietea and Huaheine: the encounter lasted long, they being lashed strongly together with ropes; and, notwithstanding the prediction, the Bolabola fleet would have been vanquished, had not that of Otaheite arrived at the critical moment. The fortune of the day was now turned; victory declared in favour of the Bolabolans; and their enemies were totally defeated. Two days after the conquerors invaded Huaheine, which they subdued, it being weakly defended, as most of its warriors were then absent. Many of its fugitives, however, having got to Otaheite, there related their melancholy tale. This so affected those of their own country, and of Ulietea, whom they found in that island, that they obtained their assistance. They were furnished with only ten fighting canoes; with which inconsiderable force they effected a landing at Huaheine in the night; and, taking the Bolabola men by surprize, killed many of them, and dispersed the rest. Thus were they again, by one bold effort, possessed of their own island, which at this day remains independent, and is governed by its own chiefs. When the combined fleets of Ulietea and Huaheine were defeated, the men of Bolabola were applied to by their new allies of Otaheite to be allowed an equal share of the conquests. This being refused, the alliance broke; and, during the subsequent war, Otaheite was conquered as well as Ulietea, both of which remain subject to Bolabola; the chiefs by whom they are governed being only deputies to Opoony the king of the island. In the reduction of the two islands five battles were fought at different places, and great numbers fell in the contest.

Since the conquest of Ulietea and Otaheite, the Bolabola men are considered as invincible; and their fame is so far extended, that, even at Otaheite, it is not dreaded, they are respected for their valour. If it is asserted, they never fly from an enemy, and that they are victorious against an equal number of the other islanders. Indeed, the estimation in which the people of Bolabola are held at Otaheite may be gathered from M. de Bougainville's anchor having been sent to their sovereign. The intention of transporting the Spanish bull to their island must be ascribed to the same cause. They also had a third European curiosity brought to Otaheite by the Spaniards. This animal had been so imperfectly described by the natives, that our voyagers had been much puzzled to conjecture what it could be. When Captain Clerke's deserters, however, were brought back from Bolabola, they said the animal had been shewn to them, and that it was a ram. In consequence of this intelligence, Captain Cook, when he landed to

meet Opoony, took an ewe with him in the boat, of the Cape of Good-Hope breed, whereby a foundation might be laid for a breed of sheep at Bolabola. He also left with Otaheite, at Ulietea, two goats, and an English boar and sow; so that the race of hogs will be considerably improved, in a few years, not only at Otaheite, but also at all the neighbouring islands; and they will, perhaps, be stocked with many valuable European animals. When this is really the case, these islands will be unrivalled in abundance and variety of refreshments for the supply of future navigators. Even in their present state they are hardly to be excelled. When the inhabitants are not disturbed by intestine broils, which had been the case for several years past, their productions are numerous and plentiful.

The following is the mode of salting pork, used by Captain Cook in his voyages.

In the evening the hogs were killed, and, when cleaned, were cut up, after which the bones were taken out. The meat was salted while hot, and laid in such a manner as to permit the juices to drain from it, till the next morning: it was then salted again, put into a cask, and covered with pickle. It remained in this situation four or five days, when it was taken out, and carefully examined; and if any of it appeared to be in the least tainted, which sometimes happened, it was separated from the rest, which was repacked, headed up, and filled with good pickle. It was again examined in about eight or ten days time, but there appeared no necessity for it, as it was generally found to be all thoroughly cured. Bay and white salt mixed together answers the best, though either of them will do alone. Great care was taken that none of the large blood-vessels remained in the meat; and that not too much should be packed together at the first salting, lest those pieces which are in the middle should heat, and hinder the salt from penetrating them. In tropical climates, meat ought not to be salted in many and sultry weather.

OTAHAE bears a strong resemblance to those islands adjacent. It is not populous. The harbour on the east side was found safe and convenient, with good anchorage. This island is situated within about two miles of Ulietea; but as both are enclosed in one reef of coral rocks, there is no passage for shipping between them.

Like the inhabitants of every part of this spot, they received our countrymen who landed from the boat on their coast with all tokens of courtesy, and used the same honorary compliments to them as they did to their kings, to Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander.

The island of TUBAI produces nothing but coconuts, and is said to be inhabited only by three families. But as the coast abounds with fish, the shore is frequently visited by the people of the adjacent islands.

MOROUA,

MOROUA, or MAWRUA, is a small island surrounded by a reef of rocks, and has no harbour for shipping. It has some few inhabitants, and produces the same articles with those adjacent. In the midst of it is an high round hill, which may be seen at the distance of ten leagues, for which only it is remarkable.

THE people of the Society-Islands are in general stout and well made, and many of them tall. They are not of so dark a complexion as those of Otaheite, and the women are in general as handsome, and nearly of the same colour as Europeans.

They are exceeding indolent, and have very little curiosity. Dogs, in spite of their stupidity, are in great favour with all the women. Here was seen a middle aged woman, whose breasts were full of milk, offering them to a little puppy that had been trained up to suck them: the sight disgusted those who saw it to such a degree that they could not forbear expressing their dislike of it; but the woman only smiled at them, and said, that she suffered little pigs to do the same: it appeared afterwards that this woman had lost her child.

The veneration of the inhabitants for certain kinds of birds is evident from the following circumstance. On a shooting party our people happened to kill several king-fishers; and just as they had brought down one of those birds, they met Oreo and his family walking with Captain Cook; the chief just then took no notice of the bird, but his fair daughter lamented the death of her Eatoo; her mother, and most of the women, seemed also grieved at its fate; and on stepping into the boat, Oreo himself desired them, with a very serious air, not to kill the king-fishers and the herons, allowing them, at the same time, the liberty of killing any other sorts of birds. It is to be remembered that Omai, at the sacrifice, called the king-fisher an *Eatoo*; so that bird appears to be thought sacred.

Great quantities of the root called *ava ava* are cultivated in these islands, with which the natives make their intoxicating liquor. This is no other than the pepper plant. It seems, however, that drunkenness here is punished, like all other excesses, with diseases; the old men who make a practice of hard-drinking are lean, and covered with a scaly or scabby skin, have red eyes, and red blotches on all parts of their bodies: they acknowledge these evils to arise from intemperance, and perhaps those leprous disorders that some were seen to be afflicted with at Otaheite are produced by taking large potions of this liquor.

Their entertainments of a public nature consist of dancing, and a kind of dramatic exhibition; which dramatic exhibitions, as well as festive entertainments, from their singularity, are worthy of attention.

A party of our people were present at Ulitea, where a performance was exhibited, called by the natives *Middij Murramy*; which signifies, "the child is coming." It concluded with a representation of a woman

in labour, acted by a set of great brawny fellows, one of whom seemed to bring forth a great strapping boy about six feet high, who ran about the stage, dragging after him a large whisp of straw, which hung by a string from his middle. Captain Cook observed, that the moment they got hold of the fellow, they flattened or pressed his nose, from whence he concludes, that their new born infants are so treated, which accounts for the natives in general having flat noses.

The only actress at Oreo's theatre was his daughter Poyadua, a pretty brown girl, at whose shrine many offerings were made by her numerous votaries on these occasions.

Another dramatic exhibition was presented to our people at Huahine: the piece represented a girl running away from her parents, and seemed to be levelled at a female passenger whom they had brought from Otaheite, who happened to be present at the representation. It had such an impression upon the girl, that she could scarcely be persuaded to see the piece out, or to refrain from tears while acting. It concluded with the reception she was supposed to meet with from her friends at her return, which was made out to be unfavourable. Thus it appears that these people introduce extempore pieces on occasion, and it is most probable, that this was meant as a satire upon the girl, and to discourage others from acting in the same manner.

Oreo likewise gave a public dinner to the Captains Cook and Furneaux, several of the officers of both ships, and the passengers. On this occasion a great part of the spacious house was spread with large quantities of leaves, which served for a table cloth, round which the visitants seated themselves, together with the principal people of the island. Soon after, one of the servants, or tow-tows, brought a hog smoking on his shoulders, which was roasted whole, and wrapped in a large bundle of plantain leaves; this he threw upon the floor, round which the company was seated. Another smaller hog was carried in the same manner, and both so hot as hardly to be touched: the table, or rather floor, was garnished about with hot bread-fruit and plantains, with a quantity of cocoa-nuts for drink. Each man being ready with his knife in his hand, the hogs were presently cut to pieces, and the European part of the company agreed, that they tasted better than an English barbecue: the equal degree of heat with which it steeps under ground, had preserved and concentrated all its juices; the fat was not luscious and surfeiting, and the skin, instead of being very hard, which is the case of roasted pork with us, was as tender as any other part. One of these hogs weighed between 50 and 60 pounds, and the other about half as much, yet all the parts were equally done. The chief, his son, and some others of his male friends, partook of this repast with their guests: the men ate with great liking; but all the women were stationed behind, and were not admitted as sharers in the feast.

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have burial places erected while they are yet alive, which doubtless occasioned Oreo's inquiring of Captain Cook (when he could not obtain his promise to return in departing from Ulitea in his second voyage) the name of his morai, or burying-place. Hence it appears that these people could not give a greater proof of their affection to their English friends, than in expressing a desire to remember them even beyond the period of their lives.

The religion of the inhabitants of the Society-Islands appeared to consist in having a diversity of gods peculiar to each island. But they believe, in general, every man to have a separate being within himself, named *Tee*, which acts in consequence of the impression of the senses, and combines ideas into thoughts, which they call *parou no te oboo*, which literally signifies "words in the belly." This mind they suppose to have an existence after the dissolution of the body, and that the man in that state feasts on bread-fruit and pork, which need no preparation from the fire.

Besides their greater divinities, they have a number of inferior ones, some of whom they suppose to be inimical to mankind. The high priest of the island is called Tahowarahai; to him the Eatooa, or god, is supposed to descend, and hold converse with him, whilst he remains invisible to the people that surround him. Offerings are made to the greater deities, of hogs and poultry roasted, and of all kinds of eatables; but the inferior, and particularly the malevolent spirits, are only revered by a kind of hissing.

In these islands the priests continue in office for life, and the dignity is hereditary. The high priest is always an Earee, who has the highest rank next to the king. They are consulted upon many important occasions; partake largely of the good things of the country, and, in short, have found means to make themselves necessary. Besides the priests, there are in every district teachers, or *tata-o-rerors*, who instruct the people in astronomy and the navigation of those seas, which however is very imperfect.

C H A P. XVIII.

THE MARQUESAS.

General Description of them.

ALVARA MENDANA, a Spaniard, is accounted the first discoverer of the Marquesas; and they were so denominated in honour of the Marquis of Cannette, in 1595, then Viceroy of Peru. Their particular names are, La Magdalena, S. Pedro, La Dominica, Santa Christina, and Hood's-Island. Mendana had only seen the four first; and the last was discovered by Captain Cook, in 1774. It lies to the north-west of the rest, in 9 deg. 26 min. south; and 138 deg. of W. longitude, and five

leagues and a half distant from the Eastern point of S. Magdalena. The five Marquesas Isles take up about one degree of latitude, and near half a degree of longitude. The people here are ruled by a chief, whose dignity seems principally to consist in a superiority of dress.

Captain Cook relates, that the inhabitants of these islands excel, in general, all the nations of the South-Seas, in symmetry of form, and regularity of features. He mentions, in particular, that not one disproportioned person was seen upon the island of Christina; but that all were robust, well made, and active. Their countenances were open and lively. The men are about five feet six inches in stature; their hair is of divers colours, but none red. It is mostly worn short, unless it be a bunch tied in a knot on each side of the crown. Their complexion, naturally tawny, is rendered almost black by punctures over the whole body. Their only covering was a small piece of cloth round the waist and loins.

The women were inferior to the men in stature, but well proportioned. Their general complexion was brown. They were some of them punctured, and their body dress was a single piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, which covered them from the shoulders to the knees. They use a head-dress, a kind of broad fillet, curiously made of the fibres of the husks of cocoa-nuts. This fillet is interspersed with mother-of-pearl and tortoise-shells, wrought into curious figures, and displayed in divers forms. To the fillet is fixed the tail feathers of tropic birds, which, standing upright when it is tied on, the whole together makes a very brilliant appearance. They wear a kind of ruff, or necklace, made of light wood; the outer and upper sides covered with small peas, fixed on with gum. They have also some bunches of human hair fastened to a string, and tied round the legs and arms; but no one person is ever decorated with all these ornaments. They were none of them held in estimation like the human hair, the bunches of which, it is probable, were worn in remembrance of their deceased relations, and therefore looked upon with a degree of veneration; or, they might have been the spoils of their enemies, worn as badges of conquest. They had a kind of fan to cool themselves in hot weather, formed of a tough bark or grass, very firmly and curiously plaited, and frequently whitened with shell lime. Some had large feathered leaves of a kind of palm, which answered the purpose of an umbrella.

When the king visited Captain Cook, he was completely decorated with all these ornaments, and the only one ever seen so dressed. He complimented the captain with some presents, and gave him to understand the superiority of his rank. Their extraordinary ornaments are necklaces and amulets made of shells. They had all their ears pierced, though none were seen with ear-rings.

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Their habitations, which are in the valleys and on the sides of the hills near the plantations, resemble, in form, those of Otaheite, but are much meaner, and covered with leaves of the bread-fruit tree. They are built, in general, on a square or oblong pavement of stone, raised some height above the level of the ground. They have also a pavement near their houses for the purpose of sitting to eat, regale, and amuse themselves. Our people, by the help of glasses, could discern, along the uppermost edge of a mountain, a row of flakes or palisades closely connected together, like a fortification, which seemed to resemble the Hippahs of New Zealand.

The only quadrupeds seen here were hogs and rats. But there were fowls, and many small birds in the woods, that warbled most melodiously. Notwithstanding these islands produce fowls, hogs, and the waters, at certain times, fish in abundance, the inhabitants subsist chiefly on vegetable food. As cocoa-nuts do not abound, pure water is their drink in ordinary.

In the articles of eating and cookery, they are not cleanly. Pork and fowls are dressed in an oven of hot stones: but fruit and roots they roast on the fire; and after taking off the rind and skin, put them into a platter or trough, with water, out of which Captain Cook affirms, he saw both men and hogs eat at the same time.

It appears that these islands are similar in their origin, and the nature of their minerals, to the Society-Islands, the greater part of which seem to have been the burning mountains.

The Marquesans discovered the same timidity on the approach of strangers, in common with the natives of the southern climes; nor could be induced for some time, to come on board the ships, by any signs of friendship that could be made them. They ventured indeed to come along-side, and offered some pepper-roots, which were fixed on the shrouds, as tokens of reciprocal friendship. The exchange of nails for fish and bread-fruit, in great perfection, was highly salutary, as well as gratifying to the whole ship's company, who, for the course of nineteen weeks, had subsisted on salt provisions, which having then been two years on board, were neither agreeable in flavour, nor of a nutritive quality. The canoes retired a little after sun-set, according to the general custom of the natives of the South-Sea islands, who cannot be prevailed on to keep awake a single night, by the most attracting novelty.

Those parts of these islands which are capable of cultivation are very populous; but as they are in general mountainous, and have many inaccessible rocks, it is doubted whether the whole group contain fifty thousand inhabitants.

Intercourse had not been long held between our people and the natives, before it was evident they were more disposed to receive than to give; for having taken a nail in exchange for some bread-fruit, they

with-held the article so purchased, till Captain Cook had recourse to the ordinary means of firing a musket over their heads, and thus terrified them into fair dealing. Nor were these islanders exempt from that propensity to theft, which characterizes the nations of the South-Seas. Soon after they had courage enough to venture on board, one of them stole an iron stanchion from the gangway, with which he sprang into the sea, and notwithstanding its weight, swam with it to his canoe, and was making to the shore with all speed. A musket was fired over his head to frighten him back, but to no effect; he still continued to make off with his booty. The whistling of another ball over his head was as ineffectual. An officer, less patient of such an injury than reason and humanity should have taught him to be, levelled at him, and shot him through the head. Captain Cook had given orders to fire over the canoe, but not to kill any one. He was in a boat, and came up with the canoe soon after. There were two men in her; one fat bailing out the blood and water, in a kind of hysterical laugh; the other, a youth of about fourteen or fifteen years of age, who afterwards proved to be the son of the deceased, fixed his eyes on the dead body, with a serious and dejected countenance. This act of severity, however, did not estrange the islanders from the ship, and a traffic was carried on to the satisfaction of both parties. Bread-fruit, bananas, plantains, and some hogs, were given in exchange for small nails, knives, and pieces of Amsterdams cloth. Red feathers of the Amsterdams island were greatly esteemed here.

Captain Cook, accompanied with the gentlemen of the ship, in their walks about the country, came accidentally to the house which had been the habitation of the man who had been shot; there they found his son, who fled at their approach: they inquired for his female relations, and were told that they remained at the top of the mountain, to weep and mourn for the dead. But though they were then among the relations of a man who had been killed by them, not the least tokens of animosity or revenge were discernible among the natives.

On seeing a sailor corrected by the boatswain's mate, they exclaimed, "He beats his brother;" which arises from their idea of all one country being in effect of one and the same family.

C H A P . XIX.

Description of the ISLANDS termed, "The Low ISLANDS in the SOUTH-WEST."

THESE islands, which form a group, connected by a reef of coral rocks, and lie scattered, in general, between the latitude of 14 deg. 28 min. south, and the longitude of 138 deg. and 56 min. west, are the following;

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following: King George's, Disappointment, Palliser, Dog, Queen Charlotte's, Lagoon, Thumb-Cap, Bow, The Groups, Bird, Chain, Osnaburg, and Pitcairn Islands. Of these we shall treat in their respective order.

KING GEORGE'S ISLANDS are two in number; they were first discovered by Commodore Byron, in 1765. When the English first went on shore, they found many huts deserted by the natives, the dogs being the only tenants; and those animals, terrified by the appearance of strangers, kept a continual howling all the time they continued on shore. The hovels, though very mean and low, were situated in a charming spot, amidst a grove of lofty trees, some of which were the cocoa, and others of a species unknown. The natives seemed to derive the necessaries of life, in general, from the cocoa-nut tree, as it supplied them not only with food, but sails, cordage, and timber.

The cocoa-palm may well be deemed the staple of life, as it produces every essential requisite for the support of many nations on the globe. Every part of it is converted to some useful purpose: as for instance; the nuts, whilst green, contain a liquor pleasant to the palate, and of a quality so singularly cooling, that it allays thirst, and affords refreshment in a hot climate, beyond any other production. When in due progress the kernel forms, it is at first of the substance of a rich cream; and afterwards growing firm and oily, like an almond, becomes equally balsamic and nourishing. The oil extracted from it is adapted to divers purposes, and particularly that of anointing the hair, and frequently the whole body. Cups are made of the hard shell; and a variety of cordage, elastic and durable, from the fibrous coating around it. Several articles of Indian household furniture, and divers kinds of ornaments, are fabricated of these materials. The long-feathered leaves or branches, which spread from the top of the stem, are convenient coverings for their houses; and those, when plaited, make excellent baskets for provisions. A cloth sufficient for covering the body in a hot climate is made of the inner bark: and the very stem itself, when grown too old to bear, may be used in the construction of a hut, or the mast of a canoe. All these very essential benefits are derived from this one production. The shore of this island was covered with coral, and the shells of very large pearl oysters.

Commodore Byron has given the following account of the natives, their customs, &c. "The women wear a piece of cloth hanging from the waist down to the knee; and the men were naked. Near their houses were buildings of a different kind, which were supposed to be burying-places. These were situated under lofty trees; the sides and tops were of stone; and, in their figure, they sometimes resembled the

square tombs with a flat top, which are in our country church-yards. Near these buildings were found many neat boxes, full of human bones: and upon the branches of the trees which shaded them hung a great number of the heads and bones of turtle, and a variety of fish, enclosed in a kind of basket-work of reeds; on examining which, nothing appeared to remain but the skin and the teeth: the bones and entrails seemed to have been extracted, and the muscular flesh dried away."

Captain Cook, who gives a more ample and satisfactory account of them, sailed between these two islands in April 1774: he says they lie nearly east and west. The island to the eastward is called by the natives *Tiookea*; it is something of an oval shape, and about ten leagues in circuit. The inhabitants of this island, and probably of all the low ones, are of a much darker colour than those of the higher islands, and of an hostile disposition. Their origin is doubtless one and the same; but being dependent on the sea for a subsistence, and from their way of life exposed to the sun and weather, their colour is darker, and their bodies become more hardy and robust. The figure of a fish is punctured or marked on their bodies. A lieutenant, with two boats well armed, were sent on shore; two gentlemen were of the party; they landed without any opposition from the natives. As soon as they came on shore, the islanders embraced them by touching noses, a mode of civility used in New Zealand, which is some hundred leagues distance, and the chief place besides this where the custom has been observed to prevail.

The naturalists found here various plants, and particularly a scurvy-grass. The natives shewed them that they bruised this plant, mixed it with shell-fish, and threw it into the sea, whenever they perceived a shoal of fish, which, intoxicated by it, were caught on the surface of the water without trouble. The soil is but barren, the foundation consisting of coral, very little elevated above the surface of the water. The officer of the boats perceiving the Indians collecting into a body, having distributed presents to those who surrounded him, soon prepared to go, desirous of avoiding any affray. The collected body crowded about the boats, and seemed doubtful whether they should detain our people, or suffer them to depart. At length, however, they assisted them in pushing off the boats. Some of the most turbulent threw stones into the water, and seemed to glory as if they had driven them off. Captain Cook, from this circumstance, found it expedient to give orders for firing four or five cannon shot into the sea, close by the shore, and over the heads of the Indians, as they were seated along the beach, to shew them that they were entirely at the mercy of their visitors. Notwithstanding all this, the party brought off to the ship five dogs, with which the island seemed to be plentifully supplied. These they purchased with small

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nails, and some ripe bananas, which latter they brought from the Marquesas. The dogs had fine long hair, and were of a white colour.

The other island, which is inconsiderable, is situated two leagues to the westward of Tiookea, is four leagues in length, and from five to three miles in breadth.

The ISLANDS OF DISAPPOINTMENT, were first discovered by Commodore Byron in 1765, and so named from the shores affording no anchorage for his ships, on which account he was obliged to quit them, without landing or procuring any refreshments for his crew, who were then languishing with sickness. They are a cluster of small islands, and lie in latitude 14 deg. 10 min. south; longitude 141 deg. 6 min. west. They are inhabited by Indians, who appeared on the beach with spears in their hands, that were at least sixteen feet long. They every where discovered hostile intentions and seemed by signs to threaten the people in the boat with death, if they came on shore. There are cocoa trees in great abundance, and the shore abounds with turtle.

PALLISER-ISLANDS were discovered by Captain Cook in April 1774; they lie in 15 deg. 26 min. south; and 14 deg. 20 min. west, and are four in number: the largest is seven miles long, and not above two broad. The greatest distance of one from the other is not above six leagues. People, huts, canoes, and places erected for drying fish, were seen here. The natives were armed with long spikes.

DOG-ISLAND, 15 deg. 13 min. south, was discovered by Le Mair and Schouten, April 16:5, who gave it that name from having seen three Spanish dogs on the island.

QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLAND, 19 deg. 18 min. south; 138 deg. 4 min. west; was first discovered by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, in 1767, who took possession of it in the name of King George the Third. Here is good water, and plenty of cocoa-nuts, palm-nuts, and scurvy-grass. The inhabitants are of a middle stature, and dark complexion, with long hair hanging loose over their shoulders: the men well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing is a kind of coarse cloth, or matting, which they fasten about their middle.

LAGOON-ISLAND, 19 deg. 47 min. south; 139 deg. 28 min. west; is of an oval form, with a lake in the middle, which occupies much the greatest part

of it. The whole island is covered with trees of different verdure. It is inhabited by a race of Indians, tall, of a copper colour, with long black hair. Their weapons are poles, or spikes, which reach twice as high as themselves. Their habitations were seen under some clumps of palm trees, which formed very beautiful groves. This island was discovered by Captain Cook, April 1769.

THUMB-CAP lies about seven leagues north-west of Lagoon-Island: it is a low, woody island, of a circular form, and not much above a mile in compass. There was no appearance of inhabitants: the land was covered with verdure.

BOW-ISLAND, so called by Captain Cook, in 1769, on account of its singular figure, being shaped exactly like a bow; the arch and curve of which is land, and the space between them water. The curve is a flat beach, without any signs of vegetation, having nothing upon it but heaps of sea-weed. It appeared to be narrow, and about three or four leagues in length. The horns, or extremities of the bow, were two large tufts of cocoa-nut trees, of different height and figure. From the smoke seen in different parts the island appeared to be inhabited.

THE GROUPS are long, narrow strips of land, ranging in all directions; some of them ten miles or upwards in length, but none more than a quarter of a mile in breadth. Trees of various kinds, particularly the cocoa-nut, abound here. The people appeared to be well made, of a brown complexion; most of them carried in their hands a slender pole, about fourteen feet long, pointed like a spear: they had likewise something shaped like a paddle, about four feet long. Their canoes were of different sizes; some so small, as to carry no more than three men; others had six or seven; and some of their boats hoisted a sail.

BIRD-ISLAND, so called by Captain Cook, from the great number of birds that were seen on it, is supposed to be about four miles in circumference. It is low, with a piece of water in the middle. No inhabitants appeared.

CHAIN-ISLAND seemed about five leagues long, in the direction of north-west and south-east, and about five miles broad. It appeared to be a double range of woody islands, joined together by reefs, so as to compose one island in the form of an ellipsis, or oval, with a lake in the middle. The trees are large, and from the smoke that issued from the woods it seemed to be inhabited.

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OSNABURGH-ISLAND, called by the natives Maitea, was first discovered by Captain Wallis in 1767. It is an high round island, not above a league in circuit; in some parts covered with trees, in others a naked rock, and is 44 leagues distant from Chain-Island, west by south.

PITCAIRN-ISLAND was discovered by Captain Carteret. Captain Cook was very near it in August 1773; but could not fall in with it.

Besides these, which we have described from the most authentic accounts, Captain Wallis also saw five other islands, which he named *Whitsunday, Egmont, Gloucester, Cumberland, and Prince William-Henry*; and in August 1773, Captain Cook fell in with five others, which he named *Resolution, Doubtful, Furneaux, Adventure, and Chane*. Some of the most westwardly of these scattered islands were seen by M. de Bougainville, and called *Les quatre Facardins, and Isles des Lanciers*. That navigator very properly calls this cluster of low, over-flowed islands, *The dangerous Archipelago*.

TOOBOUAI-ISLAND, discovered by Captain Cook in 1777, is to the southward of this group. It is situated in latitude 23 deg. 25 min. south, longitude 218 deg. 37 min. east. The spot, at first view, appeared like several distinct islands, but on nearer approach it was found to be connected, and to form but one island. It is guarded by a reef of coral rock, extending in some places a mile from the land, with an high surf breaking upon it. Our people observed from the ships the natives walking or running along shore, and then saw two canoes launched, in which were about a dozen men making towards them. Stopping suddenly when they came near the ships, Omai, according to custom, was desired to use his endeavours to prevail on them to come nearer, but all his efforts proved ineffectual. Those in the canoes, however, indicated by signs a strong desire for our people to go on shore, and those on the beach displayed something white, which was considered as an intimation to the same purport; and the landing might have been effected with ease and safety, as there was good anchorage without the reef, and an opening in it free from surf. But as no refreshments were wanting, and Captain Cook was desirous of availing himself of a fair wind for the prosecution of his voyage, after divers ineffectual attempts to prevail on the natives to come near the vessel, and hold intercourse, he left them, and stood to the northward.

The greatest extent of this island, in any direction, is not above five or six miles. There are hills in it of considerable height. At the foot of these is a narrow border of flat land, extending almost round it, with a white-sand beach. The hills, except a few rocky cliffs, were covered with herbage. According to the informa-

tion our people derived from the men in the canoes, the island abounds with the same animal and vegetable productions as were found in its vicinity.

Such of the natives who were seen in the canoes were copper-coloured: some wearing their hair (which was straight and black) flowing about the shoulders, and others having it tied in a bunch on the crown of the head. Their faces were rather round and full, and expressed a ferocity of disposition. All the covering of those in the canoes was a piece of narrow stuff wrapped round the waist, and passing between the thighs; but some upon the beach were observed to be completely dressed in white. Several in the canoes wore ornaments of pearl shells about their necks: one in particular continued a considerable time blowing a large conch-shell in a long tone without any variation; but what it portended, our people could not determine. The men in the canoes, finding the captain's resolution to depart, stood up, and repeated something aloud, though it was not known whether it expressed hostile or friendly designs. They had, however, no weapons with them; nor could it be discovered by the glasses, that they on shore were armed, as might have been reasonably supposed.

CHAP. XX.

EASTER-ISLAND.

Soil, Situation, Inhabitants, Animal and Vegetable Productions.

CAPTAIN COOK observes, that the view of this island from the east answered the geographical description given of it: Davis's Land. Admiral Roggewein touched at it in 1722, and gave it the name of Easter-Island: but the accounts given of it by the writers of his voyage, appear rather fabulous than authentic; at least they by no means agree with the state in which it was found by those British navigators who last visited it.

This island was called by the natives by a variety of names, as *Wachu, Tamarahi, Whyhu, and Teapy*. It seems that the Spaniards had visited it in 1769, and given it the appellation of the Island of St. Carlos. Some signs of this visit were seen among the natives, and, in particular, several articles of wearing-apparel, which were of European manufacture. It is situated in latitude 27 deg. 30 min. south; and longitude 109 deg. 46 min. west; and is about ten or twelve leagues in circuit.

Soon after the *Resolution*, Captain Cook, made the island, the master being sent out in a boat to sound the coast, one of the natives swam off to her, and insisted on coming aboard the ship. The first thing he did was, to measure the length of the ship, by fathoming her

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from the taffarel to the stem; and as he counted the fathoms, it was observed by our people, that he called the numbers by the same names that they do at Otaheite; nevertheless, his language was nearly unintelligible to all of them.

When Captain Cook went on shore, accompanied by a party, to see what the island was likely to afford, they landed at the beach, where some hundreds of the natives were assembled; and who were so impatient to see them, that many of them swam off to meet the boats.

Not one of them had so much as a stick, or weapon of any sort in his hand. After distributing a few trinkets among them, our people made signs for something to eat, on which they brought down a few potatoes, plantains, and sugar-canes, and exchanged them for nails, looking-glasses, and pieces of cloth.

Near the place where they landed were some tall statues. The country appeared quite barren, and without wood. There were, nevertheless, several plantations of potatoes, plantains, and sugar-canes. They also saw some fowls, and found a well of brackish water.

The captain was obliged to content himself with remaining at the landing-place among the natives, as he was not yet quite recovered from a bilious cholick, which had been so violent as to confine him to his bed. It was several days before the most dangerous symptoms of his disorder were removed; during which time, the surgeon was to him not only a skilful physician, but an affectionate adviser. When he began to recover, a favourite dog fell a sacrifice to his disordered stomach. They had no other fresh meat whatever on board; and the captain could eat of this flesh, and of broth made of it, when he could taste nothing else. Thus he received nourishment and strength from food, which would have made most people in Europe sick. So true it is, that necessity is governed by no law.

The soil of this island is in general a dry, hard clay; but towards the highest part of the south end it is a fine red earth, seemed much better, bore a longer grass, and was not covered with stones, as in the other parts. The most remarkable curiosity here, is a number of gigantic statues, of which, however, very few remain entire. These statues are placed on the west coast. On the east side of the island were seen the remains of three platforms of stonework, on each of which had stood four of these large statues; but they were all fallen down from two of them, and one from the third: they were broken or defaced by the fall. One which had fallen, being measured, was fifteen feet in length, and six broad over the shoulders. Each statue had on its head a large cylindric stone, of a red colour, wrought perfectly round. Others were found that measured near twenty-seven feet, and upwards of eight feet over the shoulders: and still a larger one was seen standing, the shade of which was sufficient to shelter all the party, consisting of near thirty persons, from the rays of the sun. The workmanship was rude, but not bad, nor were the features of the face ill formed; the ears were long, according to the distortion practised

in the country; and the bodies had hardly any thing of a human figure about them. Yet as these islanders, wholly unacquainted with any mechanical power, could raise such stupendous figures, and afterwards place the cylindric stones upon their head, it must be allowed to be considered as admirable!

The party, on their further progress, came to a more fertile part of the island, interspersed with plantations, and not so much encumbered with stones as those they had seen before; but they could find no water, except what the natives twice or thrice brought them, which, though brackish and stinking, was rendered acceptable, by the extremity of their thirst. They also passed some huts, the owners of which met them with roasted potatoes and sugar-canes, and placing themselves ahead of the party (for they marched in a line, in order to have the benefit of the path) gave one to each man as he passed by. But at the very time some were relieving the thirsty and hungry, there were others who endeavoured to steal from them the very things which had been given them. At last, to prevent worse consequences, they were obliged to fire a load of small shot at one, who was so audacious as to snatch the bag which contained every thing they carried with them. The shot hit him on the back, on which he dropped the bag, ran a little way, and then fell: but he afterwards got up and walked, and what became of him they knew not, nor whether he was much wounded. This affair occasioned some delay, and drew the natives together. They presently saw the man who had hitherto led the way, and one or two more, coming running towards them; but instead of stopping when they came up, they continued to run round them, repeating, in a kind manner, a few words, until they set forwards again. Then their old guide hoisted his flag, leading the way as before; and none ever attempted to steal from them the whole day afterwards.

They met with a well at the east end of the island, the water of which was perfectly fresh, being considerably above the level of the sea; but it was dirty, owing to a custom of the natives; who never go to drink without washing themselves, all over as soon as they have done: and if ever so many of them are together, the first leaps right into the middle of the hole, drinks, and washes himself without the least ceremony; after which another takes his place, and does the same.

No quadrupeds were seen upon this island, except black rats, which are common to all the islands of the South-Seas. It appeared that the islanders eat these rats; for our people saw a man with some dead ones in his hand, and seemed unwilling to part with them, giving them to understand, they were for food. There were a few domestic fowls, small, but well tasted: and two or three noddies were seen, which were so tame as to settle on the shoulders of the natives.

The coast did not appear to abound with fish, at least our people could catch none with hook and line; and they saw but very little among the natives.

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This country produces only a few shrubs, the leaf and
seeds of one of which (called by the natives *Torremeds*)
was not much unlike that of the common *Vetch*: the
seeds had a disagreeable bitter taste, and are considered
by the natives as poisonous: the wood is of a reddish
colour, hard and heavy, but crooked, and exceeding
six or seven feet in height: and not a tree was seen on
the whole island that exceeded the height of ten feet.
Another small shrub was seen here, whose wood is white
and brittle, and, as well as its leaf, to the eye somewhat
resembles the ash. There are also some of the Ota-
heitean cloth plant, but dwarfish and weak, being from
two to four feet high. They are planted in rows among
very large rocks, where the rains have washed a little
soil together. Here are sugar-canes, bananas, and
yams, which thrive to admiration, considering the stony
quality of the ground. The sugar-canes were about
nine or ten feet high, and contained a very sweet juice,
which the inhabitants very hospitably presented to their
guests, whenever they asked for something to drink.
These are said to be sweeter than those at Otaheite.
The whole number of plants growing on this island
does not exceed twenty species.

Here are potatoes of a gold-yellow colour, as sweet as
carrots: these were found nourishing, and antiscorbutic.
Here is likewise a species of nightshade, which is made
use of at Otaheite, and the other islands, as a vulnerary
medicine, and is probably cultivated here for the same
purpose. As a proof of the industry of the natives, the
grass, which commonly springs up among the stones,
on the uncultivated soil, is carefully plucked up, and
spread over their plantations as a manure, or to preserve
them in some measure from the parching beams of the
sun.

The natives of this island are in general slender,
brisk and active, have good features, and countenances
not disagreeable. Their colour is of a chestnut brown;
their hair black, curling, and remarkably strong; that
on the head, as well as on the face, is cut short. The
men for the most part are in a manner naked, wearing
nothing but a slip of cloth betwixt their legs, each end
of which is fastened to a cord or belt they wear round
the waist. The cloth from Otaheite, as indeed any
sort, was much valued by these people. The men
have punctures on their bodies, which is common, as
to all the South-Sea islands. The greatest singularity
is the size of their ears, the lobe or extremity of which
is so stretched out, as almost to rest on the shoulder,
and is pierced by a very large hole, through which
three or four fingers might be thrust with ease. The
chief ornaments for their ears are the white down of
feathers, and rings, which they wear in the inside of
the hole, made of the leaf of the sugar-cane, which is
very elastic, and rolled up like a watch-spring. Some
were seen covered with a kind of bright cloth, of an
orange colour, and these were supposed to be chiefs.

One of the natives who came on board the ship had
a belt round his middle, from whence a kind of net-

work descended before, but too thin to answer the pur-
pose of a concealment. A string was tied about his
neck, and a flat bone, something shaped like a tongue,
and about five inches long, was fastened to it, and hung
down on the breast, which he gave our people to un-
derstand was the bone of a porpoise. He was presented
with nails, medals, and strings of beads, all of which
he desired to have tied round his head.

At first he shewed signs of fear and diffidence, asking
in a dialect of the language generally used in the South-
Sea, and which was somewhat understood by many on
board, whether they would kill him as an enemy? On
being assured of good treatment, he became perfectly
unconcerned, and at ease, and talked of nothing but
dancing.

The women of this island are small, slender limbed,
and have punctures on the face, resembling the patches
sometimes in fashion among European ladies. They
paint their whole face with a reddish brown ruddle,
over which they lay a bright orange colour, extracted from
the turmeric root; or they variegate their faces with
strokes of white-shell lime; which led an observer to
remark, that the art of painting is not confined to those
ladies who have an opportunity of imitating French
fashions. All the women were clad in scanty pieces of
cloth; one piece wrapped round their loins, and ano-
ther over their shoulders, made a complete dress. Both
sexes have thin, but not savage features. The women
wear their hair long, and sometimes tied on the crown
of their head.

The violent action of the sun upon their heads, has
led them to contrive various coverings for that part.
Their head-dress is a round fillet adorned with feathers,
and a straw bonnet, something like a Scotch one; the
former worn by the men, the latter by the women.
Many of the men wore a ring about two inches thick,
of grass, strong and curiously plaited, and fitted close
round the head. This was covered with the long fea-
thers of the man-of-war bird. Others had huge bushy
caps of brown gull's feathers, which were almost as
large as the full-bottomed wigs of European lawyers;
besides which, some wear a single hoop of wood, round
which the long white feathers of the gannet hung nod-
ding. In colour, features, and language, the inhabi-
tants of Easter-Island bear such affinity to the people of
the more western islands, that there can be no doubt of
their having had the same origin.

According to the best calculation that could be made,
the number of inhabitants in this island were not above
seven hundred, and of these the females bore no propor-
tion in number to the males. The females were either
few in number, or else most of them abstained, or were
restrained from appearing while the vessel lay here; yet
the men shewed no signs of a jealous disposition, nor the
women any scruples of appearing in public: in fact,
they seemed to be neither reserved or chaste. But as
all the women who were seen were liberal of their fa-
vours, it is more than probable that all the married
and

and modest had concealed themselves from their impetuous visitants, in some distant parts of the island; and what further strengthens this supposition is, that heaps of stones were seen piled up in little hillocks, which had one steep perpendicular side, where a hole went under ground. These islanders, in common with those of the South-Seas, soon gave proofs of their propensity to theft, as before observed. It was with difficulty the ship's crew could keep their hats on their heads, and hardly possible to keep any thing in their pockets. One thief was fired at with small shot, which wounded him so that he fell soon after he had thrown down the fatal acquisition.

Such mildness and good-nature appear in the disposition of these people, as prevent them to behave as kindly and hospitably as their barren country will permit them. A party who had rambled up the island, and were returning to the ship, passed a native who was digging potatoes in a field; they no sooner complained to him of great thirst, than he ran immediately to a large plantation of sugar-canes, and brought out a load of the best and juiciest on his back, for their refreshment. Their disposition is far from being warlike, although they have weapons of defence.

Potatoes, bananas, yams, sugar-canes, and about fifty fowls, were the only provisions obtained here; in exchange for which, the natives received, with great pleasure, empty cocoa-shells, which had been procured upon other South-Sea islands. The cloth made at Otaheite, and European cloth, bore the next degree of esteem, and iron-ware held the lowest place. Most of the natives, on receiving a cocoa-nut, a piece of cloth, or a nail, in the way of barter, ran away immediately, as if apprehensive lest the other should repent his bargain, and insist on a re-exchange. Their eagerness for cloth led them to part with their caps, head-dresses, necklaces, ornaments for the ears, and several human figures, made out of narrow pieces of wood, about eighteen inches or two feet long, and wrought in a much neater and more proportionate manner, than could have been expected from such a forlorn race. They represented men and women. The features were not pleasing, and the whole figure was much too long to be natural; but, notwithstanding, there was something characteristic in them, which bespoke a taste for the arts. The wood of which they were made was finely polished, close grained, and of a dark brown: nor can it be explained how such toys could come into their possession, as nothing could be found on the island, after the nicest scrutiny, which produced this kind of wood, it being the perfume wood of Otaheite. A very singular figure thus carved, with long nails, and fingers bent downwards, was brought to England, and presented to the British Museum.

Their houses are low, miserable huts, constructed by setting sticks upright in the ground, at six or eight feet distance, then bending them towards each other, and tying them together at the top, forming thereby a kind of Gothic arch. The longest sticks are placed in the middle, and shorter ones each way, and at less distance asunder; by which means the building is highest and broadest in the middle, and lower and narrower towards each end. To these are tied others horizontally, and the whole is thatched over with leaves of sugar-cane. The door-way is in the middle of one side, formed like a porch, and so low and narrow as just to admit a man to enter upon all fours.

The weapons of these islanders are short wooden clubs, and spears about six feet long, crooked, and armed at one end with pieces of flint. They have likewise a weapon made of wood, like the patoo-patoo of New-Zealand.

Not more than three or four canoes were seen belonging to the whole island, and these very mean, and badly constructed. From the small number and lightness of their boats, it may be supposed, that they procure very little of their subsistence from fishing, and particularly as no mention is made of any fishing implements seen here.

During the short time that the Resolution lay at Easter-Island, a circumstance occurred which plainly proved that the natives had no idea of private property. A field of sweet potatoes furnished a desirable article of traffic to the ship's company. Several of the natives dug up these roots, and exchanged them with the officers for what they most valued. After they had employed themselves in this manner for some hours, another native arrived, who with great fury drove the intruders away, and himself alone dug up the roots, and sold them in the manner that the others had done; from which circumstance it was inferred very naturally, that this man was the owner of the field, whom the others had robbed of the fruits of his labour, being tempted to commit the trespass, by the ready market to which they brought their plunder.

They have a king, whom they stile *aree*, or *bareeke*: he is described as a middle-aged man, rather tall, his face and whole body strongly punctured. He wore a piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, quilted with threads of grass, and stained yellow with turmeric. On his head he had a cap of long shining black feathers, which might be called a diadem. No great degree of homage was observed to be paid to him by the people; and from the poverty of the country, his subjects can afford to shew but few distinctions to their monarch.

Of the religion of these people, our navigators declare themselves entirely ignorant.

C H A P. XXI.

NEW GUINEA, NEW BRITAIN,
NEW IRELAND, NEW HANOVER,
AND OTHER SMALL ISLANDS.*Account of their Situation, Inhabitants, Produce, &c.*

NEW GUINEA.

THIS island was first visited by an European ship in 1529. It was called by Saavedra, a Portuguese, who discovered the north-west part of it, Terra de Papuas, or Papos, as was the south-west part of it New Guinea, by Van Schouten, a Dutch discoverer. The eastern part of it was styled by a French navigator, Louisiade. Dampier touched here; and after Lim Admiral Roggewein. Captain Cook made the coast of this island in September 1770, in latitude 6 deg. 15 min. south; longitude 130 deg. east. But his survey of the island could be but transient; for perceiving when he landed with a party of our people, that the Indians were resolutely bent on hostilities, it was generally agreed upon, to prevent the destruction of those people, as they had no intention to invade their country, to return to the boat. They are said by Captain Cook to make the same personal appearance as the New Hollanders; and the country in general is by him described, as resembling the South-Sea islands, New Zealand, and New Holland, in its vegetable productions. Indeed, New Guinea was supposed to be connected with New Holland, until Captain Cook discovered the strait which separates them. The following is the only particular circumstance relative to the people of this island, mentioned in Captain Cook's account.

"When our people got on board the boat, they rowed along the shore, and the number of Indians assembled seemed to be between sixty and an hundred. All the while they were shouting defiance, and throwing something out of their hands, which burnt exactly like gunpowder, but made no report. What these fires were, or for what purpose intended, could not be guessed at. Those who discharged them, had in their hand a short piece of stick, possibly a hollow cane, which they swung sideways from them, and immediately fire and smoke issued, exactly resembling the discharge of a musket, and of no longer duration. This wonderful phenomenon was observed from the ship, and the deception was so great, that the people on board thought they had fire-arms; and even in the boat, if they had not been so near as that they must have heard the report, if there had been any, they should have thought they had been firing volleys. After looking at them attentively some time, without taking any notice of their flashing and vociferation, the sailors fired some muskets over their heads. Upon hearing the balls rattle among the trees, they walked leisurely away, and the boat returned to the ship. Upon examining some weapons which the

natives had thrown, they were found to be light darts, about four feet long, very ill made, of a reed or bamboo-cane, and pointed with hard wood, in which there were many barbs. They were discharged with great force; for at sixty yards distance they went beyond the party; but in what manner they were thrown could not be exactly seen. But the general opinion was, that they were thrown with a stick, in the manner practised by the New Hollanders."

Captain Forest visited it in 1775. As the Tartar galley, belonging to the East-India Company, then under his command, stood on towards Dory harbour, two of the natives of Papua came on board, and appeared perfectly complacent. Their hair was bushed out to an incredible extent. To render it as bulky as possible, it was combed in a direction straight from the head, which is sometimes ornamented with feathers. The left ears of the women were perforated, and adorned with small brass rings.

Coming to an anchor, our countrymen had an opportunity of taking a view of one of the capital mansions of these people, situated on the bank. These were erected on posts, fixed several yards below low-water mark, for the convenience of the tenants, who occupied divers distinct parts of the mansion, that contained many families. In this country, the married people, unmarried women, and children, live in the larger tenements; and the bachelors by themselves in the smaller.

The men wore a thin stuff, produced from the cocconut tree, tied about the middle, and taken up behind between the thighs. That of the women was a coarse blue stuff, worn round the middle, and tucked up behind like the men's. The boys and girls went naked. Laborious offices here seemed to fall to the lot of the women, while the men idly fauntered about. The natives follow the diversion of hunting the wild hog, which they called Ben, with a kind of fox-looking dogs they called Naf. Among small islands, the wild hogs often swim in a string from one island to another; the hog behind, leaning his snout on those before; so that the sportsmen kill them with ease.

The coast of the promontory of Dory is described as extending about thirteen or fourteen leagues; the height not extreme, and the rise gradual. The country abounds with lofty trees, whose branches afford the traveller an agreeable shade. There are many rivulets of fresh water; and, scattered in particular tracks, good herbage.

The country abounds with hogs; and there are abacoons, and other kinds of fish.

The birds of paradise, which so much excite the curiosity of speculatists, are said to have been first found by the Portuguese on the Island of Gilolo, the Papuas Islands, and on New Guinea. They were denominated *passaros de sol*, i. e. "birds of the sun." By some they were called *manuco Deivata*, "the bird of God." Captain Forest was informed at an island called Linty, on this coast (the small islands on which are numberless)

I i that

that the birds of paradise come thither at certain seasons in flocks, and that settling on trees, they are caught with bird-lime, after which their bodies are dried with the feathers on, as they are seen in Europe. It appeared further, that the account of these birds having no legs, being constantly on the wing, and living on the air, which gave rise to the custom of cutting off their legs when offered to sale, was without foundation. The natives kill them as soon as taken. They have formidable bills, and defend themselves with great resolution. But what they subsist on has not been yet discovered. There are six distinct species of these birds; and they have afforded great scope for the speculation of naturalists.

Neither goats nor fowls were found in Dory. All the refreshment that could be procured on shore was the flesh of the wild hog, some species of fish and vegetables excepted. The quadrupeds seen were hogs, dogs, and wild cats.

The nutmeg-tree was found at different islands on this coast, but when cut down, it appeared that the fruit was not ripe. Our people were informed by the natives, that there were many such trees about the country; but they did not discover any knowledge of their worth and importance, though they seemed to set a due value upon other productions. They acknowledged that quantities of nutmegs were collected at certain places, but for what use could not be learnt. The natives, indeed, did not seem inclined to gratify the curiosity of our people, as to this and other particulars.

The Dutch derive such a source of wealth from the nutmeg-tree, that they are jealous lest any foreign power should deprive them of so profitable a monopoly; and being apprehensive that the Chinese, from being so near, should establish a trade with the natives for this useful commodity, they have prevented them by an agreement from coming to this place, though a trade might be so advantageously carried on between the parties. They even send out people yearly to destroy all the nutmeg-trees, wherever they can find them: but it being the natural produce of this part of the country, it will grow, in spite of their utmost efforts to prevent it.

The value of iron amongst these people is such, that for the consideration of receiving an axe or a chopping-knife, the receiver subjects his lands or his labour to a continual tax of some article or other for its use.

The natives, and especially the females, seemed to be of a musical turn. Some of them being asked by one of our people to sing, she gave proofs of a good voice and ear; as did others upon future occasions. Their mode of courting is rather extraordinary. The lover comes freely to the mansion of the favourite female, and without ceremony places himself by her. The old folks at a distance are then said often to call out, "Well, have you agreed?" If the parties agree before witnesses, a cock, procured with great difficulty, is killed, and thus ends the ceremony.

The tenements in which they dwell are poorly furnished; and as they cook in each separate apartment, and have no chimney, the smoke issues out at every part of the roof; so that at a distance the whole roof seems to smoke. They are very expert with the bow. Some of their arrows are six feet long. The former is made of bamboo, and the string of split ratan. They carry on a considerable traffic with the Chinese, of whom they purchase their iron tools, beads, plates, basons, &c. They trade also in slaves, ambergris, tortoiseshell, small pearls, and divers kinds of birds, and particularly the bird of paradise.

The inhabitants here are in general represented as numerous, fierce, and hostile, as appeared from their behaviour when visited by Captain Cook. The people of New Guinea are frequently invaded and carried into slavery by the Mahometans of the Molucca islands adjacent.

NEW BRITAIN was once supposed to be connected with New Guinea, until Dampier discovered it to be divided by a strait. Its most northern point is in 4 deg. south latitude, and it extends to 6 deg. 30 min. south. Dampier gave its most eastern point the name of Cape Orford: it lies in 151 deg. 34 min. east longitude: the western limits had not then been accurately surveyed. Dampier likewise gave names to several small islands which he saw in passing between New Guinea and New Britain. From four of these, volcanoes were observed emitting smoke and fire. The country appeared to be high land, mixed with vallies, every where abounding with large and stately trees, and well inhabited by a strong race of people of a very dark complexion. M. Bougainville represents the natives of this island as entirely black, with frizzled woolly hair, which some of them powdered white, having pretty long beards and white ornaments round their arms in form of bracelets; their nudities but indifferently covered with leaves of trees; in their persons they are tall, active, and robust. He observes, that they kept at some distance from the ships, and discovered a disposition alternately inclined to war and traffic. No European has ever yet had any friendly intercourse with the inhabitants of this island.

Dampier sailed round the north coast of NEW IRELAND, and supposed it to be a part of New Britain. That navigator called the most southern point of it Cape St. George, which, together with Cape Orford in New Britain, were thought to be the two points that formed a deep bay, which he called St. George's Bay. But Captain Carteret, who sailed round it in 1767, found it to terminate in a narrow channel, to which he gave the name of St. George's Channel. This island is a long narrow slip of land lying north-west and south-east, in extent about eighty leagues.

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The harbour, called by Captain Carteret English Cove, lies in lat. 5 deg. south, long. 157 deg. 19 min. east. There is another harbour about four leagues to westward, which he named Carteret-Harbour.

The crew of the Swallow, who at that time were in general perishing with sickness, obtained relief from some cocoa-nuts found upon this island, as they did also from some rock oysters and cockles they procured from the rocks at low water. The upper part of the tree which bears the cocoa-nut is called the cabbage. This is a white, crisp, juicy substance: it tastes somewhat like a chestnut, but when boiled is superior to the best parsnip, and is, perhaps, the most powerful antiscorbutic in the world. For every one of these cabbages that were obtained, they were forced to cut down a tree, which was done with great regret; but this depredation on the parent stock was unavoidable. These almost-expiring navigators likewise received great refreshment from the fruit of a tall tree that resembles a plum, and particularly that which in the West-Indies is called the Jamaica Plum.

The shore about this place is rocky, and the country high and mountainous, but covered with trees of various kinds, some of which are of an enormous growth. Among others, the nutmeg-tree was found in great plenty. Captain Carteret gathered a few of the nuts, but they were not ripe. They did not appear to be the best sort, but he imputes that to their growing wild, and being too much in the shade of taller trees. The woods abound with pigeons, doves, rooks, parrots, and a large bird with a black plumage, which makes a noise somewhat like the barking of a dog.

The only quadrupeds seen in this island by the crew of the Swallow were two of a small size, which were supposed to be dogs; they were very wild, and ran with great swiftness: here were seen centipedes, scorpions, and a few serpents of different kinds, but no people. They fell in, however, with several deserted habitations, and by the shells that were scattered about them, and seemed not to have been long taken out of the water, and some sticks half burnt, the natives were supposed to have just left the place when they arrived. Captain Carteret was so enfeebled a state of body as to be prevented from attending circumstantially to a description of the country. However, in English Cove he took possession of it for his Britannic majesty, and nailed upon a high tree a piece of board faced with lead, on which was engraved an English union, with the name of the ship and her commander, the name of the cove, and the time of their coming in and going out of it. M. de Bourgainville touched here about a year after, and gave it the name of Port Praslin. He found part of Captain Carteret's inscription, which seemed to have been taken down and defaced by the natives.

In this island there were some wild boars, large pigeons of beautiful plumage, turtle doves, parrots, and crown birds. Ants swarmed about the thatch-palm and cabbage-trees. The country appeared mountainous;

the soil light, yet producing several kinds of fine timber trees; the pepper-tree is said to be common. Here was found a very extraordinary insect about three inches long; almost every part of its body was of such a texture as to appear like a leaf, even when closely viewed. Each of its wings forms one half of a leaf, and when the two are closed together, it appears like an entire leaf. The under side of its body resembles a leaf of a more dead colour than the upper one. It has six legs, of which the upper joints are likewise similar to parts of leaves. Several flocks of an earthquake were felt here, which lasted about two minutes, and were very distinctly noticed on board, as well as on shore. Here was a prodigious cascade precipitated through vast rocks, which diversified the fall of water.

SANDWICH-ISLAND lies in the western part of St. George's Channel, on which coast the Swallow anchored. Soon after ten canoes put off from New Ireland, with about one hundred and fifty men on board; they exchanged some trifles, but none of them would venture up the side of the ship. They preferred iron to every thing else, although none of it was manufactured except nails; there being no cutlery ware on board. One of their canoes was not less than ninety feet long, being very little shorter than the ship, notwithstanding which, it was formed of a single tree. It had some carved ornaments about it, and was rowed or paddled by thirty-three men. There was no appearance of sails. The Indians were black and woolly-headed like negroes, without their flat noses and thick lips. They were all stark naked, except ornaments of shells about their legs and arms. Their hair, as well as their beards, was profusely covered with a white powder. They were armed with spears, and long sticks or poles, like the quarter staff. As they kept a watchful eye upon the ship's guns, it is probable they were not wholly unacquainted with the effect of fire-arms. They had fishing nets with them, which, as well as their cordage, seemed to be very well made. After they had continued this intercourse for some time, a breeze sprung up, and they returned to the shore.

The Swallow having reached the western point of New Ireland, a fine large island presented itself, to which Captain Carteret gave the name of

NEW HANOVER, to the westward of New Ireland; it was so called by Captain Carteret. The land is high, and finely covered with trees, among which are many plantations, and the whole has a beautiful appearance. About eight leagues to the westward, appeared six or seven small islands, which received the name of the Duke of Portland's Islands.

ADMIRALTY-ISLANDS lie in about 2 deg. 18 min. south latitude; and 146 deg. 44 min. east longitude. There

There are between twenty and thirty islands said to be scattered about here, one of which is very extensive. Captain Carteret, who first discovered them, was prevented touching at them, although their appearance was very inviting, on account of the condition of his ship; and as he was entirely unprovided with such articles of barter as suited the Indian trade.

These islands abound with vegetable productions of various kinds; and the natives seemed to be very numerous. Captain Carteret was of opinion that they produced spices, as he found the nutmeg-tree upon a soil comparatively rocky and barren, upon the coast of New Ireland.

CHRISTMAS-ISLAND was discovered by Capt. Cook, on the 24th of December 1777, and called by him Christmas-Island, from the ship's companies having kept that festival there. It lies in latitude 1 deg. 58 min. north; longitude 202 deg. 28 min. east. Its form is semicircular, and, like most other isles in this ocean, it is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, extending but a little distance from the shore: and further out than this reef, on the western side, is a bank of sand, which extends a mile into the sea. There is good anchorage on this bank, between eighteen and thirty fathoms. The soil of this island is in some places light and blackish, composed of sand, the dung of birds, and rotten vegetables. In other parts, it is formed of broken coral stones, decayed shells, and other marine productions. These are deposited in long narrow ridges, parallel with the sea coast, and must have been thrown up by the waves. This seems to prove that the island has been produced by different accessions from the sea; and is in a state of augmentation; the broken pieces of coral, and likewise many of the shells, being too large and heavy, to have been brought from the heath by any birds, to the places where our navigators found them lying.

No fresh water could be found in the whole island, though our people frequently dug for it. They met with several ponds of salt water, which having no visible communication with the sea, were supposed to have been filled by the water filtrating through the sand, during the time of high tides. Not the smallest trace of any human footstep could be discerned by our people, who went on shore for the purpose of observing an eclipse of the sun, which happened on the 30th of December; and also for the catching of turtle. Indeed, should any human being be accidentally driven upon the island, or left there, they could scarcely be able to prolong their existence; for though there are birds and fish in abundance, there are no visible means of allaying thirst, nor any vegetable that would serve as a substitute for bread, or correct the bad effects of salt diet. Very little fruit was found on the few cocoa-nut trees upon the island, and that little, not good.

In some parts were observed a few low trees, besides several small shrubs and plants, which grew in a very languid manner. There was a kind of purslain, a spe-

cies of sida, or Indian mallow, with two sorts of grafs. Under these trees fat vast numbers of a new species of egg-bird, black above, and white below, having a white arch on the forehead. These birds are somewhat larger than the common noddy: their eggs are bluish, and speckled with black. There were likewise many common boobies, a sort resembling a gannet, and a chocolate coloured species with a white belly. Man-of-war birds, curlews, plovers, tropic birds, petrels, &c. were also seen here. There were small rats, numbers of land crabs, and lizards.

On this island there was so much fish that some of the crew brought on board as many as weighed upwards of two hundred pounds; from a grappling near the shore. A great quantity were also taken with the hook and line, principally consisting of cavallias, snappers, and a few rock-fish of two species, one with whitish streaks scattered about, and the other with numerous blue spots.

There was procured for both ships, about three hundred turtles, which weighed one with another about ninety pounds: they were all of the green sort, and perhaps not inferior in goodness to any in the world.

When the party that was employed in catching turtle returned on board, a sailor that belonged to the Discovery had been missing two days. At first there were two men who had lost their way; but happening to disagree with respect to the track that was most likely to bring them to their companions, they had separated, and one of them found means to rejoin the party, after an absence of twenty-four hours, during which he had experienced great distress. There being, as before observed, no fresh water upon the island, and not one cocoa-nut tree in that part of it where he was straggling, in order to allay his thirst, he had recourse to the extraordinary expedient of drinking the blood of a turtle, which he had killed for that purpose. His method of refreshing himself, when fatigued, was equally singular, though he said he felt the good effects of it. He undressed himself and lay down in the shallow water on the beach for some time. It was matter of astonishment how these two men lost their way: the land over which their journey lay, from the sea coast to the place where the boats were stationed, did not exceed three miles across; nor was there any thing that could obstruct their view, for the country was level, with a few shrubs dispersed about it; and from many parts, the masts of the vessels could be easily discerned. This, however, seemed to be a rule of direction which they did not think of; nor did they recollect in what part of the island the ships lay at anchor; and they were totally at a loss how to get back to them, or the party from which they had so carelessly strayed. A party was detached in search of the other man, and they soon had the good fortune to find their lost companion. The distress of this man must have been much greater than that of the other straggler, not only as he had been lost a longer time, but he was too delicate to drink turtle's blood.

with two sorts of grafs. There were also several birds of a new species of the below, having a white and red are somewhat larger than the others. Eggs are bluish, and are likewise many com- gannet, and a chocolate-ly. Man-of-war birds, petrels, &c. were also seen. Numbers of land rats, numbers of land

much fish that some of any as weighed upwards of a grapping near the also taken with the hook of cavallias, snappers, scies, one with whitish the other with numerous

ships, about three hun- dreds with another about the green fort, and per- any in the world.

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There being some yams and cocoa-nuts on board, in a state of vegetation, they were planted, by Captain Cook's order, on the small island where the astronomer had observed the late eclipse; and some seeds of melons were sown in another place. The captain also left on that little isle a bottle, containing the following inscription:

Georgius Tertius, Rex, 31 Decembris, 1777.

*Naves { Resolution, Jac. Cook, Pr.
Discovery, Car. Clerke, Pr.*

CHAP. XXII.

THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

A General Description. Account of Atooi. Reception of the English there. A remarkable Morai there. Various Observances.

CAPTAIN COOK discovered these islands on his last voyage to the Pacific Ocean in 1778, they were by him distinguished by the name of the Sandwich Islands, in honour of the Earl of Sandwich.

The first five which he saw were called by the natives Woahoo, Atooi, Oneehew, Oreehoua, and Tahoor. He received some intelligence with respect to the existence of a low uninhabited island in the neighbourhood, named Tammata-pappa, which was never visited. Besides, he was further informed, that there were other islands both to the eastward and westward. Owwhyee, the spot where our celebrated navigator fell a victim to the fury of the natives, with some others, was not discovered till some time after those just mentioned, and will therefore be introduced, with every transaction relative to that memorable event, in its proper place. All these islands, he observed, were situated between the latitude of 21 deg. 30 min. and 22 deg. 15 min. north; and between the longitude of 199 deg. 20 min. and 201 deg. 30 min. east. All the information that could be derived respecting Woahoo, the most easterly of the islands discovered, was, that it is high land, and inhabited.

The Captain touched at Oneehew, and was paid a degree of homage by the natives that came on board, as they crouched down upon the deck, nor would quit that humble posture till they were requested to rise. When he went on shore, he took with him three goats, a young boar and sow of the English breed, and also the seeds of onions, pumpkins, and melons. These he disposed of in such a manner, as he thought would best tend to promote the propagation of the respective species. This island is chiefly low land, except one part, which rises immediately from the sea to a considerable height; as does also its south-east point, which terminates in a round hill. Its chief

vegetable productions are yams, and the sweet root called *tee*. Our people procured some salt here, called by the natives *patai*, which is produced in salt ponds. With it they cure both fish and pork; and some of the fish being purchased, proved good, and kept well. The anchoring place at this island was in latitude 21 deg. 50 min. north; and longitude 199 deg. 45 min. east. Oreehoua and Tahoor, are two little islands in the vicinity of the former. Tahoor is uninhabited.

As the ships approached Atooi, many of the inhabitants put off in their canoes, and very readily came along-side. Our people were agreeably surprised to find that they spoke a dialect of the Otaheitean language. They could not at first be prevailed upon by any entreaties to come on board. Captain Cook tied some brass medals to a rope, which he gave to those who were in one of the canoes; and they fastened some mackerel to the rope, by way of equivalent. This was repeated, and some small nails, or pieces of iron, were given them; for which they gave in exchange some more fish, and a sweet potato; a sure indication of having some notion of bartering. One of them even offered for sale the piece of stuff which he wore about his waist.

The natives of this island were of the middling stature, and of a robust form. Their complexion was brown; and though there appeared to be little difference in the casts of their colour, there was a considerable variation in their features. Most of them had their hair cropped rather short; a few had it tied in a bunch at the top of the head; and others suffered it to flow loose. It seemed to be naturally black; but, the generality of them had stained it with some stuff, which changed it to a brownish colour. Most of them had pretty long beards. They had no ornaments about their persons; nor was it observed that they had their ears perforated. Some of them were tattooed on the hands, or near the hips: and the pieces of cloth which were worn by them round their middle were curiously coloured with white, black, and red. They seemed to be mild and good-natured; and were furnished with no arms of any kind, except some small stones, which they had manifestly brought for their own defence; and these they threw into the sea when they found there was no occasion for them.

As the ships sailed along the coast, in quest of a convenient spot for anchorage, some of the natives ventured to come on board; and none of the inhabitants they ever met with before, in any other island or country, were so astonished as these people were, upon entering a ship. Their eyes were incessantly roving from one object to another, while the wildness of their looks and gestures fully indicated their perfect ignorance with respect to every thing they saw; and strongly pointed out, that they had never, till the present time, been visited by Europeans, nor been acquainted with any of their commodities,

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except iron. This metal, however, they had in all probability only heard of, or at most known it in some inconsiderable quantity, brought to them at a remote period. They asked for it by the appellation of *kamaité*, referring probably to some instrument, in making which iron could be serviceably employed: for they applied that name to the blade of a knife, though they had no idea of that particular instrument, which they could not even handle properly. They also frequently called iron by the name of *toe*, which signifies a hatchet or adze. On being shewn some beads, they first asked what they were, and then whether they were to be eaten? But on their being informed, that they were to be hung in their ears they rejected them as useless. They were equally indifferent with regard to a looking-glass that was offered them, and returned it for a similar reason. China cups, plates of earthen ware, and other things of that kind, were so new to them, that they asked whether they were made of wood? They were, in many respects, naturally polite; or, at least, cautious of giving offence. Some of them, just before their venturing on board, repeated a long prayer; and others afterwards sung, and made various motions with their hands.

When the boats, with a proper officer, were dispatched to look out for a convenient landing-place, the commodore gave peremptory orders, that none of the crew should go on shore, to prevent, if possible, the importation of a dangerous disease into this island, which he knew some of them now laboured under, and which they unfortunately communicated to other islands in this ocean. From the same motive, he commanded that all female visitants should be excluded from both the ships. Many persons of this sex had come off in the canoes. Their complexion and stature were not very different from those of the men: and though their countenances were extremely open and agreeable, few traces of delicacy were visible, either in their faces or other proportions. The only difference in their dress, was their having a piece of cloth about their bodies, reaching from near the middle, almost down to the knees, instead of the *mara* worn by the male sex.

The ships being brought to anchor, the captain went on shore, and was received in the most submissive manner by the islanders, who fell prostrate upon their faces, and continued in that posture of humiliation till, by signs, he prevailed on them to rise. They then presented to him many small pigs, with plantain-trees, making use of nearly the same ceremonies, which had been practised on similar occasions at the Society and other isles; and a long oration, or prayer, being pronounced by an individual, in which others of the assembly occasionally joined. Captain Cook signified his acceptance of their proffered friendship, by bestowing on them in return such presents as he had brought on shore. Having determined on an

excursion into the country, he was accompanied by two gentlemen, and followed by a numerous train of natives, one of whom, who had been very active in keeping the others in order, the captain made choice of as a guide. This man, from time to time, proclaiming the approach of the strangers, every person who met them fell prostrate on the ground, and remained in that humble position till they had passed. This they were afterwards informed is their method of shewing respect to their own great chiefs.

On their excursion they saw a morai, which bore a striking resemblance, in several respects, to those they had seen at Otaheite, and other islands in this ocean. It was an oblong space, of considerable extent, environed by a stone-wall, four or five feet high. The enclosed space was loosely paved; and at one end of it was placed the obelisk or pyramid, called by the natives *hemanao*, which was an exact model of the larger one that they had discerned from the ships. It was about twenty feet in height, and four feet square at the base. Its four sides were formed of small poles, interwoven with twigs and branches, thus composing an indifferent wicker-work, hollow within, from the top to the bottom. It appeared to be in a ruinous state, and had been originally covered with a thin greyish cloth. On each side of it were long pieces of wicker-work, termed *heraene*, in a condition equally ruinous; with two poles inclining towards each other at one corner, where some plantains were placed on a board, fixed at the height of about half a dozen feet. This was called by the islanders *herairemy*; and they said, that the fruit was an offering to their deity. Before the *hemanao* were several pieces of wood, carved into some resemblance of human figures. There was also a stone near two feet in height, covered with cloth. Adjoining to this, on the outside of the morai, was a small shed, which they denominated *harepahoo*; and before it there was a grave, where the remains of a woman had been deposited. On the further side of the area of the morai, there was a house or shed, called *hemanaa*; it was about forty feet in length, ten or eleven feet in height, and ten in breadth in the middle, but narrower at each end; though considerably longer, it was lower than their common habitations. Opposite the entrance into this house stood two images, near three feet high, cut out of one piece of wood, with pedestals. They were said to be *Eatoa no Vahaina*, or representations of goddesses, and were not very indifferent, either in point of execution or design. On the head of one of them was a cylindrical cap, not unlike the head-dress at Otaheite, called *tomou*; and on that of the other, a carved helmet, somewhat resembling those of the ancient warriors; and both of them had pieces of cloth fastened about the loins, and hanging down a considerable way. There was also, at the side of each, a piece of carved wood, with cloth hung on it. Before the pedestals lay a quantity of fern, which had been placed there at different times. In the middle of the

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A morai, which bore a respects, to those they lands in this ocean. It able extent, environed t high. The enclosed at one end of it was called by the natives model of the larger one ships. It was about feet square at the base. small poles, interwoven mposing an indifferent om the top to the botous state, and had been eyish cloth. On each cker-work, termed heinous; with two poles one corner, where some, fixed at the height of was called by the island- that the fruit was an of- *benanano* were several me resemblance of hu- stone near two feet in djoining to this, on the ll shed, which they de- ore it there was a grave, an had been deposited. of the morai, there was ; it was about forty feet in height, and ten in arrower at each end; was lower than their e the entrance into this three feet high, cut out estals. They were said smentations of goddesses, either in point of head of one of them like the head-dress at n that of the other, s embling those of the of them had pieces of, and hanging down a also, at the side of each, oth hung on it. Before fern, which had been In the middle of the house,

house, and before the images just described, was an oblong space, enclosed by an edging of stone, and covered with the shreds of cloth. This was the grave of seven chiefs, and was called *heneene*.

From the similarity between this morai, and those of the islands they had lately quitted, little doubt was entertained, that a similarity existed also in the rites here solemnized, and particularly in the horrid oblation of human victims. The conception was soon confirmed: for on one side of the entrance into the *hemanaa*, they observed a small square place, and another still smaller; and on asking what these were, they were informed by their conductor, that in one of them was interred a man who had been sacrificed; and in the other a hog, which had also been offered up to the deity. At no great distance from these were three other square enclosed places, with two pieces of carved wood at each of them, and an heap of fern upon them. These were the graves of three chiefs; and before them was an enclosed space, of an oblong figure, called *iangataboo*, by the guide, who declared to them, that three human sacrifices, one at the funeral of each chief, had been there buried. Indeed, there was not room to doubt of the universal prevalence of this practice in the island under description.

Of all the various articles which the natives brought to exchange with the English, nothing so much attracted their notice, and, it might be added, their admiration, as a sort of cloak and cap, which, even in more polished countries, might be esteemed elegant. These cloaks are nearly of the shape and size of the short ones worn by the men in Spain, and by the women in England, tied loosely before, and reaching to the middle of the back. The ground of them is a net work, with the most beautiful red and yellow feathers so closely fixed upon it, that the surface, both in point of smoothness and glossiness, resembles the richest velvet. The method of varying the mixture is very different; some of them having triangular spaces of red and yellow alternately; others, a sort of crescent; while some were entirely red, except that they had a broad yellow border. The brilliant colours of the feathers, in those cloaks that were new; had a very fine effect. The natives, at first, refused to part with one of these cloaks for any thing that was offered in exchange, demanding no less a price than one of the mullets. They afterwards, however, received as the purchase of them some very large nails. Those of the best sort were scarce; and it is probable, that they are used only on particular occasions. The caps are made in the form of an helmet, with the middle part, or crest, frequently of an hand's breadth. They fit very close upon the head, and have notches to admit the ears. They consist of twigs and osiers, covered with a network, into which feathers are wrought, as upon the cloaks, but somewhat closer, and less diversified; the major part being red, with some yellow, green, or black stripes on the sides. These caps, in all probabi-

lity, complete the dress with the cloaks; for the islanders appeared sometimes in both together.

At first it was not easy to conjecture by what means they procured such a quantity of these beautiful feathers, but were soon made acquainted with that particular from the great number of skins of a small red species of bird they brought for sale. Those that were first purchased consisted only of the skin from behind the shoulder of the wings; but they afterwards got many with the hind part, including the feet and tail. The reason assigned by the inhabitants of Atooi, for the custom of cutting off the feet of these birds is, that by this practice they can preserve them the more easily, without losing any part which they consider as valuable. The red bird of this island was a species of merops, about as large as a sparrow: its colour was a beautiful scarlet, with the tail and wings black; and it had an arched bill, twice as long as the head, which, with the feet, was of a reddish hue. The contents of the head were taken out, as in the birds of paradise. But it was not observed, that they practised any other mode of preserving them, than simple drying; for the skins, though they were moist, had neither smell or taste.

It appears that the inhabitants of this island feed upon human flesh. One of them that came out in a canoe, bringing articles by way of barter, and amongst the rest some fish-hooks, was observed to have a very small parcel fastened to the string of one of them, which he carefully separated, and reserved for himself, when he disposed of the hook. Upon inquiry what it was, he pointed to his belly, and intimated something of its being dead; saying, at the same time, that it was bad. He was requested to open the parcel, which he did with great reluctance, and it was found that it contained a small thin piece of flesh; which had, to all appearance, been dried, but was then wet with salt water. Our people imagining it might be human flesh, put the question to the producer of it; who answered, that the flesh was part of a man. Another of the islanders, who stood near him, was then asked, whether it was a custom among them to eat their enemies who had been slain in battle, on which he replied in the affirmative. Yet further inquiries on this subject were made. A small instrument of wood, beset with shark's teeth, had been purchased, which, as it resembled the saw or knife made use of by the savages of New Zealand, to dissect the bodies of their enemies, was suspected to be employed here for the same purpose. One of the islanders being questioned on this point, acknowledged that the instrument before mentioned served the purpose of cutting out the fleshy part of the belly, when any person was slain. This explained and confirmed the circumstance before related, of the man's pointing to his belly: The native, however, from whom this intelligence was received, being asked, whether his countrymen ever fed on the part thus cut out, strongly denied it; but, when the question was repeated, he shewed some degree of apprehension, and swam off to his canoe.

canoe. An elderly man, who sat foremost in the canoe, was then asked whether they eat the flesh, and he answered in the affirmative. The question being put a second time, he again affirmed the fact, adding, that it was savory food. The inquiry, whether these islanders were cannibals, was renewed when the ships were off Oneehow. The subject did not arise from any questions put by their visitors, but from a circumstance that seemed to remove all doubt. One of the natives, who wished to get in at the gun-room port, was refused; and he then asked, whether they would kill and eat him, if he should come in; accompanying this question with signs so expressive, that a doubt could not be entertained with respect to his meaning. Our people had now an opportunity of retorting the question as to this practice; when a man behind the other in the canoe, instantly replied, that if they were killed on shore, they would not scruple to eat them: not that he meant the natives would destroy them for that purpose, but that their devouring them would be the consequence of creating enmity.

The following are some additional observations made by Captain Cook on the island of which we are here treating.

Further Particulars relative to Atooi. Soil, Climate, Animal, and Vegetable Productions. Dress, Habitations, Music, Weapons, Agriculture, and Manners of the Inhabitants.

THE island of Atooi is at least ten leagues from east to west, from whence its circumference may be nearly guessed.

The land does not in the least resemble, in its general appearance, any of the islands which our late navigators had visited within the tropic of Capricorn, except in its hills near the centre, which are high, but slope gradually towards the sea, or lower lands. Though it presents not to the view the delightful borders of Otaheite, nor the luxuriant plains of Tongataboo, covered with trees, which at once afford a shelter from the scorching rays of the sun, a beautiful prospect to the eye, and food for the natives, yet its possessing a greater portion of gently rising land renders it, in some degree, superior to the above-mentioned favourite islands, as being more capable of improvement. The height of the land within, and the number of clouds hanging over it, seemed to indicate that there was a sufficient supply of water, and that there were some running streams, though our people had not an opportunity of seeing them. The ground, from the woody part to the sea, was covered with an excellent kind of grass, about two feet in height, which sometimes grew in tufts, and appeared capable of being converted into abundant crops of fine hay. But on this extensive space not even a shrub grew naturally. In the narrow valley leading to the morai the soil is of a dark brown colour, rather

loose; but on the high ground it is of a reddish brown, more stiff and clayey. Its quality may be better estimated from its productions, than from its appearance. For the vale, or moist ground, produces taro, much larger than any seen before; and the more elevated ground sweet potatoes, that seldom weigh less than two or three pounds, frequently ten, and sometimes a dozen or fourteen.

The temperature of the climate may be easily guessed from the situation of the island. It was remarked, however, by those who were most capable of judging, that, from what they experienced, it might be said to be very variable; for, according to the general opinion, it was, at this time, the season of the year when the weather is supposed to be the most settled, the sun being at its greatest annual distance. The heat was now very moderate; and few of those inconveniences to which many countries lying within the tropics are subject, either from heat or moisture, seemed to be experienced here. Nor were there any dews of consequence; a circumstance which may partly be accounted for by the lower part of the country being destitute of trees. The rock that constitutes the sides of the valley is a dark grey ponderous stone, but honey-combed, with some spots of a rusty colour, and some very minute shining particles interperfed. It is of an immense depth, and seems to be divided into strata, though nothing is interposed; for the large pieces always broke off to a determined thickness, and did not appear to have adhered to those that were below them. Other stones are, in all probability, much more various than in the southern islands. For during the short time the ships remained here, besides the *lapis hydius*, was found a species of cream-coloured whetstone, sometimes variegated with whiter or blacker veins, like marble; and also common writing slate.

The only tame or domestic animals found here were hogs, dogs, and fowls, which were all of the same kind as those met with in the South-Sea islands in general. There were some small lizards and some rats, resembling those of the other islands.

The voyagers did not meet with scarlet birds alive that were brought for sale; but saw one small one, about the size of a canary bird, of a deep crimson colour. They also saw a large owl, two brown hawks or kites, and a wild duck; and heard from the natives the names of some other birds, among which were the *otou*, or bluish bird, and the *tarata*, a sort of whimbrel. It is probable that the species of birds are numerous, if a judgment may be formed from the quantity of fine yellow, green, and small, velvet-like, blackish feathers used upon the cloaks, and other ornaments, worn by these people. The island did not appear to produce fish either in quantity or variety, as the only fish seen by our people, besides the small mackerel, were common mullets; a species of a chalky colour; a small brownish rock fish, adorned with blue spots; a turtle, which was penned up in a pond; and three or four

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of a reddish brown, may be better distinguished from its appearance. It produces tar, much of the more elevated kind weigh less than n, and sometimes a

may be easily guessed. It was remarked, that it is not capable of judging, it might be said to be the general opinion, of the year when the settlement, the sun be-

The heat was now of these inconveniences to in the tropics are subjected, seemed to be experienced of consequence; it is accounted for by being destitute of trees. The valley is a honey-combed, with and some very minute. It is of an immense extent into strata, though no pieces always broke and did not appear to be below them. Other such more various than during the short time the *Lapis lydus*, was found in stone, sometimes various veins, like marble;

Animals found here were all of the same kind. Sea islands in general, and some rats, resemble

with scarlet birds alive saw one small one, about a deep crimson colour. Brown hawks or kites, and the natives the names which were the *otoo*, or sort of whimbrel. Birds are numerous, if a quantity of fine net-like, blackish feathers or ornaments, worn by not appear to produce y, as the only fish seen all mackerel, were of a chalky colour; a small with blue spots; a turtle, and; and three or four

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forts of fish salted. The few shell-fish seen were converted into ornaments, though they were destitute of the recommendation either of beauty or novelty.

There are six different kinds of plantains; bread-fruit, a few cocoa-palms, some yams, the kappee of the Friendly-Islands, or Virginian arum; the etooa tree, and odoriferous gardenia, or cape jesmine. There were several trees of the dooe dooe, that bear the oily nuts, which are stuck upon a kind of skewer, and made use of as candles. The islanders wear these nuts, hung on strings, round their necks. There is a species of sida, or Indian mallow; also the *morinda citrifolia*, which is here called *none*; a species of convolvulus, the *ava*, or intoxicating pepper, besides a great quantity of gourds. These last grow to a very large size, and are of a remarkable variety of shapes, which are, perhaps, the effect of art. Upon the dry sand, about the village, grew a plant, that had never been seen by our people in this ocean, of the size of a common thistle and prickly, but bearing a fine flower, greatly resembling a white poppy.

The natives of Atooi appear to be of a frank, cheerful disposition; equally free from the sickle levity that characterizes the inhabitants of Otaheite, and the sedate cast which is observable among many of those of Tongataboo. They seem to cultivate a social intercourse with each other, and, except the propensity to thieving, which is, as it were, innate in most of the people of these seas, they were exceeding friendly. When they saw the different articles of European manufacture, they could not refrain from expressing their astonishment, by a mixture of joy and concern, that seemed to apply the case as a lesson of humility to themselves; and, on every occasion, appeared to have a proper consciousness of their own inferiority. It was pleasing to observe with what affection the women managed their infants, and with what alacrity the men contributed their assistance in such a tender office. They are active, vigorous, and expert swimmers; leaving their canoes upon the most frivolous occasion, diving under them, and swimming to others, though at a considerable distance. Women were frequently seen with infants at their breasts, when the surf was so high as to prevent their landing in their canoes, to leap overboard, and swim on shore.

If judgment might be formed from the number seen by our people as they ranged along the coast, the inhabitants of this island are pretty numerous. Including the straggling houses, there might, perhaps, be in the whole island sixty such villages as that near which the ships anchored; and, if allowance is made of five persons to each house, there would be, in every village, five hundred; or thirty thousand upon the island. This number is by no means exaggerated, for there were sometimes three thousand people, at least, collected on the beach, when it could not be supposed that above a tenth part of the natives were present.

Having already described the ordinary dresses of the

natives of both sexes; we shall now attend to particulars. The women have often much larger pieces of cloth wrapped about them, extending from just below the breasts to the hams, and sometimes lower; and several were observed with pieces thrown loosely over their shoulders, which covered the greatest part of the body; but the children, when very young, go entirely naked. They do not wear any thing on the head; but the hair, both of men and women, is cut in various forms, and the general fashion, particularly among the latter, is to have it short behind and long before. The men frequently had it cut on each side in such a manner, that the remaining part somewhat resembled the crest of their caps or helmets. Both sexes, however, seemed to be very careless about their hair, and had no combs, or any thing of the kind, to dress it. The men sometimes twist it into a number of separate parcels, like the tails of a wig, each about as thick as a finger; though most of these, which are so long as to reach far down the back, are artificially fixed upon the head, over their own hair. The people of the Sandwich-Isles have not their ears perforated, nor do they wear any ornaments in them. Both men and women, however, adorn themselves with necklaces composed of bunches of small black cord, like our hat-string, often above an hundred-fold. They have also necklaces of many strings of very small shells, or of the dried flowers of the Indian mallow; and they sometimes hang round their necks a small human figure of bone, about the length of three inches. The women likewise wear bracelets of a single shell, pieces of black wood, with bits of ivory interspersed, and neatly polished, fastened together by a string drawn closely through them; or others of hogs' teeth placed parallel to each other, with the concave part outward, and the points cut off; some of which, formed only of large boars' tusks, appeared very elegant. The men sometimes fix on their heads plumes of feathers of the tropic bird, or those of cocks, fastened round neat polished sticks two feet in length; and, for the same purpose, they sew the skin of a white dog's tail over a stick, with its tuft at the end. They also frequently wear on the head a kind of ornament about the thickness of a finger, covered with yellow and red feathers, curiously varied, and tied behind; and, on that part of the arm which is above the elbow, a sort of broad shell-work grounded upon net-work. The men sometimes puncture themselves upon the hands or arms, but frequently no marks at all were seen; though a few individuals had more of this species of ornament than had been usually noticed at other places, and curiously executed in a great variety of lines and figures, on the arms and fore-part of the body.

Their habitations are scattered about without the least order; some are large and commodious, from 40 to 50 feet in length, and 20 or 30 in breadth; while others are the most contemptible hovels. Their figure resembles that of hay-stacks; or, perhaps, a better idea may be conceived of them, by supposing the roof of a

barn placed on the ground in such a manner as to form an high sharp ridge with two low sides. The gable at each end, corresponding to the sides, makes these dwelling-places close all round; and they are well covered with long grass, which is laid on slender poles. The entrance is made either in the end or side, and is an oblong hole extremely low: it is often shut up by a board of planks fastened together, which serves as a door; but, as it has no hinges, may be removed occasionally. No light enters the house except by this opening; and though such close habitations may be comfortable places of retreat in bad weather, they seem but ill adapted to the warm climate of this country.

They are kept remarkably clean, however, and the floors are strewn with dried grass, over which mats are spread to sit, or to sleep on. At one end stands a bench about three feet high, on which the domestic utensils are placed. These consist of gourd-shells, which the natives convert into vessels that serve as bottles to hold water, and as baskets to contain their food and other things; they have also a few wooden bowls and trenchers of various sizes. Sweet potatoes and plantains constitute the principal part of their vegetable diet; so that yams and bread-fruit are rather to be considered as rarities. Of animal food they appear to be in no want, as they have great numbers of hogs, which run without restraint about the houses; and, if they eat dogs, which is not altogether improbable, their stock of these seemed very considerable. The quantities of fishing-hooks found among them indicated that they procure some supply of food from the sea. They have a custom of salting fish, and likewise pork, which they preserve in gourd-shells. The salt which they use for this purpose is of a reddish colour, but not very coarse.

Their vegetable articles of food they bake with heated stones; and from the great quantity which was seen dressed at one time, it was supposed that all the inhabitants of a village, or at least a considerable number of people, joined in the use of a common oven. They eat out of a sort of wooden trenchers, and, as far as our people could judge from one instance, the women, if restrained from feeding at the same dish, as is the custom at Otaheite, are at least allowed to eat at the same place near them.

The diversions of these islanders are various. The English did not see the dances in which they use the feathered cloaks and caps; but, from the motions which they made with their hands, on other occasions, when they sung, they judged that they were somewhat similar to those they had met with at the southern islands, tho' not so skilfully performed. They had not among them either flutes or reeds, and the only two musical instruments seen were of a very rude kind. One of them does not produce a sound superior to that of a child's rattle. It consists of what may be denominated a conic cap inverted, but very little hollowed at the base, made of a sedge-like plant, the upper part of which, and likewise the edges, are embellish'd with beautiful red

feathers, and to the point, or lower part, is fixed a gourd-shell. Into this they put something to rattle, which is done by holding the instrument by the small part, and shaking it briskly before the face, at the same time striking the breast with the other hand. The other instrument was a hollow vessel of wood not unlike a platter, combined with the use of two sticks, on which one of the natives was observed performing. He held one of the sticks, about two feet in length, with one hand, in the same manner as the Europeans hold a violin, and struck it with the other, which was smaller, and resembled a drum-stick, in a quicker or slower measure; beating with his foot at the same time upon the hollow vessel that lay upon the ground inverted, and thus producing a tune that was not disagreeable. This music was accompanied by the vocal performance of some women, whose song had a pleasing effect.

Much ingenuity is displayed in their different manufactures. Their cloth is made from the *morus papyrifera*, and, doubtless, in the same manner as at Tongataboo and Otaheite; as some of the grooved sticks were bought with which they beat it. Its texture, however, though thicker, is inferior to that of the cloth of either of the places just mentioned; but in colouring or staining it, the inhabitants of Atooi display a superiority of taste, by the infinite variety of figures which they execute. Their colours, indeed, are not very bright, except the red; but the regularity of the figures and stripes is amazing; for, as far as was known, they have nothing like stamps or prints, to make the impressions. Besides the variegated sorts, they have some pieces of plain white cloth, and others of a single colour, particularly light blue, and dark brown. In general, the pieces brought for exchange, were about the breadth of two feet, and four or five yards in length, being the form and quantity made use of by them for their common dress, or *maro*; and even some of these were composed of pieces sewed together. They have also a particular sort that is thin, and greatly resembles oil-cloth; and which is either oiled or soaked in some kind of varnish. They fabricate numbers of white mats, which are strong, with many red stripes, quadrangular and other figures interwoven on one side. These, in all probability, make a part of their dress; for when they offered them to sale, they put them on their backs. They manufacture others of a coarser sort, plain and strong, which they spread over their floors to sleep upon.

Their gourd-shells they stain neatly with undulated lines, triangles, and other figures of a black colour. They also seem to be acquainted with the art of varnishing; for some of their stained gourd-shells are covered with a sort of lacker; and, on other occasions, they make use of a strong size, or glutinous substance, to fasten things together. Their wooden dishes and bowls, out of which they drink their *ava*, are of the *ctoa* tree, or *cordia*, extremely neat, and well polished. They likewise make small square fans of mat or wicker work

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with handles of the same, or of wood, tapering from
them, which are curiously wrought with small cords of
hair and cocoa-nut fibres intermixed. Their fishing-
hooks are ingeniously made; some of bone, many of
pearl-shell, and others of wood, pointed with bone.
The bones are for the most part small, and consist of
two pieces; and the various sorts have a barb, either on
the inside, or the outside: but others have both, the
exterior one being furthest from the point. Of the lat-
ter sort, one was procured, nine inches in length, made
of a single piece of bone; the elegant form and polish
of which could not be exceeded by any European arti-
st. They polish their stones by constant friction, with
pumice-stone in water; and such of the tools as were
seen resembled those of the southern islanders. Their
hatchets, or rather adzes, were exactly of the same pat-
tern, and were either formed of a blackish stone, or of
a clay-coloured one. They have also small instruments,
composed of a single shark's tooth, some of which are
fixed to the fore part of the jaw-bone of a dog, and
others to a thin wooden handle of a similar shape; and
at the other end there is a bit of string fastened through
a little hole. They serve occasionally as knives, and
are probably used in carving. The only iron tools seen
among them, and which they possessed before the arrival
of our ships, were a piece of iron hoop, about the
length of two inches, fitted into a wooden handle; and
another edge-tool, which was supposed to have been
made of the point of a broad sword. Their having the
actual possession of these, and their being acquainted
with the use of this metal, inclined some of our people
to imagine, that they were not the first European visi-
tors of these islands. But the very great surprise which
they testified on seeing the ships, and their perfect igno-
rance of the use of fire-arms, cannot be reconciled with
such an opinion. However, some have thought that the
natives of Atooi might have received this metal from
intermediate islands, situated between them and the La-
drones, which the Spaniards have frequented almost
ever since the period of Magellan's voyage in 1719.

Besides their spears, formed of a fine brownish wood,
beautifully polished, some of which are barbed at one
end, and flattened to a point at the other, they have a
kind of weapon which the voyagers had never met with
before: it somewhat resembles a dagger, and is, in gen-
eral, about eighteen inches in length, sharpened at one
or both ends, and secured to the hand by a string. Its
use is to stab in close combat, and seems well adapted for
that purpose. Some of these may be denominated double
daggers, having a handle in the middle, by which
they are the better calculated to strike different ways.
They have likewise bows and arrows; but, both from
their slender construction, and their apparent scarcity, it
is probable that they never make use of them in battle.
The knife or saw, with which they dissect the dead
bodies of their enemies, may also be ranked among their
weapons, as they both strike and cut with it when en-
gaged in close fight. It is a small flat wooden instru-

ment, about a foot in length, of an oval shape,
rounded at the corners: its edges are furrowed with
sharks' teeth, strongly fixed to it, and pointing out-
wards; and it has generally a hole in the handle, through
which passes a long string, which they wrap several
times round the wrist.

Their canoes are commonly about four and twenty
feet in length, and have the bottom, in general, formed
of a single piece of wood, hollowed out to the thickness
of an inch, or more, and brought to a point at each end.
The sides are composed of three boards, each about an
inch thick, neatly fitted, and lashed to the bottom. The
extremities, both at the head and stern, are a little
elevated, and both are made sharp, somewhat resembling
a wedge, but they flatten more abruptly, so that the two
side-boards join each other, side by side, for upwards of
a foot. As they seldom exceed a foot and a half in
breadth, those that go single (for they sometimes join
them) have out-riggers, which are shaped and fitted with
more judgment than any before seen. They are rowed
by paddles, such as had been generally observed at other
islands: and some of them have a light triangular sail,
extended to a mast or boom. The ropes which they use
for their boats, and the smaller cords for their fishing-
tackle, are strong, and neatly made.

The natives seem to possess a knowledge of agricul-
ture. The vale-ground is one continued plantation of
taro, and some other articles, which have all the appear-
ance of being carefully attended to. The potato-fields,
and spots of sugar-cane, or plantains, on the higher
grounds, are planted with great regularity; but neither
these, or the others, are enclosed with any fence, unless
the ditches in the low grounds may be considered as
such: which, it is more probable, are designed to con-
vey water to the taro. The great quantity and excel-
lence of these articles may, perhaps, be as much owing
to skilful culture, as natural fertility of soil, which seems
better adapted to them, than to bread-fruit and cocoa-
nut trees; the few of these latter which were seen, not
being in a thriving state. Notwithstanding this skill in
agriculture, the island, from its general appearance,
seemed to be capable of more extensive improvement,
and of maintaining thrice as many inhabitants as are
now upon it; for the greater part of it, that now lies
waste, was apparently as good a soil as those parts that
were cultivated. It must therefore be inferred, that
these people do increase in that proportion, which would
render it necessary for them to take advantage of the
extent of their island, towards raising a greater quantity
of its vegetable productions for their maintenance.

There was not an opportunity of forming an accu-
rate judgment of the mode of government established
amongst these people; but, from our general observa-
tion, it seemed reasonable to imagine, that it is of the
same nature with that which prevails in all the islands
they had hitherto visited; and, in all probability, their
wars among themselves are equally frequent. This in-
deed might be inferred from the number of weapons
which

which were found in their possession, and from the excellent order in which they kept them. But they had proofs of the fact from their own confession; being informed, these wars are carried on between the different districts of their own island, as well as between it and the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands. No other cause than this need be assigned, to account for the appearance before mentioned, or their population not being proportioned to the extent of their ground that is capable of cultivation.

Besides observing in general that there is an affinity between the manners of these people, and the natives of the Friendly and Society-Islands, here follow a few particulars, that will serve to place this in a striking point of view.

As to religious institutions, and the manner of disposing of the dead, the inhabitants of Tongataboo bury the dead with great decency, and they also inter their human sacrifices; but they do not offer any other animal, or even a vegetable to their deities. The Otaheiteans do not inter their dead, but expose them to waste by time and putrefaction, though they afterwards bury the bones; and this being the case, it is remarkable that they should inter the entire bodies of their human sacrifices. They also offer up to their gods other animals and vegetables; but are far from being attentive to the condition of the places where they celebrate those solemn rites; most of their morais being in a ruinous state, and shewing manifest tokens of neglect. The people of Atooi, again, bury both their common dead, and their human sacrifices, as at Tongataboo; but they resemble those of Otaheite, in offering vegetables and animals to their gods, and in the neglected state of their religious places. It may be observed, also, that the taboo also prevails in Atooi, in its full extent, and apparently with greater strictness than even at Tongataboo: for the natives here always asked with great eagerness, and with indications of a fear of offending, whether any particular thing which they desired to see, or their visitors were willing to shew, was taboo, or (as they pronounced the word) tafoo? meaning, forbidden. The language used in both places may be said to be almost entirely the same.

Discovery of Mowee and Owhyhee. Character of the Natives of the latter. Karakakoo-Bay described. Ceremonies and Customs of the Natives. Captain Cook's Reception there.

BEFORE our navigators had sufficient refreshments, they were obliged to quit these islands. The anchor of the Resolution having started, she drove off the bank a considerable way to the leeward of the ship's last station; so that the commodore foreseeing it would require more time to regain it than he chose to employ, he made the signal for the Discovery to weigh anchor,

and both ships directed their course to the northward, in prosecution of discoveries; which was in February 1778.

Captain Cook, after having explored the dreary regions of the north, for the course of several succeeding months, determined to revisit the Sandwich-Islands, in order to pass a few of the winter months, provided he should meet with the necessary refreshments.

From a more extensive view of the spot on the second visit, which was November 26, 1771, it appeared that the former discovery made by these, of the group of islands, had been imperfect; those which they had visited in their progress northward, all lying to the leeward of their present station.

An elevated hill appeared in the country, whose summit rose above the clouds. The land, from this hill, fell in a gradual slope, terminating in a steep rocky coast; the sea breaking against it in a most dreadful manner. Unable to weather the island, they bore up, and ranged to the westward. They now perceived people on many parts of the shore, and several houses and plantations. The country appeared to be well supplied with wood and water, and streams were seen, in various places, falling into the sea.

The chief design of revisiting these islands, being to procure a competent supply of provisions, must have been frustrated, if a free trade with the natives was permitted; Captain Cook therefore published an order, prohibiting all persons on board the ship from trading, except those appointed by himself and Captain Clerke; and these were under limitations of trading only for provisions and refreshments. Injunctions were also laid against the admittance of women into the ships, but under certain restrictions: but the evil which was intended to have been prevented by this regulation had already got amongst them. While the ships were ranging along the coast, some canoes came off, and when they got along-side, many of the conductors of them came on board without hesitation. It was perceived that they were of the same nation as those islanders more to the leeward, which they had already visited; and, as they understood, were no strangers to their having been there. These visitors supplied them with a quantity of cuttle fish, in exchange for nails and iron. They brought but little fruit or roots, but said they had plenty of them on their island, as well as hogs and fowls. Many of them afterwards brought divers commodities, which were bartered for such articles as our people had to dispose of. This island was called by the natives Mowee. The chief, who is named Terreeoboo, visited the commodore on board, and made him a present in the usual form.

Another island was soon after seen to the windward, called by the natives Owhyhee. Standing on and off during the night, the English were greatly surprised in the morning, at seeing the summits of the mountain covered with snow. Though they were not of an extraordinary height, the snow, in some places, ap-

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mained there some time. Drawing near the shore, the
natives approached, and appeared a little shy at first;
but some were prevailed on to come on board, and, at
length, induced to return to the island, to bring a
supply of what was wanted. Numbers followed, and
brought a tolerable supply of pigs, fruit, and roots.

The commodore having procured a great quantity
of sugar-cane, and, upon trial, discovering that a de-
coction of it made very palatable beer, he ordered some
of it to be brewed for general use; but, on broaching
the casks, not one of the crew would even taste the
liquor. Having no other motive in preparing this be-
verage, than that of preserving the spirits for a colder
climate, he neither exerted his authority, nor had re-
course to persuasion, to induce them to drink it; well
knowing, that so long as they could be plentifully sup-
plied with vegetables, there was no danger of the
scurvy; but, that he might not be disappointed in his
views, he ordered that no grog should be served in
either of the ships. The officers continued to drink
this sugar-cane beer, whenever materials could be pro-
cured for brewing it. Some hops, which were on
board, improved it much; and it was, doubtless, ex-
tremely wholesome; though the inconsiderate crew
thought it injurious to their health.

The voyagers met with less reserve and suspicion,
in their intercourse with the people of this island, than
they had ever experienced among any tribe of savages.
They frequently sent up into the ship, the articles they
meant to barter, and afterwards came in themselves to
traffic on the quarter-deck. The inhabitants of Ota-
heite, whom they had often visited, had not that con-
fidence in their integrity; whence it may be inferred,
that those of Owhyhee are more faithful in their deal-
ings with each other, than those of Otaheite.

At first, they never attempted to over-reach in ex-
changes, or to commit a single theft. They perfectly
understood trading, and clearly comprehended the rea-
son of the ships plying upon the coast. For though
they brought off plenty of pigs, and other provisions,
they were particular in keeping up their price; and,
rather than dispose of them at an undervalue, would
carry them ashore again. Canoes, however, coming
off from all quarters, there were at least a thousand
about the two ships, crowded with people, and laden
with hogs and other provisions. Our people were
perfectly convinced of their having no hostile inten-
tions; not a single person having a weapon with him
of any sort. Trade and curiosity were their only in-
ducements to make the visit. From the numbers
frequently on board, it might be expected that some
of them would betray a thievish disposition. One of
them took a boat's rudder from the ship, and was not
detected, till it was too late to recover it. Captain
Cook imagined this to be a proper opportunity to shew
these islanders the use of fire-arms. Two or three
muskets, and as many four-pounders, were, by his

orders, fired over the canoe which went away with the
rudder: but as the shot was not intended to take the
effect, the surrounding multitude were only surprised
and frightened.

The ships anchoring in the bay, called by the na-
tives Karakahooa-Bay, they continued much crowded
with the natives, and surrounded by a vast multitude of
canoes. In the course of their voyage, such vast
numbers of people had not been seen assembled at one
place. Besides those who came in canoes, all the shore
was covered with spectators; and hundreds were
swimming about the ships, like shoals of fish. They
were struck with the singularity of this scene; and few
on board lamented their having sailed in their late en-
deavours, to find a northern passage homeward the last
summer; since to this disappointment they were in-
debted for revisiting the Sandwich-Islands, and for en-
riching their voyage with a discovery, in many respects,
the most important that has been made by Europeans,
in the Pacific-Ocean.

This bay is situated in the district of Akona, on the
west side of the island of Owhyhee. It extends about
a mile in depth, and is bounded by two points of land,
bearing south-east and north-west from each other, at
the distance of half a league. The north point is flat
and barren, on which is situated the village of Kow-
rowa. A more considerable village, called Kakooa,
stands in the bottom of the bay, near a grove of stately
cocoa-trees. An high rocky cliff, inaccessible from the
sea-shore, runs between them. Near the coast, on the
south-side, the land has a rugged appearance; beyond
which the country gradually rises, and abounds with
cultivated enclosures, and groves of cocoa-trees. The
habitations of the people are scattered about in great
numbers. Round the bay the shore is covered with a
black coral rock, except at Kakooa, where there is an
excellent sandy beach, with a morai at one extremity,
and a spring of fresh water at the other.

As soon as the ships were brought to anchor, the
natives came off in astonishing numbers, expressing
their joy by singing, shouting, and the most extrava-
gant gestures. The decks, sides, and rigging, of the
ships, were covered with them. Women and boys,
who were unable to procure canoes, came swimming
round in great multitudes; some of whom, not finding
room to get on board, amused themselves the whole
day by playing in the water.

A chief called Pareea was amongst those of the na-
tives who came on board the Resolution. Though a
young man, he was soon discovered to be a person of
great authority. He told Captain Cook that he was
Jakane to the sovereign of the island, who was then on
a military expedition at Mowhee, from whence he
was expected to return in a few days. It was not
known whether the word *Jakane* was a name of office,
or expressive of affinity. Some presents from the
commodore attached him to their interests, and they
found him exceedingly useful. Before they had been

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long at anchor, the Discovery had so many people hanging on one side, that she was observed to heel considerably; and it appeared impossible to prevent the crowds from pressing into her. Captain Cook, apprehensive that she might receive some injury, communicated his apprehensions to Pareea, who instantly cleared the ship of its incumbrances, and dispersed the canoes that surrounded her. From this circumstance, it is plain that the chiefs have a most despotic authority over the inferior people. An instance similar to this happened on board the Resolution, where the crowd so far impeded the ordinary business of the ship, that it was found necessary to apply to Kaneena, another chief, who had also attached himself particularly to Captain Cook. The inconvenience suffered was no sooner mentioned, than he ordered the natives immediately to quit the vessel, when, without a moment's hesitation, they all jumped overboard, except one person, who loitering behind, and, by his manner, expressing some degree of unwillingness to obey, Kaneena took hold of him immediately, and threw him into the sea. These two chiefs were exceedingly well proportioned, and had countenances remarkably pleasing. Kaneena was a fine figure. His height was about six feet; his features were regular and expressive; his deportment was easy, firm, and graceful; and he had dark lively eyes.

The two chiefs, Pareea and Kaneena, afterwards introduced a third on board, whose name was Koah. He was represented as a priest, and one who, in his early days, had distinguished himself as a warrior. He was a little, old, emaciated figure, having sore red eyes, and his body covered with a leprous scurf, occasioned by the immoderate use of the ava. Being conducted to the cabin, he approached the commodore with the greatest deference, threw a piece of red cloth over his shoulders, and retreating a few paces, made an offering of a small pig, at the same time pronouncing a discourse of a considerable length.

During their continuance at Owhyhee, this ceremony was repeated often, and, from a variety of circumstances, it seemed to be a kind of religious adoration. Red cloth is an article with which their idols are arrayed; and a pig is a common offering to the Eatooas. Their speeches were delivered with a volubility that indicated them to be conformable to some ritual.

At the conclusion of this ceremony, Koah dined with the commodore, and ate plentifully of the viands before him; but, like most of the islanders in those seas, he could hardly be induced to taste wine or spirits a second time. In the evening, the commodore went on shore. As soon as they landed on the beach, they were preceded by four men, bearing each a wand tipped with dog's hair, and pronouncing, with a loud voice, a short sentence, in which the word Orono was very distinguishable. The crowd assembled on the shore, retired at their approach; and not an individual was to

be seen, except a few who had prostrated themselves on the ground, near the habitations of the adjacent village. Here it may be proper to observe, that Orono, which was Captain Cook's general appellation among the natives of Owhyhee, was sometimes applied by them to an invisible being inhabiting heaven. It was also a title of great rank in the island.

Though we have already mentioned several morai appertaining to different islands of the South-Seas, that of Owhyhee is so singular in its construction, and so peculiar in its ceremonies, that we shall here describe it.

This morai consisted of a square solid pile of stones, of the length of forty yards, the breadth of twenty, and the height of fourteen. The top of it was flat, and a wooden rail surrounded it, on which were displayed the skulls of those natives who had been sacrificed on the deaths of their chiefs. A ruinous wooden building was situated in the centre of the area, connected with the rail by a stone wall, dividing the whole space into two parts. Five poles, of about twenty feet in height, supported an irregular kind of scaffold, on the side next the country; and, on the side towards the sea, were two small houses, with a covered communication.

Captain Cook, accompanied by a party of gentlemen, was conducted to the summit of this pile by Koah, one of the chiefs before-mentioned. They beheld, at their entrance, two large wooden images, with most distorted features, having a long piece of wood proceeding from the top of their heads, of a conical form inverted: the other parts were covered with red cloth. Here Captain Cook was received by a tall young man, having a long beard, who presented him to the images, and chanted a kind of hymn, in which he was assisted by Koah. The party were then led to that side of the morai where the poles were erected, at the foot of which twelve images were ranged in the form of a semicircle; the middle figure having a high table before it, on which was a putrid hog, and under it some cocoa-nuts, plantains, potatoes, bread-fruit, and pieces of sugar-cane. The commodore was conducted under this stand by Koah, who, taking down the hog, held it towards him, when, having again addressed him in a long and vehement speech, he suffered it to fall upon the ground, and ascended the scaffolding with him, though at the peril of their falling. Ten men now advanced in solemn procession, and entered the top of the morai, bearing a live hog, and a piece of large red cloth of considerable dimensions. Advancing a few paces, they stopped, and prostrated themselves; and a young man approaching them, received the cloth, and carried it to Koah, who wrapped it round Captain Cook, and made him an offering of the hog. The situation of their visitor was truly whimsical. He was aloft, swathed in red cloth, and hardly able to keep his hold in the rotten scaffolding. He was entertained, however, with the chanting of
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Koah and Kaireekēea, sometimes in concert, and some-
times alternately.

After this office was performed, which was of
considerable duration, Koah let the hog drop, and he
and his guest immediately descended. He then con-
ducted him to the images, to each of which he expressed
himself in a sneering tone, snapping his fingers at them
as he passed. He then presented him to that in the cen-
tre, which, from its being habited in red cloth, ap-
peared to be in the highest estimation. He fell prostrate
before this figure, and kissed it, requesting Captain
Cook would do the same; which he readily submitted to,
being determined to follow Koah's directions through-
out the whole of this ceremony. The party were
now conveyed into the other division of the morai,
where a space, of about twelve feet square, was sunk
three feet below the level of the area. They descended
into this, and Captain Cook was immediately seated be-
tween two idols, one of his arms being supported by
Koah, and an officer was requested to support the other.
A second procession of natives at this time arrived
with a baked hog, a pudding, some cocoa-nuts, bread-
fruit, and other vegetables. As they drew near, Kai-
reekea placed himself before them, and presented the
hog to the commodore, in the usual manner, chanting
as before, and his companions making regular responses.
Their speeches and responses grew gradually shorter and
shorter; and, towards the conclusion, Kaireekēea's did
not exceed three or four words, which was answered by
the word Orono.

The natives, having concluded this offering, seated
themselves fronting our people, and began to cut up the
baked hog, to break the cocoa-nuts, and to peel the
vegetables. Others were employed in brewing the ava,
by chewing it in the same manner as at the Friendly-
Islands. Kaireekēea then chewed part of the kernel of
a cocoa-nut, and wrapped it in a piece of cloth, with
which he rubbed the captain's head, face, hands, arms,
and shoulders. The ava was afterwards handed round,
and when they had all tasted it, Koah and Pareea pulled
the flesh of the hog in pieces, and proceeded to put
some of it into the mouths of the English. An officer
had no particular objection to being fed by Pareea, who
was remarkably cleanly in his person; but Capt. Cook,
to whom a piece was presented by Koah, could not swal-
low a morsel, the putrid hog being strong in his recol-
lection; and the old man having, from motives of civi-
lity, chewed it for him, his reluctance was much in-
creased by that circumstance.

When the ceremony was finished, the party quitted
the morai, after distributing among the populace some
pieces of iron, and other articles, with which they were
much delighted. They were then conducted in pro-
cession to the boats, the men attending with wands, and
pronouncing sentences as before. Most of the natives
again retired, and the remaining few prostrated them-
selves as they passed along the shore.

Some curiosity being excited by the regular attend-

ance of the priests at the morai, the party determined to
visit the habitations of a society of them which they had
lately discovered. Their huts were erected round a
pond enclosed with a grove of cocoa-trees, by which
they were separated from the beach and the village, and
which gave the situation an air of religious retirement.
When Captain Cook arrived at the beach, he was
conducted to Harre-no-Orono, or the house of Orono.
On his approaching this sacred place, he was seated at
the foot of a wooden idol, resembling those which he
had seen at the morai. Here an officer again support-
ed one of his arms. He was then arrayed in red cloth,
and Kaireekēea, assisted by twelve priests, presented a
pig with the usual solemnities. After this ceremony,
the pig was strangled, and thrown into the embers of a
fire prepared for that purpose. When the hair was
sing'd off, a second offering was made, and the chant-
ing repeated as before; after which the dead pig was
held, for some time, under the Captain's nose, and then
laid, with a cocoa-nut, at his feet. This part of the
ceremony being concluded, the performers sat down,
and the ava was brewed and handed about; a baked hog
was brought in, and the party were fed as in the former
ceremony. Whenever he went on shore, during
the continuance of the ships in the bay, he was preced-
ed by one of these priests, who proclaimed the landing
of the Orono, and ordered the inhabitants to prostrate
themselves. He was constantly attended by the same
person on the water, where he was stationed in the bow
of the boat, having a wand in his hand to give notice
of his approach to the natives, who were in canoes; on
which they instantly ceased paddling, and fell on their
faces till he had passed.

That the astronomical gentlemen might not be incom-
moded at the observatory on shore, by the intrusion of
the natives, the place was consecrated by the priests,
by placing their wands round the wall by which it was
enclosed.

This interdiction was the *taboo* already mentioned.
No canoes attempted to land near the spot; the natives
only sat on the wall, not daring to come within the ta-
bood space without obtaining permission. The men,
indeed, would bring provisions into the field, but all en-
deavours were ineffectual to induce the women to ap-
proach. Presents were tried, but without success. At-
tempts were made to prevail on Pareea and Koah to
bring them, but to no purpose: the Eatooa and Terre-
oboo, they said, would kill them if they did.

This circumstance afforded great amusement to the
people on board, whither multitudes (particularly wo-
men) continually flocked; inasmuch that they were fre-
quently obliged to clear the vessel, in order to have room
to perform their necessary duties. Two or three hun-
dred women were sometimes obliged to jump at once
into the water, where they continued to swim and play
till they could come on board again.

Not confining themselves to such civilities, the peo-
ple of Owhyhee supplied their visitors with hogs and
other

other provisions, more than sufficient for subsistence; and canoes, laden with provisions, were as regularly sent off to the ships. Nothing was demanded in return, nor was the most distant hint ever given that any compensation was expected. Their manner of conferring favours appeared more like the discharge of a religious duty than the result of mere liberality. All this munificence was at the expence of Kaoo, the chief priest, and grandfather to Kaiteekea, who was then in the suit of the sovereign of the island.

Some time after the commander's reception at the habitations of the priests, the king in a large canoe, with some attendants in two others, was seen paddling from the village, in great state, towards the ships. Their appearance was noble. Terreeboob and his chiefs were in the first canoe, arrayed in feathered cloaks and helmets, and armed with spears and daggers. In the second came Kaoo, the chief priest, together with his brethren, having their idols displayed on red cloth. These idols were figures of an enormous size, made of wicker work, and curiously ornamented with small feathers of a variety of colours. Their eyes were large pearl-oysters, with a black nut placed in the centre; a double row of the fangs of dogs was fixed in each of their mouths, which, as well as the rest of their features, appeared distorted. The third canoe was laden with hogs and vegetables. As they advanced, the priests, in the second canoe, chanted their hymns with great solemnity. After paddling round the vessels, they did not come on board as was expected, but made immediately towards the shore at the beach, where an English party was stationed.

On their approach, the officers of the party ordered the guard to be drawn up in form to receive the king; and Captain Cook, seeing that he intended to go on shore, went thither also, and landed almost at the same instant. They were ushered into the tent, and the king was hardly seated, when he rose up, and gracefully threw over the captain's shoulders the rich feathered cloak himself had wore, placed an helmet on his head, and presented him with a curious fan. Five or six other cloaks, of great beauty and value, were spread at his feet.

Then four hogs were brought forward by the king's attendants, together with bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and sugar-canes. Afterwards followed the ceremony of Terreeboob's changing names with Captain Cook, the strongest pledge of friendship among all the islanders of the Pacific-Ocean. A solemn procession now advanced, consisting of priests, preceded by a venerable personage, followed by a train of people leading large hogs; others being laden with potatoes, plantains, &c. It was easily perceived, by the countenance and gestures of Kaiteekea, that the old man who headed the procession was the chief priest, on whose bounty the English had so long subsisted. He wrapped a piece of red cloth round the shoulders of Captain Cook, as a mark of peculiar respect. The officers were not a little surprised to recognize,

in the person of the king, an emaciated old man, who had come on board the Resolution, from the north-east side of the island of Mowee; and perceived that several of his attendants were the same persons as before accompanied him.

When the usual ceremonies of interview had passed, Captain Cook conducted Terreeboob, and several of his chiefs, on board the Resolution. They were received with every possible attention and respect; and the commodore put a linen shirt upon the sovereign, and girt his own hanger round him. Kaoo, and about half a dozen other ancient chiefs, remained on shore.

During all this time, not a canoe was permitted to appear in the bay, and those natives who did not confine themselves to their huts, lay prostrate on the ground. Before the king quitted the Resolution, he granted leave for the natives to trade with the ships as usual, except the women, who were prohibited from this privilege.

CHAP. XXIII.

Friendly Behaviour of the People of Owhyhee. Their Priests and Ceremonies. Their Opinion of their Visitors. Presents from their King Terreeboob. Ships depart, but are obliged to return.

SUCH confidence was placed in the natives here by our people, that the officers, &c. frequently made excursions up the country, either singly, or in small parties, and even ventured to continue out the whole night. Indeed, it would be endless to relate all the instances of generosity they received upon these occasions.

The people flocked about them every where, anxious to afford every assistance in their power, and appeared highly gratified, if they condescended to accept of their services. Variety of innocent arts were practised to attract their notice, or to delay their departure. The boys and girls ran through their villages before them, stopping at every opening, where there was a commodious place to form a group for dancing. They were at one time solicited to take a draught of the milk of cocoa-nuts, or accept of such other refreshment as their huts afforded: at another, they were encircled by a company of young women, who exerted their skill and agility in amuling them with songs and dances. The more agreeable the natives rendered themselves to our people, by their instances of hospitality, the greater was their disgust and concern, at finding them prone to theft, the general vice of the islanders of these seas. This was a distressing circumstance, and sometimes obliged them to exercise severity, which they would have been happy to have avoided, if it had not been essentially necessary. Some expert swimmers were one day detected under the ship, drawing out the nails from the sheathing, which they ingeniously performed

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with a flint stone, fastened to the end of a short stick. This practice was so injurious to the vessels, that our people fired small shot at the offenders: but that they easily evaded, by diving to the bottoms of the ships. It therefore became highly necessary to make an example of one of them, by flogging him on board the ship.

At this time an excursion into the country, by a large party from both ships, afforded Kaoo a fresh opportunity of exercising his civility and generosity. No sooner was he informed of their departure, than he sent after them a large quantity of provisions, with orders, that every attention and assistance should be granted them by the inhabitants of those districts through which they were to pass. His conduct, on this occasion, was so delicate and disinterested, that even the people he employed were not permitted to accept of the smallest present. At the end of six days the party returned, without having penetrated more than twenty miles into the island.

The natives presented their visitors with the exhibition of a boxing-match. Though these games were inferior, in every respect, to those they had seen exhibited at the Friendly-Islands, yet, as they were somewhat different, we shall here give a short account of them.

A vast concourse of people assembled on an even spot of ground, not far distant from the tents. A long vacant space was left in the centre of them, at the upper end of which the judges presided, under three standards. Slips of cloth, of various colours, were pendent from them; as were the skins of two wild geese, some small birds, and a few bunches of feathers.

The necessary preparations being made, the judges gave the signal, and two combatants appeared in view. They advanced slowly, drawing up their feet very high behind, and, rubbing their hands upon the soles. As they came forward, they frequently surveyed each other from head to foot, with an air of contempt, looking archly at the spectators, distorting their features, and practising a variety of unnatural gestures. When they were advanced within the reach of each other, they held both arms straight out before their faces, at which part they always aimed their blows. They struck with a full swing of the arm; did not attempt to parry, but endeavoured to elude their adversary's attack, by stooping or retreating. The battle was expeditiously decided; for if either of them fell, whether by accident, or a blow, he was deemed vanquished; and the victor expressed his triumph by a variety of strange gestures, which usually excited a loud laugh among the spectators, for which purpose it seemed to be calculated. The successful combatant waited for a second antagonist; and, if again victorious, for a third; and so on, till he was at last defeated.

When any two of these champions were preparing to attack each other, a third might advance, and make choice of either of them for his antagonist, when the other was

under the necessity of withdrawing. If the combat proved long and tedious, or appeared unequal, a chief generally interfered, and concluded it by putting a stick between the combatants. As this exhibition was at the desire of our people, it was expected that some of them would have engaged with the natives; but though they received pressing invitations to bear a part, they did not hearken to the challenges, not having forgot some blows they received at the Friendly-Islands.

At this time, the death of William Whatman, a seaman of the gunner's crew, is particularly mentioned. He was a man in years, and much respected for his attachment to Captain Cook. He had served twenty-one years as a marine, and then entered as a seaman in 1772, on board the Resolution, and served with the commodore in his voyage towards the south pole. On their return, he got admittance into Greenwich-Hospital, through the interest of Captain Cook, at the same time with himself; and, anxious to follow the fortunes of his benefactor, he also quitted it with him, on his appointment to the command of the present expedition. He had been often subject to slight fevers in the course of the voyage, and was infirm when the ships arrived in the bay; where having been sent a few days on shore, he thought himself perfectly restored, and requested to return on board. His request was complied with; but the day following he had a stroke of the palsy, which, in two days afterwards, put a period to his life.

As an additional instance of respect to his visitors, Terreeboo caused the remains of this honest seaman to be buried in the morai, with great solemnity. Kaoo and his brethren were present at the funeral; they behaved with great decorum, and paid due attention while the service was performing. On our people beginning to fill up the grave, they approached it with great awe, and threw in a dead pig, together with some cocoa-nuts and plantains. For three successive nights they surrounded it, sacrificing hogs, and reciting hymns and prayers till morning. A post was erected at the head of the grave, and a piece of board nailed thereon, on which was inscribed the name and age of the deceased, and the day of his departure from this life. These the natives assured them they would not remove; and they will probably be permitted to remain, so long as such frail materials can endure.

The ships being in want of fuel, Captain Cook desired Lieutenant King to treat with the priests for the purchase of the rail on the morai. Mr. King had his doubts about the decency of this overture, and apprehended that the bare mention of it might be deemed impious; but in this he was exceedingly mistaken. They expressed no kind of surprise at the application, and the wood was delivered without the least stipulation. They were indeed so little affected by the circumstance, that they even assisted in the removal. When the particulars were mentioned to Kaoo, he seemed indifferent about the matter, desiring only the restoration of the centre

image, which being immediately complied with, it was conveyed to one of the priest's houses.

As the chiefs of the island had frequently expressed an importunate desire to know the precise time fixed for the departure of the English, a curiosity was excited in the minds of the speculative part of them, to learn the opinion entertained by the islanders, relative to them and the objects of their visit. The only information that could be obtained was, that they supposed our people had left their native country on account of the scantiness of provisions, and had visited them for the sole purpose of filling their bellies. This conclusion was natural enough, considering the meagre appearance of some of the crew, the voracity with which they devoured their fresh provisions, and their anxiety to purchase as much of it as possible. One circumstance may be added to these, which puzzled them exceedingly, namely, that of our people having no women with them. The natives would often pat the bellies of the sailors (who were much improved in sleekness after their arrival at the bay) and telling them, in the best manner they could, that it was time for them to depart; but if they would return the next bread-fruit season, they should be better able to supply them. They had now continued sixteen days in the bay, during which time the consumption of hogs and vegetables had been so enormous, that our people could not be surpris'd at their wishing to see them take their leave. However, it appeared that Terreeooboo had no other view in his inquiries, than a desire of having sufficient notice, to prepare suitable presents for them at their departure: for when he was informed of their intention to quit the island in two days, a kind of proclamation was immediately made, requiring the natives to bring in their hogs and vegetables, for the king to present to the Orono.

A droll genius among them exhibited a variety of tricks for the entertainment of our people on shore. In his hand he held an instrument of music; bits of seaweed were fastened round his neck; and, round each leg, some strong netting; on which were fixed some rows of dogs teeth, hanging loose. His dancing was accompanied with strange grimaces, and unnatural distortions of the features, which, though sometimes highly ridiculous, were, upon the whole, without meaning or expression. This diversion was closed with wrestling and boxing matches: and our people, in return, exhibited the few fire-works they had remaining. Nothing could more effectually excite the admiration of these islanders, or strike them with more exalted ideas of the superiority of their visitors, than such a representation. Though this was, in every respect, much inferior to that at Hapae, yet the astonishment of the people was equally great.

Before the departure of the ships from the island, the time of which was now fixed on, Terreeooboo invited the commodore, principal officers, &c. to attend him to Kao's residence. On their arrival there, they

saw large quantities of cloth lie scattered on the ground; abundance of red and yellow feathers fastened to the fibres of cocoa-nut husks; and plenty of hatchets and iron ware, which had been received in barter. Not far from these was deposited an immense quantity of various kinds of vegetables; and, at a little distance, a large herd of hogs. It was supposed, at first, that the whole was intended as a present for them, till they were informed by Kaireekoa, that it was a tribute to the king, from the inhabitants of that district. The guests were no sooner seated, than the bundles were brought, and laid severally at Terreeooboo's feet; and the cloth, feathers, and iron, were displayed before him.

The king expressed the highest degree of satisfaction at this mark of duty and affection from his subjects; and having caused about a third of the iron utensils, and some pieces of cloth to be selected, ordered these to be set aside by themselves; and the remainder of the cloth, hogs, vegetables, &c. were afterwards presented to Captain Cook. The whole of this welcome present was immediately conveyed on board. The large hogs were selected, in order to be salted for sea store; but the smaller pigs, and the vegetables, were divided between the crews, Lieutenant King being the last on shore, and waiting for the return of the boat, the inhabitants crowded about him, and having prevailed on him to sit down among them, expressed their regret at his separation from them. It was even with difficulty that they would suffer him to depart. He was, indeed, highly esteemed among them, as will appear from the following relation. Having had, while the ships were in the bay, the command of the party on shore, he became more acquainted with the natives, and they with him, than those who were required to be on board. He experienced great kindness and civility from the inhabitants in general; but the friendship shewn by the priests was constant and unbounded.

Being anxious to conciliate their esteem, he so happily succeeded, that, when they were acquainted with the time of his departure, he was urged to remain behind, and received overtures of the most flattering kind. When he endeavoured to excuse himself, by alleging that Captain Cook would not permit it, they proposed to conduct him to the mountains, and there conceal him, till the departure of the ships. On further assurance that the captain would not sail without him, the king and Kao repaired to Captain Cook (whom they supposed to be his father) formally requesting that he might be suffered to remain behind. The commodore, unwilling to give an absolute refusal to a proposal so generously intended, he assured them, that he could not then part with him; but he should return thither the next year, when he would endeavour to oblige them. The ships at length unmoored and sailed out of the bay, attended by a vast number of canoes. It was Captain Cook's intention to furnish the

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survey of Owhyhee, before he went to the other islands, hoping to meet with a road more sheltered than Karakakooa-Bay; and if he should not succeed here, he meant to examine the south-east part of Mowee, where, he had been informed, there was an excellent harbour.

The people on board, in their progress to the northward, observed two men in a canoe paddling towards them. They naturally conjectured that they had been driven off the shore by stress of weather, and stopped the ship's way, in order to take them in. They were so exhausted with fatigue, that had not one of the natives on board jumped into the canoe to their assistance, they would hardly have been able to fix it to the rope thrown out for that purpose. With difficulty, however, they were got up the ship's side, together with a child about four years of age, which had been lashed under the thwarts of the canoe, with only its head above the water. They informed their deliverers, that they had quitted the land the morning before, since which time they had no food or water. Provision was given them with proper precautions, and the child intrusted to the care of one of the women on board; and the next morning they were all perfectly recovered.

The Resolution having received very essential damage in a gale of wind; inasmuch as totally to obstruct her further progress, Captain Cook for some time hesitated whether he should return to Karakakooa, or take the chance of finding a harbour in the islands to leeward. The bay was not so commodious, but that a better might probably be met with, either for repairing the masts, or procuring refreshments; the latter of which, it was imagined, the neighbourhood of Karakakooa had lately been pretty well drained of. It was, on the other hand, considered as an imprudent step, to leave a tolerable good harbour, which, once lost, could not be regained, for the mere possibility of meeting with a better; especially as the failure of such a contingency might have deprived them of any resource. Therefore concluding at length to return, the ships stood in for the bay, and, upon arrival, came to anchor in their former station.

Alteration in the Behaviour of the Islanders. A Theft and its Consequences. The English attacked. Fresh Jealousies and Animosity. Attempt to secure the Person of the King. Failure. An insolent Chief shot by Captain Cook. General Attack, which ends with the Death of that gallant Commander.

THE English were beyond measure astonished at their reception, on coming to anchor in Karakakooa-Bay a second time. No shouts, bustle, or confusion, but a solitary bay, with hardly a canoe stirring was observed. The curiosity of the natives, indeed, might be supposed to be diminished by this time: but the

hospitable treatment the English had continually been favoured with, and the friendly footing on which they parted, induced them to expect that, on their return, they would have received them with the greatest demonstrations of joy.

The cause of this strange appearance was thus explained by the return of a boat, which had been sent on shore. That Terreeoboo was absent, and that the bay was *tabooed*. This account appeared very satisfactory to many; but others were of opinion that there was, at this time, something very dubious in the behaviour of the natives; and that the *taboo*, or interdiction, on pretence of Terreeoboo's absence, was artfully contrived, to give him time to consult his chiefs in what manner they should be treated. They never could ascertain whether these suspicions were well founded, or whether the natives had given a true account. A cause of suspicion might also arise from the following circumstance. A native having sold a hog on board the Resolution, and received the price agreed on, Pareea, who saw the transaction, advised the seller not to part with his hog, without an advanced price. For his interference in this business, he was harshly spoken to, and pushed away: and as the *taboo* was soon laid on the bay, it was at first supposed to be in consequence of the affront offered to the chief. These two causes considered, it was extremely difficult to draw any certain conclusions. Lieutenant King also received information that several chiefs were assembled near the beach, and were driving away the natives, who assisted the sailors in rolling the casks to the shore; that their behaviour seemed exceedingly suspicious, and liable to raise further disturbance. The lieutenant sent a marine with the officer who brought the intelligence, agreeable to his request, but permitted him to take only his side-arms. The officer in a short time returned; and informed Mr. King that the inhabitants had armed themselves with stones, and were become tumultuous. He therefore went himself to the spot, attended by a marine with his musket. At their approach the islanders threw away their stones; and on Mr. King's application to some of the chiefs, the mob was dispersed. Every thing being now quiet, Mr. King went to meet Captain Cook, who was then coming on shore in the pinnace. He related to him what had recently happened; and received orders to fire a ball at the offenders, if they again behaved insolently, and began to throw stones. In consequence of these directions, Mr. King gave orders to the corporal, that the centinels' pieces should be loaded with ball, instead of shot. A continued fire of muskets being heard from the Discovery, and perceived to be directed at a canoe which was hastening towards the shore, with one of the small boats in pursuit of it, this firing, it was concluded, was in consequence of a theft. Captain Cook, therefore, ordered Mr. King to follow him with a marine armed, and to endeavour

to seize the people as they landed. They accordingly ran to the place where the canoe was expected to come ashore, but did not arrive in time; the people having quitted it, and fled into the country before they came up. Being wholly ignorant, at this time, that the goods had been already restored, and thinking it probable, from what they had observed, that they might be of importance, they did not choose to relinquish their endeavours to recover them; and having inquired of the natives what course the people had taken, they pursued them till it was almost dark, when they supposed themselves to be about three miles from the tents; and thinking the islanders amused them with false information in their pursuit, gave up the search, and returned. An incident occurred during their absence, that occasioned a difference of a very serious nature. The officer who had been dispatched in the small boat after the thieves, and who was returning on board with the booty that had been restored, seeing Captain Cook and Mr. King engaged in the pursuit of the offenders, seized a canoe which was drawn up on the shore. This canoe unfortunately belonged to Pareea, who, at that instant arriving from on board the Discovery, claimed his property, and protested his innocence. The officer persisted in detaining it, in which he was encouraged by the crew of the pinnace, then waiting for Captain Cook; in consequence of which a scuffle ensued, and Pareea was knocked down by a violent blow on the head with an oar. Several of the natives, who had hitherto been peaceable spectators, began now to attack our people with a shower of stones, so that they were forced to a precipitate retreat, and swam off to a rock at a considerable distance from the shore. The pinnace was plundered immediately by the natives, and would have been entirely demolished, if Pareea had not interposed.

On hearing these circumstances, Captain Cook expressed the greatest concern, and discovered some apprehensions, that the islanders would oblige him to pursue violent measures; adding, they must not be permitted to suppose that they had gained an advantage. It was, however, too late to take any steps that evening: he therefore only gave orders that every islander should be immediately turned out of the ship. This order being executed, Lieutenant King returned on shore; and the events of the day having much abated former confidence in the natives, a double guard was posted on the morai, with orders to let Mr. King know, if any men were lurking about the beach. At eleven o'clock, five of the natives were seen creeping round the bottom of the morai: they approached with great caution, and, at last, perceiving they were discovered, immediately retired out of sight. About midnight one of them ventured himself near the observatory, when a sentinel fired over him, on which they all fled; and there was no further disturbance during

the remainder of the night. Next morning Mr. King received information that the Discovery's cutter had, some time in the night, been stolen from the buoy where it had been moored.

Going on board the Resolution, he found the marines were arming themselves, and Captain Cook busied in loading his double-barrelled gun. Whilst he was acquainting him with what had happened in the night at the morai, he eagerly interrupted him, informing him that he had received intelligence of the loss, and was making preparations to recover it.

It was his usual practice, in all the islands of this ocean, when any thing of consequence had been stolen from him, by some stratagem, to get the king, or some of the principal Erees, on board, where he detained them as hostages, till the property was restored. This method having hitherto proved successful, he meant to adopt it on the present occasion; and gave orders to stop every canoe that should attempt to leave the bay; resolving to seize and destroy them, if the cutter could not be recovered by peaceable means. Pursuant to this order, the boats of the ships, properly manned and armed, were stationed across the bay; and, before Mr. King quitted the ship, some great guns were fired at two canoes, that were attempting to escape.

Captain Cook and Mr. King quitted the ship together: the former in the pinnace, with Mr. Phillips, lieutenant of marines, and nine privates; and the latter in the small boat. The last orders Mr. King received from Captain Cook were, to quiet the minds of the natives on that side the bay where our people were stationed, by the strongest assurances that they should not be injured; to keep his people together, and to be continually on his guard. Captain Cook and Mr. King then separated; the captain going towards Kowrowa, where Terreeboob resided, while Mr. King proceeded to the beach. His first business, when he arrived on shore, was, to issue strict orders to the marines to continue within the tent, to charge their muskets with ball, and not, on any consideration, to quit their arms. He then attended old Kaoo and the priests at their respective huts, and explained to them, as well as he was able, the reason of the hostile preparations which had so exceedingly alarmed them. He found they were no strangers to the circumstance of the cutter's being stolen, and assured them, that though the commodore was not only resolved to recover it, but also to punish, in the most exemplary manner, the authors of the theft, yet that they, and all the inhabitants of the village, on that side, had not the least occasion to be alarmed, or to apprehend the least danger. He importuned the priests to communicate this to the people, and entreat them not to entertain an idea of fear, but to continue peaceable and quiet. Kaoo demanded of Mr. King, with great emotion, if any harm was to happen to Terreeboob? He assured him there was not; and both he and

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Captain Cook, having landed at Kowrowa, with the lieutenant and nine marines, he proceeded immediately into the village, where he was respectfully received; the people, as usual, prostrating themselves before him, and making their accustomed offerings of small hogs. Perceiving that his design was not suspected, his next step was to inquire for the king and the two boys, his sons, who had been almost continually his guests on board the Resolution. The boys presently returned with the natives, who had been searching for them, and immediately conducted Capt. Cook to the habitation where Terreeboo had slept. The old man had just awoke; and after some conversation respecting the loss of the cutter, from which the commodore was convinced that he was not in any wise privy to it, he invited him to accompany him, and spent the day on board the Resolution. The king accepted the invitation, and arose immediately to accompany him. The two boys were already in the pinnace, and the rest of the party approaching the water-side, when a woman, named Kanee-Karabee, the mother of the boys, and one of Terreeboo's favourite wives, followed him, beseeching him, with tears and entreaties, not to go on board. Two chiefs, who came with her, took hold of him, and, insisting he should proceed no further, obliged him to sit down. The islanders, now collecting in vast numbers along the shore, who had probably been alarmed by the discharging of the great guns, and the hostile appearances in the bay, gathered together round Captain Cook and Terreeboo. Thus situated, the lieutenant of marines, perceiving that his men were huddled together in the crowd, and consequently unable to use their arms, if there should appear to be a necessity for it, proposed to Captain Cook, to draw them up along the rocks, close to the edge of the water. The populace making way for them to pass, the lieutenant drew them up in a line, within about thirty yards of the place where Terreeboo was sitting.

The old king continued, all this time, on the ground, bearing the most visible marks of terror and dejection in his countenance. Captain Cook, unwilling to abandon the object which occasioned him to come on shore, urged him most earnestly to proceed; whilst, on the other hand, whenever the king expressed any inclination to follow him, the chiefs who surrounded him interposed: at first they had recourse to prayers and entreaties, but afterwards to force and violence, and even insisted on his remaining on shore. Captain Cook, at length, perceiving the alarm had spread too generally, and that there was not a probability of getting him off without bloodshed, gave up the point, observing, that to compel him to go on board would probably occasion the loss of many of the lives of the inhabitants.

Though this enterprize had now failed, and was

abandoned by Captain Cook, yet it did not appear that his person was in the least degree of danger, till an accident happened, which occasioned a fatal turn to the affair. The boats, stationed across the bay, having fired at some canoes for attempting to get out, unfortunately had killed one of their principal chiefs. Intelligence of his death arrived at the village where Captain Cook then was, just as he had parted from the king, and was proceeding with great deliberation towards the shore. The ferment it immediately occasioned was but too conspicuous; the women and children were instantly sent away, and the men were soon clad in their war-mats, and armed with spears and stones.

One of the natives having provided himself with a stone, and a long iron spike (called by the natives a *pahoo*) advanced towards the captain, flourishing his weapon in defiance, and threatening to throw the stone. The captain requested him to desist; but the islander repeating his menaces, he was highly provoked, and fired a load of small shot at him. The man was defended by his war-mat, which the shot could not penetrate; his firing, therefore, served only to irritate and encourage them. Volleys of stones were thrown at the marines; and one of the natives attempted the life of one of our people with his *pahoo*, but not succeeding in the attempt, he received from him a blow with the butt-end of his piece. Captain Cook immediately discharged his second barrel loaded with ball, and killed one of the assailants. A general attack with stones succeeded, which was followed on the part of our people by a discharge of musquetry, not only from the marines, but those in the boats. The natives received the fire with great firmness; and without giving time for the marines to charge again, they rushed in upon them with dreadful shouts and yells. What followed was a scene of horror and confusion.

Four of the marines retreated among the rocks, and fell a sacrifice to the fury of the enemy; three others were dangerously wounded; and the lieutenant stabbed between the shoulders, but having reserved his fire, he shot the man from whom he had received the wound at the instant he was preparing to repeat the blow. The last time the unfortunate commander was distinctly seen, he was standing at the water's edge, ordering the boats to cease firing and pull in. Such as were present supposed that the marines, and those who were in the boats, fired without Captain Cook's orders, and that he was anxious to prevent the further effusion of blood: it is therefore probable, that on this occasion his humanity proved fatal to him; for it was observed, that while he faced the natives he was not endangered, but when he turned about to give directions to the boats, he was stabbed in the back, and fell with his face into the water. A general shout was set up by the islanders on seeing him fall, and his body was dragged inhumanly on shore, where he was surrounded by the enemy.

enemy, who, snatching the dagger from each others hands, displayed a savage eagerness to join in his destruction.

Thus ended the life of the greatest navigator that this or any other nation ever could boast, after having successfully led his crews of gallant British seamen thrice round the world; reduced to a certainty the non-existence of a Southern Continent, concerning which the learned of all nations were in doubt, settled the boundaries of the earth and sea, and shewn the impracticability of a north-west passage from the Atlantic to the Great Southern-Ocean, for which our ablest navigators had contended, and in pursuit of which vast sums had been expended in vain, and many valuable mariners had unfortunately perished.

Captain Cook raised himself solely by his merit from a very obscure birth to the rank of Post-Captain in the Royal-Navy. He possessed, in an eminent degree, all the qualifications requisite for his profession and great undertakings. Deliberate in judging; sagacious in determining; active in executing; unflinching by labour, difficulties, and disappointments; fertile in expedients, never wanting presence of mind, but ever possessing the full use of a sound understanding. In discipline, though mild and just, he was exact: he was a father to his people, who were attached to him from affection, and obedient from confidence. By his benevolent and unabated attention to the welfare of his ship's company, he discovered and introduced a system for the preservation of the healths of seamen, which has proved wonderfully efficacious. With a company of 118 persons he performed his second voyage, and but one of these died of a disease. That spirit of humanity and justice with which he treated the savages wherever he found them, when opposed to the ferocious and inhuman conduct of the first conquerors in the New World, does honour to his age and country, and will hand him down with reverence to posterity. Nor was his humanity less conspicuous in his endeavours to civilize the natives of those remote regions, and to introduce some of our most useful animals, vegetables, and grain among them.

CHAP. XXIV.

Further Transactions after Captain Cook's Death. Peace restored. His Remains interred. The Ships depart from Owhyhee. Supplementary Observations on the Country, &c.

FOUR of the marines, as we have already mentioned, being killed on the spot, the rest, with the lieutenant, threw themselves into the water, and made their escape under cover of a smart fire from the boats. On this occasion a striking instance of gallant behaviour, and of affection for his men, was displayed by

the lieutenant; for he had scarcely got into the boat, when, seeing one of the marines, who was a bad swimmer, struggling in the water, and in danger of being taken by the islanders, he instantly leaped into the sea to his assistance, though considerably wounded himself, and after receiving a blow on his head from a stone, which had almost sent him to the bottom, he caught the man by the hair, and brought him off in safety.

For some time the English kept up a constant fire from the boats (which, during the whole transaction, were at no greater distance from the land than twenty yards) in order to afford their unfortunate companions, if any of them should still remain alive, an opportunity of effecting their escape. These continued efforts, seconded by a few guns, that were at the same time fired from the Resolution, having at length compelled the enemy to retire, a small boat, manned by five midshipmen, pulled towards the shore, where they perceived the bodies lying on the ground without any signs of life. However, they judged it dangerous to attempt to bring them off with so inconsiderable a force, and therefore returned to the ships, leaving the bodies together with ten stands of arms in the natives possession.

When the general consternation consequent on the news of the late melancholy event had, in some degree, subsided, the grand object of attention was the party of our people at the morai, whose situation was highly critical and important. Besides the lives of the men, the issue of the expedition, and the return of at least one of the ships, were involved in the same common danger, as the mast of the Resolution, and the principal part of the sails, were on shore guarded by only six marines.

Lieutenant King stationed the whole body of marines on the top of the morai, which formed a strong and advantageous post; and having intrusted it to the command of an officer, he went on board the Discovery, in order to confer with Captain Clerke on the critical situation of affairs. The natives at first attacked the English with stones from behind the walls of their enclosures, and meeting with no resistance, they soon became more daring. A few courageous fellows, having crept along the beach, under cover of the rocks, suddenly presented themselves at the foot of the morai, with an intention of storming it on the side next the sea, which was its only accessible part, and they were not dislodged before they had stowed a considerable quantity of shot, and had seen one of their number fall. The courage of one of these assailants deserves to be recorded. Having retired with a view of carrying off his companion, amidst the fire of our whole party, he received a wound, which obliged him to quit the body, and retire; but a few minutes after he again made his appearance, and receiving another wound was under the necessity of retreating a second time. At that moment Mr. King arrived at the morai, and saw this man return a third time, faint with the loss of blood and fatigue. Being informed of what had happened, he set

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bad the soldiers to fire, and the islander was suffered to carry off his friend, which he was just able to accomplish, and then fell down himself, and died by his side. A strong reinforcement having landed from both ships, the natives retreated behind the wall, which afforded Lieutenant King an opportunity of obtaining a truce, and thereby bringing off with his party the very essential articles that were left on shore.

A consultation having been held on board respecting future measures, the recovery of Captain Cook's body, and the restitution of the boat, were objects universally insisted on, but different opinions were given as to the mode of effecting the same, some being for rigorous and others for lenient measures; the latter, however, were at length agreed upon to be adopted.

The chief command of the expedition now devolving on Captain Clerke, he went on board the Resolution, and Mr. Gore took the command of the Discovery.

According to measures agreed upon at the late consultation, Lieutenant King proceeded towards the shore with the boats of both ships, well manned and armed, with a view of bringing the islanders to a parley, and of obtaining, if possible, a conference with some of the Eracs. If he should succeed in this attempt, he was to demand the dead bodies, and particularly that of Capt. Cook; to threaten them, in case of a refusal, with resentment; but by no means to fire, unless attacked; and not to go on shore on any account whatever.

He left the ships with his detachment about four o'clock in the afternoon; and, as they approached the shore, they perceived every indication of a hostile reception. The natives were all in motion; the women and children retiring; the men arming themselves with long spears and daggers, and putting on their war mats. It also appeared, that since the morning they had thrown up breast-works of stone along the beach, where Capt. Cook had landed, in expectation, perhaps, of an attack at that place.

As soon as the party came within reach, the islanders began to throw stones at them with slings, though without doing any mischief. Mr. King concluded, from these appearances, that all attempts to bring them to a parley would be ineffectual, unless he gave them some ground for mutual confidence. He therefore ordered the armed boats to stop, and advanced alone in the small boat, holding in his hand a white flag; the meaning of which, from an universal shout of joy from the natives, he had the satisfaction to find was immediately understood. The women instantly returned from the side of the hill, whither they had retired; the men threw off their mats, and all seated themselves together by the sea-side, extending their arms, and inviting him to land.

Though such behaviour seemed expressive of a friendly disposition, he could not avoid entertaining suspicions of its sincerity. But when he saw Koah, with extraordinary boldness and assurance swimming off towards the boat, with a white flag in his hand, he

thought proper to return this mark of confidence, and accordingly received him into the boat, though he was armed; a circumstance which did not contribute to lessen Mr. King's suspicions. He had, indeed, long harboured an unfavourable opinion of Koah; and therefore without ceremony informed him, that he had come to demand the body of Captain Cook, and to declare war against the natives, unless it was restored without delay. Koah assured him that this should be done as soon as possible, and that he would go himself for that purpose; and after requesting a piece of iron of Mr. King, with marks of great assurance, he leaped into the water, and swam ashore, calling out to his countrymen, that all were friends again. Mr. King waited with great anxiety near an hour for his return. During this interval, the other boats had approached so near the shore, that the men who were in them entered into a conversation with a party of the islanders, at a little distance, by whom they were informed, that the captain's body had been cut to pieces and carried up the country.

For some time after, there appeared a degree of ambiguity in the conduct of the natives, which raised doubts in the minds of our people, as to the event of their present operations; till at length one night, it being exceedingly dark, a canoe was heard paddling towards the ship, and it was no sooner perceived, than both the centinels on deck fired into it. There were two of the natives in this canoe, who immediately roared out "Tinnee" (which was their method of pronouncing Mr. King's name) said they were friends, and had something with them which belonged to Capt. Cook. When they came on board, they threw themselves at the feet of the officers, and seemed to be extremely terrified. It fortunately happened, that neither of them were hurt, notwithstanding the balls of both pieces had gone through the canoe.

One of them was the person who constantly attended Captain Cook, with the particular ceremonies before described. After bewailing, with many tears, the loss of the Orono, as he called him, he informed the officers that he had brought a part of his body. He then produced a small bundle, which he brought under his arm; and it is impossible to describe the horror with which our people were seized, upon finding in it a piece of human flesh, of the weight of about nine or ten pounds. This, he said, was all that now remained of the body; that the rest had been cut in pieces and burnt; but that the head, and all the bones, except those which belonged to the trunk, were in the possession of Terreeoboo, and the other chiefs; that what they had brought had been allotted to Kaoo, the chief of the priests, for the purpose of being used in some religious ceremony; and that he had sent it as a testimony of his innocence, and of his attachment to them. Though these two friendly visitants were pressed by the officers to continue on board till the next morning, they could not be prevailed upon; declaring, that if this transaction should come

to the knowledge of the king, or any of the Erees, it might be attended with the most fatal consequences to their whole society; to prevent which, they had been under the necessity of coming in the dark; and the same precaution, they said, would be requisite in returning on shore. They added, that the chiefs were eager to take revenge for the death of their countrymen; and particularly cautioned our people against trusting Koah, who, he assured them, was their implacable enemy, and ardently longed for an opportunity of fighting. The two natives then took their leave, it being about eleven o'clock at night.

The situation of the English was now extremely unpromising; none of the purposes for which this pacific plan of proceedings had been adopted, having hitherto been, in any respect, promoted by it. No satisfactory answer had been given to their demands. They did not seem to have made any progress towards a reconciliation with the natives, who still remained on the shore in hostile postures, as if determined to oppose any endeavours that might be made to land; and yet it was become absolutely necessary to attempt landing, as the completing the stock of water would not admit of any longer delay. The islanders behaved in a manner the most daring and presumptuous. One of them had the insolence to come within musket-shot ahead of the Resolution, and, after throwing several stones, waved over his head the hat which had belonged to Captain Cook, while his countrymen on shore were exulting and encouraging his audacity.

The seamen were highly enraged at this insult, and coming in a body on the quarter deck, begged they might no longer be obliged to put up with such reiterated provocations, and requested Mr. King to endeavour to obtain permission for them, from Captain Clerke, to take advantage of the first fair occasion of avenging the death of their much-lamented commander. On Mr. King's acquainting the captain with what was passing, he ordered some great guns to be fired at the islanders on shore; and promised the crew, that, if they should be molested at the watering-place, the next day, they should then be permitted to chastise them.

Before they could bring the guns to bear, the natives suspecting their intentions, from the bustle and agitation they observed in the ship, had retired behind their houses and walls. They were consequently obliged to fire, in some degree, at random; notwithstanding which the shot produced all the effects that could be desired. For, in a short time afterwards, they perceived Koah paddling towards them with the greatest haste; and when he arrived, they learned, that some people had lost their lives, and, among the rest, a principal Eree, nearly related to Terreeboob.

Soon after Koah's arrival, two boys swam off from the morai towards the vessel, each armed with a long spear; and after they had approached pretty near, they began, in a very solemn manner, to chant a song; the subject of which, from their frequently mentioning the

word Orono, and pointing to the village where Captain Cook had been slain, was concluded to be the late calamitous occurrence. Having sung for near a quarter of an hour in a plaintive strain, during all which time they continued in the water, they repaired on board the Discovery, and delivered up their spears; and, after remaining there a short time, returned on shore. It could not be learned who sent them, or what was the object of this ceremony. The two natives who had visited them before, came off again in the night, and assured them, that, though the effects of the great guns had much alarmed the chiefs, they had by no means relinquished their hostile intentions, and advised them to be on their guard.

When the boats of both ships were dispatched ashore to procure water, the Discovery was warped close to the beach, in order to protect the persons employed in that service. It was soon found, that the intelligence sent by the priests was not destitute of foundation, and that the islanders were determined to neglect no opportunity of annoying them, when it could be done without much hazard. It was now deemed absolutely necessary to burn down some straggling huts, near the wall behind which they had sheltered themselves. In executing the orders that were given for that purpose, some were hurried into acts of devastation and cruelty.

In escaping from the flames, several of the inhabitants were shot; and the party cut off the heads of two of them, and brought them on board. The fate of one unhappy native was much lamented by them all. As he was repairing to the well for water, he was shot at by one of the marines. The ball happened to strike his calabash, which he instantly threw from him, and ran off. He was pursued into one of the caves, and no lion could have defended his den with greater bravery and fierceness; till, at length, after he had found means to keep two of his pursuers at bay for a considerable time, he expired, covered with wounds. This accident first brought the English acquainted with the use to which these caverns were applied.

A man, much advanced in years, was taken prisoner, bound, and conveyed on board the Resolution, in the same boat with the heads of his two countrymen. Horror could not be more strongly portrayed than in the face of this person; nor so violent a transition to immoderate joy, as when he was untied, and given to understand, that he might depart in safety. He shewed that he was not deficient in gratitude, as he returned afterwards with a present of provisions.

Yet, amidst all these disturbances, the female natives who were on board did not offer to depart, or discover any apprehensions, either for themselves, or their friends on shore. They appeared, indeed, so perfectly unconcerned for the latter, that some of them who were on deck when the village was in flames, seemed to admire the spectacle, and frequently exclaimed, that it was *meitai*, or very fine.

At length a chief, named Eappo, a man of the first distinction,

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distinction, came with presents from Terreeboob, to sue
for peace. These presents were accepted; and the chief
was dismissed with the following answer: That no peace
would be granted, till the remains of Capt. Cook should
be restored.

Information was received from Eappo, that the flesh
of all the bones of our people who had been slain, as
well as the bones of the trunks, had been burnt; that the
limb-bones of the marines had been distributed among
the inferior chiefs; and that the remains of Capt. Cook
had been disposed of as follows: the head to a great Eree,
called Kahoopeou; the hair to Maiha-Maiha; and the
arms, legs, and thighs, to Terreeboob. Eappo was very
urgent that one of our officers should go on shore, and
offer to remain on board, in the mean time, as an
hostage. This request, however, was not complied with;
and he departed with a promise of bringing the bones the
following day.

A numerous body of the natives was seen in the
morning descending the hill, which is over the beach, in
a sort of procession, each man carrying on his shoulders
two or three sugar-canes, and some bread-fruit, plan-
tains, and taro, in his hand. They were preceded by
two drummers, who, when they reached the water-side,
seated themselves by a white flag, and began beating
their drums, while those who had followed them ad-
vanced, one by one, and deposited the presents they had
brought with them; after which they retired in the same
order. Soon afterwards, Eappo appeared in his long
feathered cloak, bearing something with great so-
lemnity in his hands; and having stationed himself on a
rock, he made signs that a boat should be sent him.

Captain Clerke went himself in the pinnace to receive
them, and ordered Mr. King to attend him in the cut-
ter. When they arrived at the beach, Eappo, entering
the pinnace, delivered the bones to Captain Clerke,
wrapped up in a great quantity of fine new cloth, and
covered with a spotted cloak of black and white feathers.
In this bundle were found both the hands of Captain
Cook entire, which were well known from a scar on one
of them, that divided the fore-finger from the thumb,
the whole length of the metacarpal-bone; the skull, but
with the scalp separated from it, and the bones of the
face wanting; the scalp, with the ears adhering to it,
and the hair upon it cut short: the bones of both the
arms, with the skin of the fore-arms hanging to them;
the bones of the thighs and legs joined together, but
without the feet. The ligaments of the joints were ob-
served to be entire: and the whole shewed sufficient
marks of having been in the fire, except the hands,
which had the flesh remaining upon them, and were cut
in several places, and crammed with salt, most probably
with a view of preserving them. The skull was free
from any fracture, but the scalp had a cut in the back
part of it. The lower jaw and feet, which were want-
ing, had been seized, as Eappo said, by different Erees;
and he added, that Terreeboob was using every means
to recover them.

Eappo, and the king's son, came afterwards on board,
and brought with them not only the remaining bones of
Captain Cook, but likewise the barrels of his gun, his
shoes, and some other trifles which had belonged to him.
Eappo declared that Terreeboob, Maiha-Maiha, and him-
self, were extremely desirous of peace; that they had
given the most convincing proofs of it; and that they
had been prevented from giving it sooner by the other
chiefs, many of whom were still disaffected. He la-
mented, with the most lively sorrow, the deaths of six
chiefs, who had been killed by our people, some of
whom, he said, were among their best friends. He said
that the cutter had been taken away by Pareea's people,
probably in revenge for the blow that he had received,
and that it had been broken up the following day. The
arms of the marines, which were now demanded, had
been carried off by the populace, and were irre-
coverable.

It now only remained, on the part of our people, to
perform the last solemn offices to their excellent com-
mander. Eappo was dismissed with orders to *taboo* all
the bay; and in the afternoon, the bones having been
deposited in a coffin, the funeral service was read over
them, and they were committed to the deep with the
usual military honours.

Matters being now amicably settled, Captain Clerke
gave orders for the ship to unmoor, and for all the na-
tives to be dismissed. The chiefs took a friendly leave
of their visitors; and the anchor being weighed, they
stood out of Karakakooa-Bay; but not without many
sighs from the crews, for the loss of their great com-
mander.

On leaving Karakakooa-Bay, in the island of Owhy-
hee, the ships passed Tahoorā, and touched at Woahoo;
and, in consequence of disappointment in attempting to
water, proceeded to Atooi, and came to anchor in their
former station. Our people immediately observed, on
the natives coming on board, that there was not that
complacency in their countenances, or cordiality in their
manner, as when they first visited them. Indeed, they
gave evident tokens of a disposition totally reverse from
that which they had discovered before, and seemed much
inclined to hostility. The main design, in touching at
this island, was to procure water, in which the people
were much annoyed, and obstructed by the natives. At
length, however, after great difficulty, and some encoun-
ters, it was completed.

When the officers, whose presence was required on
shore, returned to the ships, they were informed, that
several chiefs had been on board, and apologized for the
conduct of their countrymen. Presents were afterwards
exchanged between Captain Clerke and Tonceo, who
held the supreme power, and apparent amity subsisted
till the ships left the island, and proceeded to Oneehow,
from which they sailed, in prosecution of their voyage to
the northward, in March 1779.

The group of islands called by the general appellation
of the Sandwich-Islands, were found, at length, to be

eleven in number; and as our navigators could never learn that the natives had knowledge of any other islands, it is most probable that there are no others in their vicinity. Of these we have mentioned six, viz. Woahoo, Atooi, Onecheow, Oreehoua, Tahoorā, and Owhyhee, the grand and principal scene of action. The others are called Morotoi, Morotinnee, Ranai, Kahowrowhee, and Moodoo-Papapa. These agree, in general, with the description given of the former: and Morotinnee, as well as Tahoorā, is uninhabited.

There are two mountains in the island of Owhyhee deserving of notice. The first, called Mouna-Kaah (or the mountain Kaah) rises in three peaks, continually covered with snow, and may be discerned at the distance of forty leagues. The coast to the northward of this mountain is composed of high and abrupt cliffs, from which fall many beautiful cascades of water. The mountain is very steep, and its lower part abounds with wood.

On the ships doubling the east part of the island, they had sight of another snowy mountain, called by the natives Mouna-Roa (or the extensive mountain) which, during the whole time they were sailing along the south-eastern side, continued to be a very conspicuous object. It was flat at the summit, which was perpetually involved in snow; and they once observed its sides also slightly covered with it for a considerable way down. This mountain is supposed to be at least 16,020 feet; and therefore exceeds the height of the peak of Teneriffe by 3680 feet. The peaks of Mouna-Kaah seemed to be of the height of about half a mile; and, as they are wholly covered with snow, the altitude of their summits must at least be 18,400 feet.

One of the English who set out on an expedition up the country, principally with an intention of reaching the snowy mountains, under the guidance of two natives, stopped, for the night, at a hut they observed among the plantations, where they supposed themselves to be six or seven miles distant from the ships. The prospect from this spot was very delightful. They had a view of the vessels in the bay before them. To the left, they saw a continued range of villages, interspersed with groves of cocoa-nut trees spreading along the shore; a thick wood extending itself behind them: and to the right, a very considerable extent of ground, laid out with great regularity in well-cultivated plantations, displayed itself to their view. Near this spot, the natives pointed out to them, at a distance from every other dwelling, the residence of a hermit, who, they said, had, in the former part of his life, been a great chief and warrior, but had long ago retired from the sea coast of the island, and now never quitted the environs of his cottage. As they approached him, they prostrated themselves, and afterwards presented him with some provisions. His behaviour was easy, frank, and cheerful. He testified little astonishment at the sight of the English; but though pressed to accept some European curiosities, he thought proper to decline the offer, and

soon withdrew to his cottage. The party represented him as by far the most aged person they had ever seen, judging him to be, at a moderate computation, upwards of an hundred years of age.

As they had supposed that the mountain was not more than ten or a dozen miles distant from the bay, and consequently expected to reach it with ease early the following morning, they were now greatly surprised to find the distance scarce perceptibly diminished. This circumstance, with the uninhabited state of the country, which they were on the point of entering, rendering it necessary to provide a supply of provisions, they dispatched one of their conductors back to the village for that purpose. Whilst they waited his return, they were attended by several of Kaoo's servants, whom that general old man had sent after them, loaded with refreshments, and fully authorized, as their route lay through his grounds, to demand, and take away with them, whatever they might want.

Their surprise was great, to find the cold here so intense; but as they had no thermometer with them, they could only form their judgment of it from their feelings, which, from the warm atmosphere they had quitted, must have been a very fallacious method of judging. They found it, however, so cold, that they could hardly get any sleep; and the islanders could not sleep at all; both parties being disturbed, during the whole night, by continual coughing. As they, at this time, could not be at any very great height, their distance from the sea being no more than six or seven miles, and part of the road on a very moderate ascent, this uncommon degree of cold must be attributed to the easterly wind blowing fresh over the snowy mountains. They proceeded on their journey early the next morning, and filled their calabashes at a well of excellent water, situate about half a mile from their hut. After they had passed the plantations, they arrived at a thick wood, which they entered by a path that had been made for the convenience of the islanders, who frequently repaired thither for the purpose of catching birds, as well as procuring the wild-or horse-plantain. Their progress now became extremely slow, and was attended with great labour; for the ground was either swampy, or covered with large stones; the path narrow, and often interrupted by trees lying across it, which they were obliged to climb over, as the thickness of the underwood on each side rendered it impracticable to pass round them. They saw, in these woods, pieces of white cloth fixed on poles, at small distances, which they imagined were land-marks for the division of property, as they only observed them where the wild plantains grew. The trees were of the same kind with the spice-tree of New Holland; they were straight and lofty, and their circumference was, on an average one with another, from two to four feet.

Many other disagreeable circumstances, besides the cold, and particularly the aversion their conductors discovered to going on, induced this party to come to a

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determination of returning to the ships, after taking a survey of the country from the highest trees they could find. They were surpris'd at seeing several fields of hay; and upon their inquiry to what particular use it was applied, we were inform'd, that it was intended to cover the grounds where the young taro grew, in order to preserve them from being scorched by the rays of the sun. They observ'd among the plantations a few huts scattered about, which afforded occasional shelter to the labourers; but they did not see any villages at a greater distance from the sea than four or five miles. Near one of them, which was situated about four miles from the bay, they discovered a cave, forty fathoms long, three broad, and of the same height. It was open at each end; its sides were fluted, as if wrought with a chissel; and the surface was glazed over, perhaps by the action of fire. The birds of these islands are numerous, though the variety is not great. Some of them may vie with those of any country in point of beauty. Their vegetable productions are not very different from those of the other islands of the Pacific-Ocean. The coasts abound with variety of fish.

The natives of the Sandwich-Islands are, doubtless, of the same extraction with the inhabitants of the Society and Friendly-Islands. This is not only evinc'd by the general resemblance of their persons, and the great similarity of their manners and customs, but seems to be established, beyond all controversy, by the identity of their language. It may not, perhaps, be very difficult to conjecture from what continent they originally emigrated, and by what steps they have diffus'd themselves over so immense a space. They bear strong marks of affinity to some of the Indian tribes, who inhabit the Ladrões and Caroline-Isles; and the same affinity and resemblance may also be traced among the Malays and the Battas. At what particular time these migrations happened, is less easy to ascertain. They are indeed very populous, and have no tradition respecting their own origin, but what is wholly fabulous; though, on the other hand, the simplicity which is still prevalent in their manners and habits of life, and the unadulterated state of their general language, seem to demonstrate, that it could not have been at any very remote period.

The superiority generally observ'd at other islands in the persons of the Erees, is likewise found here. Those that were seen were perfectly well formed; whereas the lower class of people, besides their general inferiority, are subject to all the variety of figure and make that is met with in the populace of other parts of the world. There were more frequent instances of deformity observ'd here than in any of the other islands visit'd. While the ships were cruising off Owwhyee, two dwarfs came on board, one of whom was an old man of the height of four feet two inches, but very well proportioned; and the other was a woman nearly of the same stature. Our people afterwards saw among the natives three who were hump-backed, and a young man who

had been destitute of hands and feet, from the very moment of his birth. Squinting is common among them, and a man who had been born blind, was brought on board for the purpose of being cured. Besides these particular defects, they are, in general, exceeding subject to biles and ulcers, which was ascrib'd to the great quantity of salt they usually ate with their fish and flesh. Though the Erees are free from these complaints, many of them experience still more dreadful effects from the too frequent use of the ava. Those who were the most affected by it had their eyes red and inflamed, their limbs emaciated, their bodies covered with a whitish scurf, and their whole frame trembling and paralytic, attended with a disability of raising their heads.

The excellence of their manufactures, and their improvements in agriculture, are, doubtless, adequate to their situation and natural advantages. The eagerness of curiosity with which they used to attend the armourer's forge, and the various expedients which they invent'd, even before our departure from their islands, for working the iron obtained from us into such tools as were best calculated for their purposes, were strong indications of docility and ingenuity.

Tattooing or puncturing the body prevails among these people; and of all the islands in the ocean, it is only at New Zealand, and the Sandwich-Isles, that the face is tattooed. There is this difference between the two nations, that the New Zealanders perform this operation in elegant spiral volutes, and the Sandwich-Islanders in straight lines, that intersect each other at right angles. Some of the natives have half their bodies, from head to foot, tattooed, which gives them a most striking appearance. It is generally done with great neatness and regularity; but several of them have only an arm thus marked, others a leg; some, again, tattoo both an arm and a leg; and others only the hand. The hands and arms of the women are punctured in a very neat manner; and they have a remarkable custom of tattooing the tip of the tongues of some of the females. There was some reason to imagine, that the practice of puncturing was often intended as a sign of mourning, on the decease of a chief, or any other calamitous occurrence; for they were frequently inform'd, that such a mark was in memory of such a chief, and so of the others. The people of the lowest order are tattooed with a particular mark, which distinguishes them as the property of the chiefs to whom they are respectively subject.

The natives live together in small towns or villages, which contain from about one hundred to two hundred houses, built pretty close to each other, without order or regularity, and having a winding path that leads through them. They are frequently flanked, towards the sea-side, with loose detached walls, which appear to be intended for shelter and defence. They are of various dimensions, from forty-five feet by twenty-four, to eighteen by twelve. Some are of a larger size, being fifty feet

feet in length, and thirty in breadth, and entirely open at one end. They are very cleanly at their meals, and their method of dressing both their vegetable and animal food was universally acknowledged to be superior to ours. The Erees constantly begin their meals with a dose of the extract of pepper-root, or ava, prepared in the usual mode. The women eat apart from the other sex, and are prohibited from feeding on pork, turtle, and some particular species of plantains.

They generally rise with the sun; and, after having enjoyed the cool of the evening, retire to their repose a few hours after sun-set. The Erees are occupied in making canoes and mats: the Towtows are chiefly employed in the plantations, and also in fishing; and the women are engaged in the manufactory of cloth. They amuse themselves at their leisure hours with various diversions. Their young persons, of both sexes, are fond of dancing; and, on more solemn occasions, they entertain themselves with wrestling, and boxing-matches, as has been observed, performed after the same manner of the natives of the Friendly-Islands; to whom, however, they are greatly inferior in all these respects.

The music of these people is of a rude kind; for the only musical instruments that was observed among them, were drums of various sizes. Their songs, however, which they are said to sing in parts, and which they accompany with a gentle motion of their arms, like the inhabitants of the Friendly-Islands, have a very pleasing effect.

They are generally addicted to gambling. One of their games resembles our game of draughts; but, from the number of squares, it seems to be much more intricate. The board is of the length of about two feet, and is divided into two hundred and thirty-eight squares, fourteen in a row. In this game they use black and white pebbles, which they move from one square to another. Another of their games consists in concealing a stone under some cloth, which is spread out by one of the parties, and rumpled in such a manner, that it is difficult to distinguish where the stone lies. The antagonist then strikes with a stick, that part of the cloth where he supposes it to be; and the chances being, upon the whole, against his hitting it, odds of all degrees are laid, varying with the opinion of the dexterity of the antagonist. They often entertain themselves with races between boys and girls, on which occasions they lay wagers with great spirit. Our people saw a man bearing his breast, and tearing his hair, in the violence of rage, for having lost three hatchets at one of these races, which he had purchased from them with near half his property a very little time before. Among the various diversions of the children, was one frequently played at, and which shewed a considerable share of dexterity. They take a short stick, through one extremity of which runs a peg sharpened at both ends, extending about an inch on each side; then throwing up a ball formed of green leaves moulded together, and fastened with twine, they catch it on one of the points of the peg; imme-

diately after which, they throw it up again from the peg, then turn the stick round, and catch the ball on the other point of the peg. Thus, for some time, they continue catching it on each point of the peg alternately, without missing it. They are equally expert at another diversion of a similar nature, throwing up in the air, and catching, in their turns, many of these balls: and our people have often seen little children thus keep five balls in motion at once.

Their method of agriculture resembles that of the other islands of the Pacific-Ocean.

The inhabitants of the Sandwich-Islands are divided into three classes. The Erees, or chiefs of each district, are the first; and one of these is superior to the rest, who was called, at Owhyhee, *Eree-Taboo*, and *Eree-Mose*; the first name expressing his authority, and the latter signifying that, in his presence, all must prostrate themselves. Those of the second class appear to enjoy a right of property, but have no authority. Those who compose the third class, are called *Towtows*, or servants, and have neither rank or property.

The Erees appear to have unlimited power over the inferior classes of people; many instances of which occurred daily, whilst our people continued among them, and the people are implicitly obedient. It is remarkable, however, that the chiefs were never seen to exercise any acts of cruelty, injustice, or insolence towards them; though they put in practice their power over each other, in a most tyrannical degree, as appears from the following instances. One of the lower order of chiefs having shewn great civility to the master of the ship, on his examination of Karakakooa-Bay, Mr. King, some time afterwards, took him on board the *Resolution*, and introduced him to Captain Cook, who engaged him to dine. While the company remained at table, Pareea entered, whose countenance manifested the highest indignation at seeing their guest so honourably entertained. He seized him by the hair of his head, and would have dragged him out of the cabin, if the captain had not interfered. After much altercation, no other indulgence could be obtained (without quarrelling with Pareea) than that the guest should be permitted to remain in the cabin, on condition that he seated himself on the floor, while Pareea occupied his place at the table. An instance, somewhat similar, happened when Terreebooo came first on board the *Resolution*, when Maiha-Maiha, who attended him, seeing Pareea upon deck, turned him most ignominiously out of the ship; even though the officers knew Pareea to be a man of the first consequence.

Little information could be obtained respecting their administering of justice. If a quarrel arose among the lower class of people, the matter was referred to the decision of some chief. If an inferior chief had offended one of superior rank, his punishment was dictated by the feelings of the superior at that moment. If he should fortunately escape the first transports of his rage, he perhaps found means, through the mediation of others,

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others, to compound for his offence, by all or part of his effects.

As to their religion, it resembles that of the Society and Friendly-Isles. In common with each other, they have all their morais, their whattas, their sacred songs, and their sacrifices. The ceremonies here, are, indeed, longer and more numerous than in the islands above mentioned.

The Society and Friendly islanders pay adoration to particular birds; and it seems to be a custom extremely prevalent in these islands. Ravens are, perhaps, the chief objects of it here; for Mr. King saw two of these birds perfectly tame, at the village of Kakooa, and was told they were Eatooas. He offered several articles for them, which were all refused; and he was particularly cautioned not to hurt or offend them. The prayers and offerings made by the priests before their meals, may be classed among their religious ceremonies. We have already observed, that human sacrifices are common here. They have one most extraordinary religious custom, which is that of knocking out their fore teeth. Most of the common people, and many of the chiefs, had lost one or more of them; and this, it seems, was considered as a propitiatory sacrifice to the Eatooa, to avert his anger on particular occasions.

The English could derive but very imperfect information of their opinions respecting a future state. On inquiring of them whether the dead were gone, they were told that the breath, which they seemed to consider as the immortal part, was fled to the Eatooa. They seemed also to give a description of some place, which they suppose to be the abode of the dead; but they could not learn that they had any idea of rewards or punishments.

Of their marriages it can only be said, that such a compact seems to exist among them. Whether polygamy is allowed, or whether it is mixed with concubinage, could not be ascertained.

From the following instance, it appears, that among married women of rank, not only fidelity, but even a degree of reserve is required.

Omeah, a chief of the highest dignity, rose two or three times from his place, at one of their boxing matches, and approached his wife with strong marks of displeasure, commanding her, as was supposed, to withdraw. Whether he thought her beauty engaged too much of the attention of his visitors, or whatever might be his motives, there certainly existed no real cause of jealousy. She, however, continued in her place, and at the conclusion of the entertainment joined the party of officers, and even solicited some trifling presents. She was informed that they had not any about them; but that if she would accompany them to the tent, she should be welcome to make choice of what she liked. She accordingly proceeded with them, which being observed by Omeah, he followed in a great rage, seized her by the hair, and, with his fists, began to inflict severe corporal punishment. Having been the innocent

cause of this treatment, the officers were exceedingly concerned at it; though they understood it would be highly improper for them to interfere between husband and wife of such superior rank. The natives, however, at length interposed; and the next day they had the satisfaction of meeting them together, perfectly satisfied with each other: and, what was extremely singular, the wife would not permit them to rally the husband on his behaviour, which they had an inclination to do; plainly telling them, that he acted very properly.

The English had twice an opportunity, while the ships lay at Karakakooa-Bay, of seeing a part of their funeral rites. Hearing of the death of an old chief, not far from the observatories, some of them repaired to the place, where they beheld a number of people assembled. They were seated round an area, fronting the house where the deceased lay; and a man, having on a red feathered cap, came to the door, constantly putting out his head, and making a most lamentable howl, accompanied with horrid grimaces, and violent distortions of the face. A large mat was afterwards spread upon the area, and thirteen women and two men, who came out of the house, sat down upon it in three equal rows; three of the women, and the two men, being in front. The women had feathered ruffs on their necks and hands; and their shoulders were decorated with broad green leaves, curiously scolloped. Near a small hut, at one corner of this area, half a dozen boys were placed, waving small white banners, and taboo sticks, who would not suffer our people to approach them. Hence they imagined that the dead body was deposited in the hut; but were afterwards informed, that it remained in the house where the tricks were playing at the door by the man in the red cap. The company seated on the mat sung a melancholy strain, accompanied with a gentle motion of the arms and body. This having continued for some time, they threw themselves in a posture between kneeling and sitting, and put their arms and bodies into a most rapid motion, keeping pace, at the same time, with the music. These last exertions being too violent to continue, at intervals they had slower motions. An hour having passed in these ceremonies, more mats were spread upon the area, when the dead chief's widow, and three or four other elderly women, came out of the house with slow and solemn pace, and, seating themselves before the company, began to wail most bitterly, in which they were joined by the three rows of women behind them; the two men appearing melancholy and pensive. They continued thus, with little variation, till late in the evening, and, at day-light in the morning, the people dispersed, and every thing was quiet. It was said the body was removed, but it was not known how it was disposed of. As they were making inquiry of some of the natives, they were approached by three women of rank, who signified to them, that their presence interrupted the performance of some necessary rites. Soon after they had left them, they heard their cries and lamentations; and when they

met them a few hours after, the lower parts of their faces were painted perfectly black, in token of mourning. They had likewise an opportunity of observing the ceremonies at the funeral of one of the ordinary class. Hearing some mournful cries issuing from a miserable hut, they entered it, and discovered two women, whom they supposed to be the mother and daughter, weeping over the body of a man, who had that moment expired. They first covered the body with a cloth, then lying down by it, they spread the cloth over themselves, beginning a melancholy kind of song, often repeating *Aweh me draah! Aweh tanee!* "Oh, my father! Oh, my husband!" In one corner a younger daughter lay prostrate on the ground, having some black cloth spread over her, and repeating the same expressions. On inquiry afterwards, how the body had been disposed of, they pointed towards the sea, perhaps indicating thereby, that it had been deposited in the deep, or that it had been conveyed to some place of burial beyond the bay, which was all the information that could be got on the occasion.

C H A P. XXV.

THE PALOS OR PELEW ISLANDS.

Situation and Description of these Islands. Various Particulars respecting the friendly Intercourse between the English and the Natives. Great Hospitality of the King, who presents the Captain with an Island.

THAT chain of islands called the PALOS, or PELEW-ISLANDS, were probably first noticed by some of the Spaniards of the Philippines, and by them named the Palos-Islands; the tall palm trees, which grow there in great abundance, having at a distance the appearance of (*palos*, i. e.) masts of ships. That this was the origin of their name, is rendered still more probable, as the Spaniards gave the same appellation to all the numerous islands of this archipelago, most of which are now known by the name of the New Carolines. The Pelew-Islands are situated in the west part of the Pacific-Ocean, between the 5th and 9th degrees of north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude; and, though heretofore imperfectly noticed by some ships making the eastern passage from China, were never visited by any Europeans, till the crew of the Antelope, Captain Wilson, a packet belonging to the East-India Company, which was wrecked in August 1783, landed there, and were the means of discovering to us a new world, or set of human beings, who, though of an uncultivated nature, appeared to be greatly different from those commonly termed savages, and evince principles of humanity and generosity that would reflect the highest honour on the most exalted of our race. These islands are long but narrow, of a moderate

height, well covered with wood, at least such of the islands as Captain Wilson's people had an opportunity of seeing. They are circled on the west side by a reef of coral, of which no end could be seen from any eminences they were on; this reef in some places extends five or six leagues from the shore, and not less than two or three in any parts that were visited.

As the Antelope, which sailed from Macao the 20th of June 1783, was proceeding on her voyage from China, she unfortunately struck on a rock in the night of the 9th of the following August.

The crew, waiting with anxious suspense the approach of morning, in order to discover whether any land was near, descried, at the dawn of day, a small island to the southward, about three or four leagues distant; and soon after some other islands were seen to the eastward, which proved to be those under consideration.

As the island (properly called Cooroora, of which Pelew is the capital) came in sight, the jolly-boat hoisted English colours, and fired three musquets; which were answered, as they apprehended, nearer the shore, by a white flag stuck on a pole; this was conceived to have been suggested by the Malay on the island (whom we shall have occasion hereafter to mention) and proved to be some of the white cloth that had been given to the king. Raa Kook, the king's brother, and commander in chief of his forces, having quitted his canoe, came into the jolly-boat; and our people, on landing, fired three musquets more, after having hoisted their colours, and fixed them in the ground opposite a house close to the water-side, at the end of the causeway where they came on shore; to which house the English were conducted by Raa Kook to wait the king's coming, he having dispatched a messenger to notify the captain's arrival. Before the king appeared, some of the natives were sent down with refreshments: they first brought a large turcen made of wood, in the shape of a bird, and inlaid with shell, this was full of sweet drink; they also brought a painted stand, about two feet in height, inlaid in the same manner as the turcen, upon which were sweetmeats garnished with Seville oranges; next came a basket of boiled yams, followed by another of young cocoa-nuts; these were all placed in a kind of order, preparatory to the king's coming.

Apprehensions were naturally felt on account of the natives. Boats, however, were manned, loaded with such articles as were deemed most necessary, and dispatched from the ship under the direction of a principal officer, whose design was to obtain, if possible, a friendly intercourse with the inhabitants, in case they should find any. As the ship was expected every moment to go to pieces, those who remained went immediately to work to make a raft, on which, when completed, with the assistance of two boats, they all, except one man, who fell overboard before they set out, reached the shore, after encountering many difficulties.

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In the course of two days from their landing, the crew observed some natives approaching, in canoes, from the points of the bay. This spread to great a conflagration, that all ran to their arms: but as there were only two canoes, the captain ordered the people out of sight till further notice.

A very singular circumstance much facilitated the intercourse between our countrymen and the natives. A Malay, who some time before was cast away upon this island, had acquired the language; and it happened that one of the Antelope's men was a native of Bengal, and spoke the Malay tongue, by which means a ready communication was maintained on both sides, and all those impediments were removed at once, which would have arisen among people who had no means of conveying their thoughts to one another by language, but must have trusted to signs and gestures, which might have given rise to a thousand misconceptions.

When the canoes, which advanced slowly towards the shore, got within hearing, the native of Bengal spoke to them in the Malay tongue; on which, though they did not seem to understand him, they stopped their canoes. Soon after, however, one of them spoke in the above language, asking our people "Who they were? whether they were friends or enemies?" The native of Bengal, by the captain's direction, replied, "That they were distressed Englishmen, who had lost their ship on the reef, and that they were friends." On this they seemed to commune together; and soon after came out of their canoes, which Captain Wilson observing, he waded into the water to meet them; and after embracing them in a friendly manner, conducted them to his officers, and the others who had retired.

These people were entirely naked. They were of a deep copper colour, and their skins soft and glossy, owing to the external use of cocoa-nut oil. Each chief had a basket of beetle nut, and a bamboo, finely polished, and inlaid at each end, in which they carried a kind of coral, burnt to a lime, called *chinam*. It was observed that all their teeth were black, and that the beetle nut, of which they had always a quid in their mouths, rendered the saliva red, which, together with their black teeth, gave their mouths a very disgusting appearance. They were of a middling stature, straight, and muscular, their limbs well formed, and they had a majestic gait. Their hair was black, long, and rolled up behind close to their heads, which appeared neat and becoming. They tattooed their legs a little above the ancles to the middle of their thighs, which gave them a deeper colour than the other parts of their bodies. None of them had any beards, except the youngest of the king's brothers; and it was, in course of time, observed, that they plucked out the hairs by the roots, and that very few only, who had strong thick beards, cherished and let them grow.

Whatever surprize the singularity of these natives might excite in the minds of our people, the natives

were no less wrapt in admiration at their appearances. The whiteness of colour attracted them so much, that it was evident they had never before seen any Europeans. They were continually exclaiming, *Wool!* *wool!* and *wool-a-treey!* words which implied that they were perfectly pleased with their visitors. They stroked their bodies and arms outside the garments, seeming to doubt whether their coverings were not a part of their real body, being totally ignorant of the use of clothes. However, the Malay informed them, that the English living in a much colder climate than theirs were obliged to have recourse to artificial warmth, to shield them from the inclemency of the weather, and that, from custom, they could not dispense with it, in a degree, even in the warmest regions.

The hands of the Europeans next engaged their attention, and particularly the black veins of the wrists. They probably imagined the whiteness of the hands and face to be artificial; and the blackness of the veins caused them to think, that it was a mode of tattooing; for they desired to look at the top parts of the arms, to see if the whiteness was continued. After this they requested a further view of the body, when some of the crew opened their bosoms, and told them that the other parts were nearly the same as that. The hair on the breasts of the Europeans excited their astonishment, as they consider such incumbrance highly indelicate, and pluck it out wherever it is found. The natives having in some degree satisfied their curiosity, began to express apprehensions that they had intruded too much; but the captain convinced them, by means of the Malay, that their fears were groundless.

As the natives expressed a desire that Captain Wilson would send one of his people to Pelew, that the king might see what kind of beings white men were, the captain complied, and appointed his brother for that purpose, giving him a small remnant of blue cloth, a canister of tea, another of sugar-candy, and a jar of preserved fruit, as a present for the king, of whom we shall here introduce the following account.

ABBA THULLE, as king, was the first person in the government at Pelew, and in him the chief authority was lodged. He appeared to be considered as the father of his people; and, though divested of all external decorations of royalty, had every mark of distinction paid to his person.

His rupacks or chiefs approached him with the greatest respect, and his common subjects, whenever they passed near him, or had occasion to address him, put their hands behind them, and crouched towards the ground: even if they were passing any house or place where the king was supposed to be, they humiliated themselves in the same manner, till they had got beyond his probable presence, when they resumed their usual mode of walking. On all occasions, however, the behaviour of Abba Thulle appeared gentle and gracious, yet always full of dignity; he heard what-

ever

ever his subjects had to say to him, and, by his affability and condescension, never suffered them to go away dissatisfied.

This personage, how great soever he was held at Pelew, was not understood by the English, when there, to possess a sovereignty over all the islands which came within their knowledge. The rupacks of Eonungs, Emillegue, and Artingall, and the rupack Meath, were independent in their own territories: yet Abba Thulle had several islands over which he ruled.

Upon all occurrences of moment, he convened the rupacks and officers of state; their councils were always held in the open air, upon square pavements; where the king first stated the business upon which he had assembled them, and submitted it to their consideration. Each rupack present delivered his opinion, but without rising from his seat: when the matter before them was settled, the king, standing up, put an end to the council.—After which they often entered into familiar conversation, and sometimes chatted together for an hour after their business was dispatched.

When any message was brought to the king, whether in council or elsewhere, if it came by one of the common people, it was delivered at some distance, in a low voice, to one of the inferior rupacks; who, bending in an humble manner at the king's side, delivered the message in a low tone of voice, with his face turned aside. His commands appeared to be absolute, though he acted in no important business without the advice of his chiefs. In council there was a particular stone on which the king sat; the other rupacks did not always take the same place, seating themselves sometimes on his right-hand, and sometimes on his left.

Every day in the afternoon, the king, whether he was at Pelew, or with the English at Oroolong (the island he had given them) went to sit in public, for the purpose of hearing any requests, or of adjusting any difference or dispute which might have arisen among his subjects.

Captain Wilson observes, with respect to the character and disposition of "this excellent man, who ruled over these sons of nature, that he certainly, in every part of his conduct, showed himself firm, noble, gracious, and benevolent; there was a dignity in all his deportment, a gentleness in all his manners, and a warmth and sensibility about his heart that won the love of all who approached him. Nature had bestowed on him a contemplative mind, which he had himself improved by those reflections that good sense dictated, and observation confirmed."

Raa Kook, the king's brother, and general of all his forces, was the next in power. It was his duty to summon the rupacks to attend the king, on whatever expedition or purpose they were called upon; but though Raa Kook acted as commander in chief, yet all the executive orders came from the king, whenever he attended in person. The general, as the king's

next brother, was his presumptive heir; the succession of Pelew not going to the king's children, till it had passed through the king's brothers: so that after the demise of Abba Thulle, the sovereignty would have descended to Raa Kook; on his demise, to Arra Kook; and, at the death of this last brother, it would have reverted to the eldest son of Abba Thulle; on which contingency, Qui Bill, being the presumptive heir, would, during the reign of his last surviving uncle, have become of course the hereditary general; as Lee Boo would when the sovereignty had fallen to his elder brother.

A particular chief, or rupack, always attended the king, and, being always near his person, was first consulted: but whether his office was religious or civil, or both, could not be learned with any certainty. He was not considered as a warrior, nor ever bore arms; and has only one wife, whereas the other rupacks had two. But, to resume our narrative:

The natives behaved in the most friendly manner to the English; and their monarch soon after paid them a visit, with his son and brother. His majesty was perfectly naked, and had no kind of ornament or mark of distinction, like his principal officers, who wore a bracelet of bone at their wrists. He bore a hatchet on his shoulder, the head of which was made of iron, a circumstance which surprised our people much, as all the other hatchets they had seen were of shell. The handle of it, which formed a sharp angle, stuck close to his shoulder, lying before and behind, and wanting no tying to keep it steady in walking.

His majesty would not go into the tents. A fall was therefore spread for him, on which he sat down, with his chief minister opposite, and his two brothers on each side; and the whole was encompassed by his attendants, who were numerous. He drank a cup of tea, but did not approve of the taste. Captain Wilson availed himself of this opportunity to obtain permission from the king to build a vessel, in order to convey the crew to some European settlement; and highly gratified him by causing a party of men to be drawn up, and fire three volleys. This occasioned such shouting and chattering, as equalled in noise the report of the pieces.

Captain Wilson dressed the king's son in a silk coat and blue trowsers. He was a young man extremely well made, but had lost his nose, whether in battle, or from a scrophulous disease, which is prevalent there, was not known.

Arra Kooker, one of the king's brothers, requested a white shirt, and as soon as it was given him, he put it on, in transports of joy, which he indicated by dancing and jumping, and in forming a humorous contrast between his shirt and his skin. This prince had a great propensity to mimicry, and often amused our people by taking off their manners, but with so much good nature, that no one could feel the least offence. He entertained a great partiality for their Newfoundland

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salutation, by barking, jumping, &c. which could not
fail of exciting the risible faculties. This prince was
seemingly about forty years of age, short in stature,
but so plump and fat, that he was almost as broad as
he was long.

After various ceremonies had passed, the captain
presented his majesty with a scarlet coat; who then
making signs to go on shore, jumped into the water,
and swam to land.

When the captain, and several officers, reached Pe-
lew, on a visit to the king, they came into a large
square pavement, round which were several houses,
and was conducted into one that stood in the centre of
one of the sides. Out of this house issued a number
of women, who were waiting to see those new beings
the English. Those our people were given to under-
stand were the wives of some of the rupacks, or great
officers of state. They were rather fairer than the rest of
the women, had some little ornaments about them, and
their faces and breasts were rubbed over with turmeric.

The king, and one of his brothers, led his guests
into this house; the women then returned, and receiv-
ed them with much joy, presenting their company
with cocoa-nuts and sweet drink, which all sat down
and partook of. The ladies also seated themselves, and
taking a parcel of leaves, began to make nets, an em-
ployment in which they pass great part of their time.
The king informed his guests that his house was to
be their abode as long as they remained at Pelew, and
that there they were to sleep. After this he rose up,
previously apologizing to the captain for retiring, saying
he was going to bathe.

Soon after a message came to Raa Hook from the
queen, requesting that she might see the English at her
dwelling. They attended him thither, and observed
immediately before it a rail, on which were some tame
pigeons tied by the leg. This is a bird held in such
estimation in those islands, that none but rupacks and
their families are allowed to eat them.

As they approached, the queen opened her window,
and spoke to Raa Hook, to desire the English would
sit down on the pavement before her, which being
complied with, a number of attendants brought out
yams, cocoa-nuts, and sweet drink. While they were
partaking of these, the queen asked Raa Hook many
questions about our people, of whom she took very great
notice, and wished some of them would come close to the
window, and draw up their coat sleeves, that she might
see the colour of their skins. After she had viewed
them attentively, and asked, through Raa Hook, as
many circumstances respecting them as she thought she
could with propriety obtrude, she signified that she
would not longer trespass on their time, by detaining
them; so they rose and took their leave.

Raa Hook now took them to his own house, where
they were welcomed without any parade. His wife,
among other things, gave them a broiled pigeon, a de-
licacy that, as before observed, only falls to the share
of the dignified.

There the character of the prince appeared in a new
and interesting light: his children encompassed him,
and climbing to his knees, fondly caressed their father,
while his supreme pleasure appeared to be in rolling
and tossing them about. This domestic scene, how-
ever, so much occupied the minds of the captain and
officers, that it was dark before they thought of reti-
ring. Raa Hook begged they would dispense with his
attendance, and ordered the Malay to conduct them to
their destined habitation, where they found some fish for
supper, sent by the king. Though the night proved
tempestuous, their house was so well thatched that the
rain could not penetrate.

The king having signified to Captain Wilson his
pleasure of tendering to him the island where the
English resided, as a present, and informed him that
they distinguished it by the name of Oroolong, in order
to announce possession of it, the British pendant was
hoisted, and three volleys of small arms fired. On the
east-side is the bay and harbour, which lies east and
west: it was judged the whole circumference of the
island did not exceed three miles. To this island the
captain would have returned the day following (the
night he passed with the officers under the roof of the
hospitable Prince Raa Hook) if the weather had not
turned unfavourable. They therefore took a ramble
further into the country, where the lands appeared to
be pretty well cultivated, and the villages full of inha-
bitants. They observed that the lower orders of the
women were busied in looking after the yam planta-
tions, which were mostly in swampy ground. Others
they found employed in making baskets and mats, and
in nursing their children. Among the women whom
Raa Hook conducted about the cove, there was one
who struck all our countrymen, as being superior in
elegance and beauty, as well as in her graceful manner
of walking, to any female they had noticed at Pelew;
she was very young, and they could not help making
some inquiries about her of the general; who informed
them, that she was one of the king's wives, and was
called LUDEE. This lady, as well as all her female
companions, testified that degree of surprise which the
first sight of our different works had excited in all the
other natives.

The employment of the men seemed to be that of
gathering cocoa-nuts, felling trees, and making spears
and darts, the chief warlike instruments of the Pelew-
ans. In the use of these they were remarkably expert,
as they afforded abundant proof in divers engagements
with the subjects of a neighbouring prince; in which
they were aided by a select party of the English at the
request of Abba Thulle, and obtained a complete victo-
ry by dint of the superior force of our fire-arms.

As the English had been useful in their assistance against the enemy, the king was deliberating what present or compensation he should make to the English leader. After a while he sent him, as a particular mark of his gratitude and esteem, two lovely young women. Captain Wilson, who was a grave sober man, and had his son with him, a youth about seventeen, was particularly embarrassed. He, however, thought proper to send them back again. The king of Pelew was exceedingly unhappy that his present was not accepted, and concluded, in his own mind, that their being rejected was owing to their not being sufficiently young. To obviate this objection, after some strong parental struggles, he actually sent Captain Wilson his own daughter, a sweet little girl, who was no more than twelve years old. She was of course returned also: but it was extremely difficult to satisfy the king that in this rejection of his presents no insult was intended.

The death of Raa Hook's valiant son afforded our people an opportunity of being acquainted with their funeral ceremonies. Having been invited to an entertainment by one of the rupaaks, they were surprised, when the repast was ended, at hearing the doleful lamentations of women at some distance; and going to the place from whence the sound proceeded, they observed a concourse of females following a dead body, held up in a mat, and laid on a sort of bier, made of bamboos, carried by four men on their shoulders. These were the only males in company. Our people followed to the place of interment, where the body was deposited without any religious ceremony, the bearers filling up the grave with their hands and feet, while the women knelt down, and again vented the most piercing cries, at times indicating as if their phrenzy would lead them to tear up the corpse.

The marriages of these people are simply a mutual contract between the sexes, which is held inviolate. A plurality of wives is allowed; but they have seldom more than two. They had no established religion, but seemed to possess an innate confidence of the efficacy of virtue, and the temporal advantages arising from moral rectitude.

C H A P. XXVI.

General Remarks on the Disposition, Character, and Religion of the Natives. The Order of the Bone described. Interesting Account of Lee Boo, one of the King's Sons, intrusted by his Father to the Care of Captain Wilson, who sails with him first to China, and afterwards arrives with him in England. Becoming Behaviour of the young Prince there; and affecting Particulars of his Death by the Small-Pox.

THE conduct of these people to the English was, from the first to the last, uniformly courteous and attentive, accompanied with a politeness that surprised

those on whom it was bestowed. At all times they seemed so cautious of intruding, that on many occasions they sacrificed their natural curiosity to that respect which decent good-manners appeared to them to exact. Their liberality to the English, at their departure, when individuals poured in all the best they had to give, and that of articles too, of which they had far from plenty themselves, strongly demonstrated, that these testimonies of friendship were the effusion of hearts that glowed with the flame of philanthropy; and when our countrymen, from want of stowage, were compelled to refuse the further marks of kindness which were offered them, the entreating eyes, and supplicating gestures with which they solicited their acceptance of what they had brought, most forcibly expressed how much their minds were wounded, to think they had not arrived early enough, to have their little tributes of affection received. Nor was this conduct of theirs an ostentatious civility exercised towards strangers; separated as they were from the rest of the world, the character of a stranger had never entered their imagination. They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share what they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence, which bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution; their bosoms had never harboured so contaminating a thought; no; it was the pure emotions of native benevolence! it was the love of man! it was a scene that pictured human nature in triumphant colouring; and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart!

Having given a sketch of the character of these people, it may not be amiss to inquire concerning their religion; which we shall do in the words of Mr. Keate.

"There are few people, I believe, among the race of men, whom navigation hath brought to our knowledge, who have not shewn, in some instance or other, a sense of something like religion, how much soever it might be mixed with idolatry or superstition; and yet our people, during their continuance with the natives of Pelew, never saw any particular ceremonies, or observed any thing that had the appearance of public worship. Indeed, circumstanced as the English were, they had not enough of the language to enter on topics of this nature; and it would also have been indifferet to have done it, as such inquiries might have been misconceived, or misconstrued by the natives: added to this, their thoughts were naturally bent on getting away, and preserving, while they remained here, the happy intercourse which subsisted between them and the inhabitants.

"Though there was not found, on any of the islands they visited, any place appropriated for religious rites, it would perhaps be going too far to declare, that the people of Pelew had absolutely no idea of religion. Independent of external ceremony, there may be such a thing as the religion of the heart, by which the mind

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may, in awful silence, be turned to contemplate the God of nature; and though unblest with those lights, which have pointed to the Christian world an unerring path to happiness and peace, yet they might, from the light of reason only, have discovered the efficacy of virtue, and the temporal advantages arising from moral rectitude.

"The reader will, by this time, have met with sufficient occurrences to convince him, that the inhabitants of these new-discovered regions had a fixed and rooted sense of the great moral duties: this appeared to govern their conduct, glow in all their actions, and grace their lives. Actuated by such principles, we see them laborious, industrious, and benevolent: in moments of danger firm, and prodigal of life; in misfortunes patient, in death resigned. And if, under all these circumstances, he can conceive, that the natives of Pelew passed their lives without some degree of confidence, some degree of hope, I have only to say, his idea of mankind must widely differ from my own.

"Superstition is a word of great latitude, and vaguely defined; though it hath, in enlightened eyes, been called the offspring of ignorance; yet in no times hath it existed without having some connection with religion. Now that the people of Pelew had, beyond all doubt, some portion of it, appears from the wish expressed by the king, when he saw the ship (Oroolong) building, 'That the English would take out of it some particular wood, which he perceived they had made use of, and which, he observed to them, was deemed to be of ill omen, or unpropitious.'

"They had also an idea of an evil spirit, that often counteracted human affairs; a very particular instance of this was seen, when Mr. Barker (a most valuable member in the English Society) fell backward from the side of the vessel, then on the stocks; Raa Hook, who happened to be present, observed thereupon, that it was owing to the *unlucky wood* our people had suffered to remain in the vessel, that the evil spirit had occasioned this mischief to Mr. Barker.

"In the passage from Pelew to China, somewhat was discovered in Prince Le Boo, pretty similar to what is called *second-sight*. At the time he was very sea-sick, he said, how much he was concerned at the distress his father and friends were feeling, who *knew* what he was then suffering. [His expression at the time was, *that he was sensible his father and family had been very unhappy from knowing that he had been sick.*] The same anxiety operated on him on their account, when he perceived his dissolution drawing near.

"They certainly entertained so strong an idea of divination, that whenever any matter of moment was going to be undertaken, they conceived they could, by splitting the leaves of a particular plant, that was not unlike our bulrush, and measuring the strips of this long narrow leaf on the back of their middle-finger, form a judgment whether it would or would not turn out prosperous. This was observed by Mr. M. Wilson,

in his first visit to the king at Pelew; and, on inquiry, was afterwards explained to the English by the linguist, as being done to discover if their arrival foreboded good or ill-fortune. It was noticed by several of our people, that the king recurred to this supposed oracle on different occasions, particularly at the time when they went on the second expedition against Artingall, a neighbouring island, when he appeared to be very unwilling to go aboard his canoe, and kept all his attendants waiting, till he had tumbled and twisted his leaves into a form that satisfied his mind, and predicted success. Our people never observed any person but the king apply to this divination.

"It is hardly possible but the fond anxiety of a parent, on giving up a son into the hands of strangers, who were to convey him to remote regions, of which he could form to himself but very imperfect notions, would, on so interesting a point, induce him to examine his oracle with uncommon attention; and it is as little to be doubted, but that every thing wore, to his imagination, a prosperous appearance: yet, to evince the fallacy of his prophetic leaves, they certainly augured not the truth, nor presented to the father's mind even a suspicion, that the son he parted with, he should see no more!

"On this subject, I would further wish to bring back to the reader's recollection a few occurrences:—As Raa Hook, and others of the natives, were two or three times present, when Captain Wilson, on a Sunday evening, assembled his people to read prayers to them, they expressed no surprise at what was doing, but appeared clearly to understand, that it was the mode in which the English addressed the invisible God, whom they looked up to for protection; and how different forever their own notions might be, they attended the English on these occasions with great respect, seeming desirous to join it, and constantly preserving the most profound silence, the general never allowing the natives to speak a single word, and refusing even to receive a message from the king, which arrived at the tents during divine service.

"The ceremony used by Raa Hook, after the funeral of his son, when he repeated something to himself whilst he was marking the cocoa-nuts, and the bundle of beetle-leaves which the old woman was to place on the young man's grave, had every appearance of a pious office; and when he planted the cocoa-nuts, and some other fruit trees on the island of Oroolong, what he uttered in a low voice, as each seed was deposited in the earth, impressed those present as the giving a benediction to the future tree that was to spring from it. The king also, when he took leave of his son, said a few words, which, by the solemnity they were delivered with, and the respectful manner in which Lee Boo received them, induced all our countrymen to conceive it was a kind of blessing.

"I must, in this place, add a circumstance that passed in conversation with Captain Wilson and Lee Boo.

Boo, after he had been some time in England: the former telling him, that saying prayers at church was to make men good, that when they died, and were buried, they might live again above (pointing to the sky); Lee Boo, with great earnestness, replied, *All same Pelew; bad men stay on earth; good men go into sky, become very beautiful*—holding his hand in the air, and giving a fluttering motion to his fingers. This surely conveyed a strong idea, that they believed the spirit existed, when the body was no more.

“After combining all these facts, and uniting them with the moral characters of the people, the reader is left in a situation to judge for himself; independent of Lee Boo’s declaration, whether it is probable that their lives could be conducted with that decency we have seen, and their minds trained to so strong a sense of justice, propriety, and decency, without having some guiding principle of religion; thus much, at least, I think, we may be authorised to assert—If all this was effected without it, it proves, that the natives of Pelew had been happy enough, not only to discover, but to be perfectly convinced, that VIRTUE IS ITS OWN REWARD.”

After three months stay on the island, our countrymen were enabled, by the most persevering toil, but still more by the beneficence and integrity of the natives, to build a vessel out of the fragments of their wreck. In this, after leaving one of the crew, named Madan Blanchard, who requested permission to remain on the island, they departed on the 12th of November, and arrived at Macao on the 30th of the same month, whence they afterwards proceeded to England.

The king, finding the English were preparing for their departure in their new vessel, the Oroolong, sent in the morning a message to Captain Wilson, desiring him to come to him at the watering-place; and on his arrival, acquainted him, that it was his intention to invest him with the Order of the BONE, and make him in form a rupack of the first rank. The captain expressed his acknowledgment for the honour his majesty purposed to confer on him, and the pleasure he felt at being admitted a Chief of Pelew.

The king and all the rupacks then went and sat down under the shade of some large trees, and Captain Wilson was desired to sit at a little distance; when Raa Kook receiving the bone, presented it as from his brother, Abba Thulle, and wanted to know which hand he used in common. This the general wished to ascertain, by putting a stone in his hand, which he desired him to throw at a distance from him. Finding it was the right-hand he naturally used, he was again requested to sit down, and the bone applied to his left-hand, to see if it was large enough for his hand to slip through: being not found sufficiently so, it was rasped away, till judged to be wide enough: when Raa Kook, the chief minister, and all the rupacks, proceeded to the investment, in the following manner:

The general made a string fast to each of the fingers

of the captain’s left-hand, and then lubricating the hand with oil, the chief minister placed himself behind the captain, holding him fast by the shoulders: Raa Kook then passed the different strings through the bone, and giving them to another rupack, they endeavoured to draw his hand through; Raa Kook, at the same time, with his own hand, compressing that of the captain into the smallest compass he possibly could, so that the bone might pass over the joints. During this, the most profound silence was preserved, both by the rupacks who assisted, and the people who attended as spectators, except by the king, who occasionally suggested in what manner they might facilitate the operation. The point being at last obtained, and the hand fairly passed through, the whole assembly expressed great joy. Abba Thulle then addressing the captain, told him, *That the bone should be rubbed bright every day, and preserved as a testimony of the rank he held amongst them; that this mark of dignity must, on every occasion, be defended valiantly, nor suffered to be torn from his arm, but with the loss of life.*

The ceremony ended, all the rupacks congratulated Captain Wilson on his being one of their order; and the inferior natives flocked round to look at the bone, and appeared highly pleased to see his arm adorned with it, calling him English Rupack.

This mark of distinction is given and received in those regions, as a reward of valour and fidelity, and held out as the prize of merit. The decoration indeed derives all its splendor from the combined ideas of the mind whilst viewing it; and the imagination is equally impressed with the same sentiment, whether the badge of honour be a strip of velvet tied round the knee, a cord of ribbon and cross dangling at the button hole, a star embroidered on the coat, or a bone upon the arm.

ANECDOTES OF LE BOO, SECOND SON OF ABBA THULLE.

The king, his father, from a predilection to our people, resolved to intrust his second son to the care of Captain Wilson, that he might have the advantage of improving himself, by accompanying the English, and of learning many things, that might, at his return, greatly benefit his own country. He added, that one of the Malays, from Pelelew, a neighbouring island, should also go to attend on him. He described his son as a young man of an amiable and gentle disposition; that he was sensible, and of a mild temper, and spoke much in his commendation.

Captain Wilson expressed himself exceedingly obliged and honoured by this singular mark of the king’s confidence and esteem; and assured him, that he should endeavour to merit the high trust reposed in him, by treating the young prince with the same tenderness and affection as his own son.

Lee Boo, we are told, gave our people an early opportunity of seeing the natural benevolence of his mind; for when at Canton, seeing some of the Chinese boats that are rowed by poor Tartar women, with their little

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children tied to their backs (and who live in families on
the water) surround the vessel, to petition for frag-
ments of victuals; the young prince, on noticing their
supplications, gave them oranges, and such other things
as he had, being particularly attentive to offer them those
things which he liked best himself.

Amongst several other things which solicited his no-
tice, when at the house of Mr. McIntyre, at Macao,
there was a large mirror at the upper end of the hall,
which reflected almost his whole person. Here Lee Boo
stood in perfect amazement at seeing himself;—he
laughed—he drew back—and returned to look again,
quite absorbed in wonder—he made an effort to look
behind, as if conceiving somebody was there, but found
the glass fixed close to the wall. Mr. McIntyre observ-
ing the idea that had crossed him, ordered a small glass
to be brought into the room, wherein having viewed
his face, he looked behind, to discover the person who
looked at him, totally unable to make out how all this
was produced.

As he drew near the British Channel, the number of
vessels that he observed pursuing their different courses,
increasing so much, he was obliged to give up the keep-
ing of his journal. When the Morse got to the Isle of
France, Captain Wilson, his brother, the prince, with
several other passengers, quitted her, and coming in a
boat between the Needles, arrived safe at Portsmouth the
14th day of July 1784. On landing, the number and
size of the men of war, then in harbour, the variety of
houses, and the ramparts, were all objects of attraction:
he seemed so totally absorbed in silent surprise, that he
had no leisure to ask any questions.

Mr. Keate, the writer of Captain Wilson's account
of the Pelew-Islands, observes, that going to Rother-
hithe to see the captain, Lee Boo was reading at a win-
dow; that he recollected him instantly, and flew with
eagerness to the door to meet him, looked on him as a
friend, ever after attached himself to him, appearing to
be happy whenever they met together. That he seemed
to be pleased with every thing about him, and said,
*All fine country, fine street, fine coach, and house upon
high up to sky*, putting alternately one hand above
another, by which it was found (their own habitations
being all on the ground) that every separate story of our
buildings, he, at that time, considered as a distinct
house.

He was introduced to several of the directors of the
India-Company, taken to visit many of the captain's
friends, and gradually shewn most of the public build-
ings in the different quarters of the town; but his pru-
dent conductor had the caution to avoid taking him to
any places of public entertainment, lest he might, in
those licensed resorts, catch the small-pox, a disease which
he purposed to inoculate the young prince with, as soon
as he had acquired enough of our language, to be rea-
soned into the necessity of submitting to the operation;
judging, and surely not without good reason, that by giv-
ing him so offensive and troublesome a distemper, without

first explaining its nature, and preparing his mind to
yield to it, might weaken that unbounded confidence
which this youth placed in his adopted father.

After he had been a while settled, and a little habitu-
ated to the manners of this country, he was sent every
day to an academy at Rotherhithe, to be instructed in
reading and writing, which he himself was eager to at-
tain, and most assiduous in learning. His whole ce-
portment, while there, was so engaging, that it not only
gained him the esteem of the gentleman under whose
tuition he was placed, but also the affection of his young
companions. In the hours of recess, when he returned
to the captain's house, he amused the whole family by
his vivacity, noticing every particularity he saw in any
of his schoolfellows, with great good-humour mimic-
ing their different manners, sometimes saying he would
have a school of his own when he returned to Pelew,
and should be thought very wise, when he taught the
great people their letters.

Captain Wilson, and the young prince, dining with
Mr. Keate early after his arrival, the latter was asking
how he was affected by painting: on mentioning the
subject, Dr. Carmichael Smyth, whom Dr. Keate had
requested to meet this stranger, wished the last-mentio-
ned person to bring a miniature of himself, that thereby
all might observe if it struck him. He took it in his
hand, and instantly darting his eyes towards Mr. Keate,
called out, *Miss Keate, very nice, very good.* The
captain then asking him, if he understood what it signi-
fied, he replied, *Lee Boo understand well, that Miss
Keate die—this Miss Keate live.* The writer re-
marks, that a treatise on the utility and intent of por-
trait-painting, could not have better defined the art than
this little sentence. Mrs. Wilson desiring Lee Boo,
who was on the opposite side of the table, to send her
some cherries, perceiving that he was going to take them
up with his fingers, jocosely noticed it to him; when he
instantly resorted to a spoon; but sensible that he had
discovered a little unpoliteness, his countenance was in
a moment covered with a blush, that visibly forced it-
self through his dark complexion.

Whenever he had opportunities of seeing gardens, he
was an attentive observer of the plants and fruit-trees,
would ask many questions about them, and say, when
he returned home, he would take seeds of such as would
live and flourish in Pelew; talked frequently of the
things he should then persuade the king to alter, or adopt;
and appeared, in viewing most objects, to consider how
far they might be rendered useful to his own country.

He was now proceeding with hasty strides in gaining
the English language, and advancing so rapidly with his
pen, that he would, probably, in a very short time,
have written a very fine hand, when he was overtaken
by that very disease, which with so much caution had
been guarded against. On the 16th of December 1784,
he felt himself much indisposed, and in a day or two
after an eruption appeared all over him. Dr. Smyth
told the family, that there was not a doubt with respect

to the disease; and was sorry to add (what he thought it right to prepare them for) that the appearances were such as almost totally precluded the hope of a favourable termination.

Mrs. Wilson happening to have some indisposition: at this time, which confined her to her bed, Lee Boo, on hearing of it, became impatient, saying, *What, mother ill! Lee Boo get up to see her*; which he did, and would go to her apartment, to be satisfied how she really was.

On the Thursday before his death, walking across the room, he looked at himself in the glass (his face being then much swelled and disfigured) he shook his head, and turned away, as if disgusted at his own appearance, and told Mr. Sharp, *that his father and mother much grieve, for they knew he was very sick*; this he repeated several times. At night, growing worse, he began to think himself in danger: he took Mr. Sharp by the hand, and fixing his eyes stedfastly on him, with earnestness said, *Good friend, when you go to Pelew, tell Abba Thulle, that Lee Boo take much drink, to make small-pox go away, but he die: that the captain and mother (meaning Mrs. Wilson) very kind;—all English very good men—was much sorry he could not speak to the king the number of fine things the English had got.* Then he reckoned what had been given him as presents, which he wished Mr. Sharp would distribute, when he went back, among the chiefs; and requested that very particular care might be taken of the blue glass barrels, or pedicels, which he directed should be given to the king. Poor Tom Rose, who stood at the foot of his young master's bed, was shedding tears at hearing all this, which Lee Boo observing, rebuked him for his weakness, saying, *Why should he be crying so because Lee Boo die?*

Whatever he felt, his spirit was above complaining; and Mrs. Wilson's chamber being adjoining to his own, he often called out to inquire if she was better, always adding (lest she might suffer any inquietude on his account) *Lee Boo do well, mother.* The small-pox, which had been out eight or nine days, not rising, he began to feel himself sink; and told Mr. Sharp, *he was going away.* His mind, however, remained perfectly clear and calm to the last, though what he suffered in the latter part of his existence, was severe, indeed! The strength of his constitution struggled long and hard against the venom of his disorder, till exhausted nature yielded in the contest.

Mr. Keate proceeds with his affecting narrative, as follows:

“ Dr. Smyth had the goodness, every day, on his return from Rotherhithe, to inform me (Captain Wilson) of the state of his patient, but never gave me any hope of his recovery. Being under an engagement with my family to pass a week at the house of my friend, Mr. Brock Watson, at Sheen, who was equally anxious and alarmed as ourselves for this amiable young man, I requested the doctor would have

the goodness to continue to me his information. The second day after I left town, I received the intelligence of his death, which deeply affected us all. I cannot give an account of this melancholy event so well as by transcribing Dr. Smyth's letter, by which it was conveyed to me.

“ Monday, Dec. 27, 1784.

“ MY DEAR SIR,

“ It is an unpleasant task for me to be the herald of bad news; yet, according to my promise, I must inform you of the fate of poor Lee Boo, who died this morning without a groan, the vigour of his mind and body resisting to the very last. Yesterday, the secondary fever coming on, he was seized with a shivering fit, (succeeded by a head-ach, violent perturbation of the heart, anxiety, and difficult breathing; again used the warm bath, which, as formerly, afforded him a temporary relief. He had a blister put on his back, which was as ineffectual as those applied to his legs. He expressed all his feelings to me, in the most forcible and pathetic manner, put my hand upon his heart, leaned his head on my arm, and explained his uneasiness in breathing; but when I was gone, he complained no more, shewing that he complained with a view to be relieved, not to be pitied.—In short, living or dying, he has given me a lesson which I shall never forget; and surely, for patience and fortitude, he was an example worthy of the imitation of a stoic! I did not see Captain Wilson when I called this morning, but the maid-servant was in tears, and every person in the family wore the face of grief: poor Lee Boo's affectionate temper made every one look upon him as a brother or a child. Compliments to the ladies, and to Mr. Watson, who, I make no doubt, will all join in regretting the untimely end of our poor prince; from you my friend, something more will be expected; and though you cannot bring him back to life, you are called upon (particularly considering his great attachment to you) not to let the memory of so much virtue pass away unrecorded. But I am interrupted in these melancholy reflections, and have only time to assure you of (what will never pass away but with myself) the sincere friendship of

“ Your affectionate, &c.

“ JAMES CARMICHAEL SMYTH.”

Captain Wilson notified to the India-House the unfortunate death of this young man: and received orders to conduct every thing with proper decency respecting his funeral. He was interred in Rotherhithe church-yard, the captain and his brother attending. All the young people of the academy joined in this testimony of regard; and the concourse of people at the church was so great, that it appeared as if the whole parish had assembled, to join in seeing the last ceremonies paid to one

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in it.

The India-Company, soon after, ordered a tomb
to be erected over his grave, with the following in-
scription:

TO THE MEMORY

Of Prince LEE BOO,

A Native of the Pelew, or Palos-Islands,
And Son to ABBA THULLE, Rupack, or King
Of the Island COOROORA;

Who departed this Life on the 17th of December 1784,

Aged 20 Years,

This Stone is inscribed

By the Honourable United East-India-Company,
As a Testimony of Esteem for the humane and
Kind Treatment

Afforded by his Father to the Crew of their Ship,

The Antelope, Captain Wilfor,

Which was wrecked off that Island,

On the Night of the 9th of August, 1783.

Stop, Reader, stop!—let NATURE claim a tear;

A Prince of mine—LEE BOO lies bury'd here.

From the above recited anecdotes of this amiable
youth, cut off in the moment that his character began
to blossom, what hopes might not have been entertained
of the future fruit such a plant would have produced!
He had both ardour and talents for improvement, and
every gentle quality of the heart to make himself be-
loved; so that, as far as the dim sight of mortals is per-
mitted to penetrate, he might, had his days been length-
ened, have carried back to his own country, not the
vices of a new world, but those solid advantages which
his own good sense would have suggested, as likely to
become most useful to it.

The evening before the Oroolong sailed, the king
asked Captain Wilfor, how long it might be before
his return to Pelew? And being told, that it would
probably be about thirty moons, or might chance to
extend to six more, Abba Thulle drew from his basket
a piece of line, and, after making thirty knots on it,
a little distance from each other, left a long space, and
then adding six others, carefully put it by.

As the slow but sure steps of time have been moving
onward, the reader's imagination will figure the anx-
ious parent resorting to this cherished remembrancer,

and with joy untying the earlier records of each elap-
sing period:—as he sees him advancing on his line, he
will conceive that joy redoubled; and when nearly ap-
proaching to the thirtieth knot, almost accusing the
planet of the night for passing so tardily away.

When verging towards the termination of his latest
reckoning, he will then picture the mind of the good
old king, glowing with parental affection, occasionally
alarmed by doubt, yet still buoyed up by hope; he will
then fancy him pacing inquisitively the sea-shore, and
often commanding his people to ascend every rocky
height, and glance their eyes along the level line of the
horizon which bounds the surrounding ocean, to see if
haply it might not in some part be broken by the distant
appearance of a returning sail.

Lastly, he will view the good Abba Thulle, wearied
out by that expectation which so many returning
moons, since his reckoning ceased, have by this time
taught him he had nourished in vain. But the reader
will bring him back to his remembrance, as armed
with that unshaken fortitude, which was equal to the
trials of varying life. He will not in him, as in less
manly spirits, see the passions rushing into opposite ex-
tremes:—hope turned into despair—affection con-
verted to hatred. No—after some allowance for their
natural fermentation, he will suppose them
all placidly subsiding into the calm of resigna-
tion. In proof of the truth of these remarks,
we doubt not, it will afford peculiar satisfaction to
our readers, to be informed, that in the beginning of
September 1791, advices were received by the Lord
Thurlow East-Indiaman, that the Panther, of 200 tons,
commanded by Lieutenant McCluer, with the Endea-
vour of sixty tons, had sailed from Bombay on the
23d of August 1790, and arrived safely at the Pelew-
Islands.

On their arrival, they observed two canoes, which
made towards the shore, instead of coming to the ships,
as had been expected. These, they supposed, were go-
ing to give an account to Abba Thulle of their arrival;
and in this conjecture they were not mistaken; for soon
after, they saw a number of canoes coming after them,
in one of which was the good old king.

Immediately on his coming on board, he went up to
the captain, taking him, by his dress, to be his former
friend, Captain Wilfor, and immediately felt on his arm
for the *bone* (a mark of honour he had conferred on the
captain, as described in p. 160.) and inquired what was
become of it. Finding his mistake in the person, and
being told that Captain Wilfor was alive and well in
England, he expressed great satisfaction.

Captain McCluer then communicated to him the
death of Lee Boo, and the disorder of which he died;
for which event, the good old man said, that he had
prepared his mind; that he had counted up to some
score moons, but the time being passed, he had despaired
of ever seeing the English more, judging that they had
either perished in their voyage to China, or did not in-
tend

tend to return again to visit his islands: he was, however, perfectly confident in the goodness of the English, and that Captain Wilson would take care of his son.

In relating the death of Blanchard (the seaman who had been left there by his desire) he was full of grief, and could hardly express himself, so much did he feel his loss. Blanchard was mortally wounded, in an engagement with the people of Pelelew, and died soon after; as did the great and good friends of Captain Wilson and his crew, Raa Kook, and Arra Kooker. During the time of Captain McCluer's stay at the islands, which was near a month, the utmost harmony and friendship prevailed; the good old king liberally supplied them with fish and yams, when the canoes came in, as he used to do to his former friends.

We have now given a circumstantial review of regions first explored in the vast Pacific-Ocean, by the latest most ingenious and enterprising navigators; in which the inquisitive mind has been presented with a display of human nature, in its rude and uncultivated state, and have therein pictured scenes tending to excite equal horror and amazement; but are happy to observe, that we have been enabled to close this part of the New Discoveries, with a copious description of the Pelelew-Islands, the character and virtues of whose inha-

bitants appear in the most amiable light, and cannot fail to affect the intelligent and philanthropic reader with the most pleasing sensations in the perusal.

We now pass on to Asia, being that quarter of the globe which is allowed, by geographers in general, to claim pre-eminence from the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the richness of its mines, and on various other accounts. Here new prospects open to the view, and here much more important, as well as entertaining discoveries, both on the coasts, as well as in the distant islands, have been recently made by our late navigators, all of which will be described in their proper places.

In this part of our undertaking, we shall survey amazingly extensive and opulent empires, trace the progress of arts and sciences, perceive the effects of different dispositions and propensities in a different race of men, and likewise give a detail of the customs, manners, and ceremonies of people totally opposite to those already described. As these subjects are happily adapted to blend instruction with entertainment, at the same time that they tend to expand the ideas of the readers, we presume they will not repent of devoting some part of their time to the contemplation of them. To the continental part, we shall also add a description at large of the Asiatic islands, classed under one general head.

A SPECIMEN OF THE PELEW LANGUAGE.

<i>Arracat</i>A man.	<i>Tair</i>A spoon.	<i>Ayrell</i>Fresh water.
<i>Artheil</i>A woman.	<i>Oylefi</i>A knife.	<i>Garagar</i>Wood, trees.
<i>Nalakell</i>A child.	<i>Peuwell</i>A cup.	<i>Ahagell</i>Bamboo.
<i>Rupack</i>A chief.	<i>Quall</i>A balon.	<i>Lills</i>Spears, darts.
<i>Cattam</i>A father.	<i>Aleuifs</i>Cocoa-nuts.	<i>Mallaye</i>Canoe, boat.
<i>Catheil</i>A mother.	<i>Cocow</i>Yams.	<i>Coyattle</i>A mast.
<i>Morwakell</i>A wife.	<i>Curra-Curra</i> ...Lemon	<i>Yurse</i>A sail.
<i>Talacoy</i>A male infant.	<i>Too</i>Plantains, bananas..	<i>Peeforse</i>A paddle, oar.
<i>Sucalie</i>A friend.	<i>Outh</i>A torch.	<i>Gill</i>A rope.
<i>Takelby</i>A workman, artificer.	<i>Karr</i>Fire.	<i>Ouguth</i>A fishing-net.
<i>Botheluth</i>The head.	<i>Pye</i>A mansion.	<i>Tboup</i>The sea.
<i>Ungelell</i>The teeth.	<i>Morabalon</i> ...A town.	<i>Neckell</i>Fish.
<i>Kimath</i>The arms.	<i>Kait</i>Smoke.	<i>Axwell</i>Turtle.
<i>Kalakulath</i>The body.	<i>Pyap</i>A rat.	<i>Cockiyoo</i>Birds.
<i>Arraffick</i>Blood.	<i>Cokall</i>An island.	<i>Cyep</i>Pigeons.
<i>Orosjock</i>Bones.	<i>Paathe</i>A rock..	<i>Niese</i>Eggs.



GRAPHY.

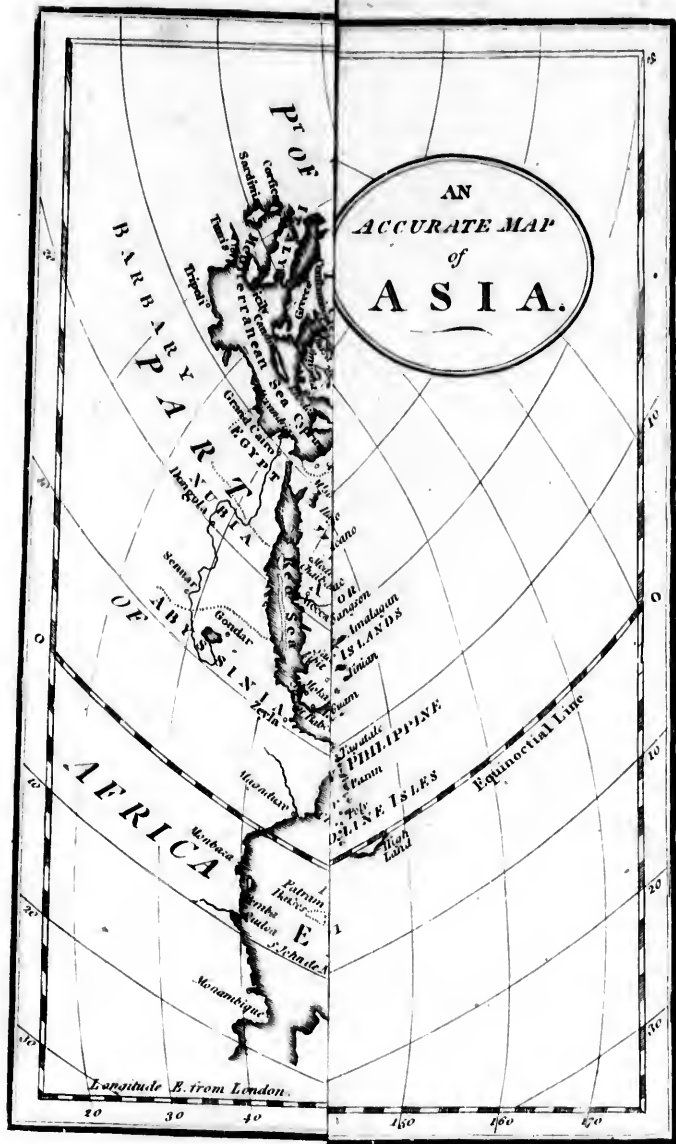
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PAGE.

..... Fresh water.
..... Wood, trees.
..... Bamboo.
..... Spears, darts.
..... Canoe, boat.
..... A mast.
..... A sail.
..... A paddle, oar.
..... A rope.
..... A fishing-net.
..... The sea.
..... Fish.
..... Turtle.
..... Birds.
..... Pigeons.
..... Eggs.



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BOOK II.

A S I A.

CHAP. I.

General Description of this Quarter of the World.

THOUGH for the reasons we have enumerated in the Preface, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; it must nevertheless be owned, that a considerable part of Asia, particularly that called Turkey, has lost much of its ancient splendor and fertility, and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in the whole territory, is now become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts, however, are still in a flourishing condition, which is rather to be attributed to the richness of the soil, than to the industry of the inhabitants, who are remarkable for their indolence, luxury, and effeminacy. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or further from the north. Hence the people of Tartary, and the Asiatic parts of Russia, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as those who inhabit the same latitudes in Europe. What

is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and the ingenuity they possess in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have long endeavoured to imitate, but without success.

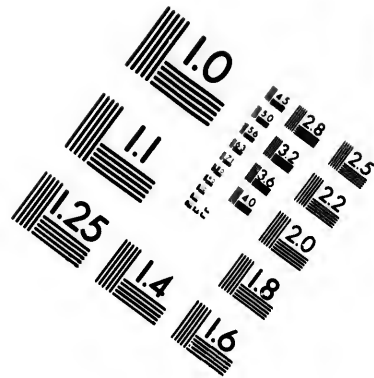
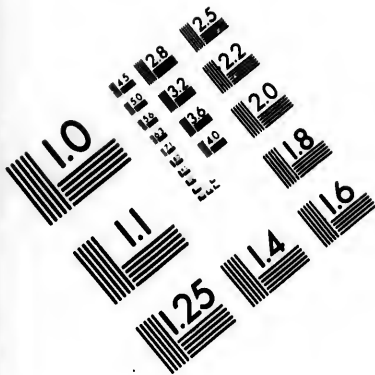
Asia claims the first planting of cities, institution of laws and government, civilization of manners, origin of arts and sciences, and cultivation of human literature in general. To these distinguished blessings of a spiritual or mental kind, may be added the bounties of Providence, which are here dispensed in vast variety, as well as superabundance. In fine, if we advert to the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the salubrity of its drugs, the fragrance and balsamic qualities of its plants, gums, and spices; the quantity, beauty, and value of its gems, the fineness of its silks and cottons, and many other natural endowments, we cannot but admit of its decided superiority, nor can we wonder at its ancient splendor, power, and opulence. The following are the principal regions into which Asia is divided:

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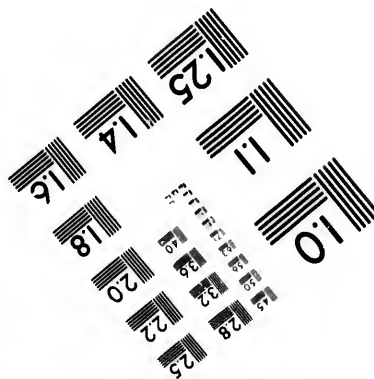
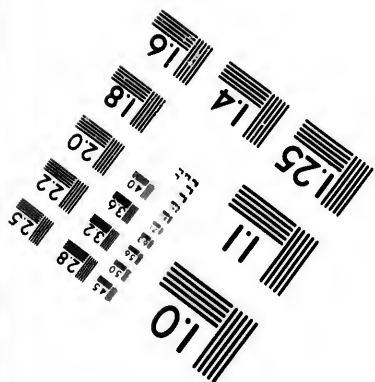
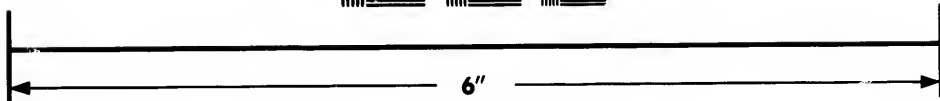
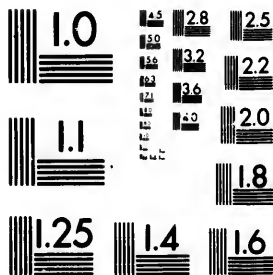
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AN
ACCURATE MAP
of
ASIA.



A GEOGRAPHIC TABLE OF TARTARY, AND TURKEY IN ASIA.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions.
Tartary.	Russian	The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on his conquests as far as he can.		3,050,000	Tobolsk	2160 N. E.	4 10 bef.	Christ. and Pagans
	Chinese			644,000	Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	Mogulean			185,350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	Independent			600,060	Samarcand, and Bassa	2800 E.	4 8 6 bef.	Pagans
	China	1440	1000	1,105,000	Peking	4320 S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
	Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. and Pagans
	India beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,500	Siam, Pegu	5040 S. E.	6 44 bef.	Mah. and Pagans
	Persia	1300	1100	800,000	Ispahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahometans
Turkey in Asia.	Part of Arabia	1300	1200	700,000	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Mahometans
	Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Christ. and Mah.
	Holy-Land	210	90	7,600	Jerusalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Christ. and Mah.
	Natolia	750	390	195,000	Bursa, or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Mahometans
	Diarbec, or Mesopotamia	240	210	27,600	Diarbec	2060 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with some few Christians.
	Irac, or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240		
	Turcomania, or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.	
	Georgia	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
	Curdistan, or Assyria	210	205	23,900	Scherazer	2220 E.	3 00 bef.	Mahometans

ASIA is situated between 25 and 180 deg. of east long. and between the equator and 80 deg. of north lat. It is about 4740 English miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary, and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova-Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen-Ocean on the north; on the west, it is separated from Africa by the Red-Sea; and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the Sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black-Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and

from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen-Ocean; on the east, it is bounded by the Pacific-Ocean, or South-Sea, which separates it from America, and on the south, by the Indian-Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea.

In ancient times, great part of this vast country was successively governed by the Assyrians, Medes, Persians, and Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or to any of the conquerors of the ancient world. Secluded by an almost impenetrable range of mountains and deserts, they were free from the swords of European warriors, and enjoyed their

their delicious climate, and the decline of the empire of Asia submitted to the middle of the world, they are usually, Africa, and Europe, the height of power, the death of T, the middle regions of the countries of the Chinese, the the lesser kingdom.

The prevailing religion of the globe, is about the most abject, they enjoy some share, as the Tartars are very, on account of their independent themselves, with unconcern, they remain uncorrupted; their laws and their customs are their whole property and arms. They are content to the choice, and are for subsistence, do slaves.

The Tartar, though never equally free, is divided in the country, where the despotism over the man, chief against the, no longer a pure occupation of all. The altitudes of Tartary, the seller moves with a enemy in every be the land, he crosses the allasin is dis, and robbery acquire conquest.

Among the inhabitants of Persia from Ir, they have formed a valley contains a c, despotism is temporary, the people, that he is their sovereign. they derive credit, they attend him in

IN ASIA.

Religions.

Christ, and Pagans

Pagans

Pagans

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Pagans

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Mah. and Pagans

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their delicious climates unenvied and unmolested. Upon the decline of the above-mentioned empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or, as they are usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, Africa, and Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Romans, when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, on every side victorious, soon after possessed themselves of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries under the dominion of the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three large empires: the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties generally depend.

The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe, is absolute monarchy; and here the people are the most abject slaves. If any of them can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. The latter alone possess liberty, on account of the sterility of their soil; independent themselves of revolution and change, they see, with unconcern, empires falling and rising around them. They remain unconquered by arms, by luxury, by corruption; their language is permanent; they adhere to their customs and manners, and retain their dress. Their whole property consists of flocks and herds, tents and arms. They annually make a small and voluntary present to the chief of their race. They revolt from oppression, and are free from necessity, which they mistake for choice. When men are obliged to wander for subsistence, despotism knows not where to find its slaves.

The Tartar, though a wanderer like the Arab, was never equally free. A violent aristocracy always prevailed in the country of the former, except in a few short periods, where the fortune of one established a transient despotism over the whole. There man is armed against man, chief against chief, and tribe against tribe. War is no longer a particular profession, but the constant occupation of all. Men are more afraid of men, in the solitudes of Tartary, than of beasts of prey. The traveller moves with great circumspection, and fears an enemy in every blast. When he perceives a track in the sand, he crosses it, and begins to draw his sword. The assassin is dignified with the name of conqueror, and robbery acquires the more honourable name of conquest.

Among the inhabitants of the mountains which separate Persia from India, the nature and face of the country have formed a different species of society. Every valley contains a community subject to a prince, whose despotism is tempered by an idea established among his people, that he is the chief of their blood, as well as their sovereign. They obey him without reluctance, as they derive credit to their family from his greatness. They attend him in his wars, with the attachment which

children have for a parent; and his government, though severe, partakes more of the rigid discipline of the general, than of the caprice of an arbitrary sovereign.

With regard to the great empires of Turkey, Persia, Hindostan, and China, they are despotic in the strictest sense of the word; and many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how there should exist any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy.

Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mahometanism. The Persian and Indian Mahometans are of the sect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Christianity, though planted here with amazing rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards by the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings of popish missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to their own avarice, and the rapacity and profligate disposition of the Europeans, who resort thither chiefly in search of wealth and dominion. Jews are to be found every where in Asia.

This fine and extensive country being inhabited by a great variety of people, it is no wonder that the languages are also different. It would be a task at once both difficult and useless to enumerate them all: it will be sufficient to observe, that the principal spoken in Asia, are the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. On the coasts of India and China, most of the European languages are spoken.

CHAPTER II.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Turkey in general. Its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Mountains, Rivers, Animals, &c.

THE eastern provinces of Turkey are, 1. Eyraca Arabic, or Chaldea, whose chief towns are Bassora and Bagdad. 2. Diarbec, or Mesopotamia; chief towns, Diarbec, Orfa, and Mossul. 3. Curdistan, or Assyria; chief towns, Nineveh and Belbis. 4. Turcomania, or Armenia; chief towns, Erzerum and Van. 5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia; chief towns, Teflis, Amarchia, and Gonie.

NATOLIA, or the Lesser Asia, on the west, contains, 1. Natolia Proper, whose chief towns are Bursa, Nice, Smyrna,

Smyrna, and Ephesus. 2. Amasia; chief towns, Amasia, Trapezond, and Tocat. 3. Aladuliâ; chief towns, Ajazzo and Marat. 4. Caramania; chief towns, Satalia and Terraffo.

East of the Levant, are Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy-Land; the chief towns in which are Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

The mountains, which are many, have been the most celebrated, in sacred and profane history, of any in the universe. The principal, which are situated in Lesser Asia, are Olympus, Ida, Tauris, Anti-Tauris, and the Carmanian Mountains. Besides these, are Mount Caucasus, or the Daghestan Mountains; Ararat, where the ark rested, and the other Armenian Mountains; Curdistan and Palestine, Hermon and Lebanon.

Asia is perhaps the best situated for navigation of any country in the universe; but the natives do not know how to make use of the uncommon natural advantages with which Providence has blessed them. The seas which border on it are the Euxine, or Black-Sea; the Bosphorus, or Sea of Constantinople; the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora; the Hellespont, and Ægean-Sea, or Archipelago, which divide Asia from Europe; the Levant, or White-Sea, and the Persian-Gulf. The Red-Sea likewise divides it from Africa, which occasions the Grand Seigneur, among his other titles, to style himself "Lord of the Black, White, and Red-Seas."

The most remarkable rivers are the Euphrates, Tigris, Meander, Orontes, Sarabat, Jordan, Haly, and Kara; which will be particularly described as they occur.

With respect to the air and climate, both are most delightful, 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 of mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in that kind of predestination which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity, and its fatal effects.

We need scarcely inform the reader, that this country, which contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives found here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. Nature has here brought all her productions to the highest perfection. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates produced in these provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants very little, and it is said, in

some places, nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed in size those of other countries.

Their animal productions by sea and land, are equally excellent and plentiful. The breed of Turkish and Arabian horses (the latter especially) are beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. Camels are generally made use of for travelling and carrying burdens; that animal, besides the advantage of strength, being formed by nature to travel a considerable time without either provender or water. Their manufacture, known by the name of camblets, was originally made by a mixture of camels-hair with silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk. Oxen are generally used in tillage. Buffaloes are found in several parts of Turkey, the flesh of which may be purchased at an easy rate; but it is very bad, nor is the beef much better. Vast flocks of sheep, however, are fed all over the country, but particularly in the province of Lycaonia, where they are mostly of the Syrian kind. The flesh of these sheep have an exquisite taste, and their tails are exceedingly long and thick, some of them having been known to weigh thirty pounds. Innumerable herds of goats are likewise kept here, especially in Pamphylia, the hair of this animal being also of infinite use in the manufacture of their fine camblets, and great quantities of it are exported to Europe. Their kids are esteemed delicate eating, and said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe.

In Turkey, some of the birds are of an extraordinary size, particularly the ostrich, but these are not very common. There is great plenty of wild-fowl, and the island of Cyprus produces a bird, about the size of a lark; many thousands of them, when pickled down in barrels, are sent annually to Venice, where they fetch a very good price. Great numbers of them are caught in the months of September and October.

Great quantities of fish are found in most of the rivers, particularly salmon and carp of an amazing size; but the fish on their sea-coasts are esteemed far more delicate in their kind, viz. turbot, rots, soles, roaches, pilchers, tunnies, oysters, herrings, &c.

This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world. Some of these are remarkable for their salubrity, and others for their costly decorations. Near the gulf of Nicomedia is a fountain much esteemed by the Turks and Greeks for its medicinal virtues; as are several springs and rivulets in the neighbourhood of Coos. Therma, in Bithynia, is famous for its hot-baths. Near Bursa, is a large bath, the waters of which flow through mines of triol: near it is a warm bath; and at about a league distance is another, where the water is hot enough to boil an egg.

C H A P.

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CHAP. III.

TURKEY.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, Diversions, Dress, Marriages, Funerals, Religion, Ecclesiastical Institutions of Christians, Learning and Learned Men, Antiquities, Curiosities, &c.

THE limits of this great country not being accurately fixed, geographers have not been able to ascertain its population, which is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian æra, or even under the Roman emperors, owing to various causes; and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which appears to be an enemy to population, if we may conclude from the state of the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, as they are more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter; but the plague is the greatest cause of depopulation. The Turkish monarch, however, has more subjects than any two princes of Europe.

With respect to the inhabitants, the men, in general, are well made and robust: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome: their hair and eyes are black, or dark brown. The women, when young, have delicate complexions, and regular features, but they generally look old at thirty. They are said to be exceeding amorous, lively, and witty. The Turks are rather hypocondriac, grave, sedate, and passive; yet, when agitated by passion, become furious, raging, ungovernable; sometimes are big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive beyond conception. In matters of religion, they are tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Though the greater part of them seem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in point of opinion; yet they are far from being devoid of social affections for those of their own religion. But interest is their supreme good; and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, consanguinity, or friendship, are with the generality speedily dissolved.

The morals of the Asiatic Turks are, however, in many respects, preferable to those of the Europeans: they are hospitable to strangers, and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among the great: they are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their benevolence and public spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanseras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view, they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries are a luxury to weary travellers.

The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals, but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from others, are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses: where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium.

They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own, or any other country. If a vizier, bashaw, or other officer, is turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion, than that there will be a new vizier or governor, seldom inquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister. They are perfect strangers to wit and agreeable conversation. They have few printed books; and the Koran, with the comments upon it, form the chief part of their study. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and even justice may be purchased by a well-timed bribe.

About eleven o'clock in the forenoon, they dine; but supper is their principal meal, which they eat at five in the winter, and six in the summer. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high-seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high-seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the greatest indulgence they are addicted to, is the chewing vast quantities of opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of higher rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate, and sober, from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though many of them, notwithstanding this injunction, indulge themselves in strong liquors to excess. Their common salutation is by bowing the head a little, and laying the right-hand on the breast; but to persons of rank, they stoop so low as to kiss the border of their veil. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking, or riding, either for health or diversion: the most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise, when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites prescribed them by Mahomet. They are falsely accused of cruelty towards their slaves or servants; for they frequently behave with more lenity to them than the Christians; especially if they are acquainted with any art or trade that may be useful to the community.

Their usual amusements within doors are the chess, or draught-board; and if they play at chance-games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the

Koran. 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.

As to their dress, the men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long, except the military, and those in the seraglio, who wear only whiskers: they cover their heads with a turban, which they never put off but when they sleep: they suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches or drawers are of a piece with their stockings; and, instead of shoes, they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads, with horns resembling a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, which is but seldom, they are so muffled up as not to be known to their nearest relations. 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 kenna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men, in colouring their beards, make use of the same expedient.

In Turkey, marriages are chiefly negotiated by the ladies; and when the preliminaries are adjusted, and terms agreed upon, the bridegroom elect pays down a sum of money, which is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple; a licence is obtained from the *cadi*, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The wedding is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain: in consequence of this permission, the wealthy Turks, besides their wives, keep a kind of seraglio of women; but all these indulgences are sometimes not sufficient to gratify their unnatural desires. The women are kept under a rigorous confinement. Divorces are allowed; but no man is allowed to take back again the woman he has once repudiated, till she has been married to another, and divorced by him also; which is sometimes done as a mere form, where the parties agree to live together again.

Their funerals are exceedingly decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and after being deposited in a mosque (as they call their temples) they are buried in a field by the *iman* or priest, who pronounces a funeral oration at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by deck-

ing the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves. A widow leaves off all finery for twelve months, and in mourning for her husband, wears a particular head-dress.

The established religion of the Turks is the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet, the author of it; some account of which the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Mahometans are divided into two great sects, those of Ali and Omar: the Persians being of the former, and the Turks of the latter; but these are again subdivided into many others. There is no ordination among their clergy; any person may be a priest that pleases to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order: he may also lay down his office when he thinks proper. That the Mahometans believe women possess no souls, is a vulgar error, since many passages in the Koran prove the contrary opinion.

With respect to the ecclesiastical institutions of Christians, the Turkish government has formed these into part of its finances, and tolerated them where they are most profitable; but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such, as must always dispose that people to favour any revolution of government. Constantinople, Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbishop or bishop. All male Christians, according to their stations, pay also a capitation-tax, from seventeen years old to sixty.

In this empire, the radical languages are the Sclavonian, which seems to have been the mother tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is still spoken. Their pater-noster is expressed in the following specimen:

“Pater hemas, opios iso ees tos ouranou; hagia
“shito to onoma sou; na erti he basilia sou: to the
“lema sou na genetez itzon en te ge, os is ton oura-
“non: to psomi hemas doze hemas sunoren: he f
“chorale hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, ka hemas
“sichorasomen, ekinous opou: mas adikounka me-
“ternes hemais is to piratino, alla soton hemas apo to
“kaxo. Amen.”

Till of late, the Turks professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who, in general, are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends further than reading the Turkish language, and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them understand

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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. There are, however, some schools, colleges, and academies to be met with in Turkey, but they are on a very different footing from those among us; and some years ago, a printing-house was opened at Constantinople, where books of all kinds, except on matters of religion, were allowed to be printed.

Their natural and artificial antiquities and curiosities are so various, that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. These countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a group of curiosities, all that can be done here, is, to select some of the most striking; and as Palmyra and Balbec form the pride of all antiquity, we shall therefore begin with them:

"Palmyra, in the deserts of Arabia, or, as by the scripture styled, Tadmor in the wilderness, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about 33 deg. north lat. and 200 miles to the south of Aleppo. Its present appearance affords a most awful spectacle. As you approach, the first object which presents itself is a ruined castle, on the north side of the city. From it you descry Tadmor, enclosed on three sides by long ridges of mountains; southward of it is a vast plain, extending far beyond the sight. The city must have been of large extent, from the space now taken up by its ruins; among which live about thirty or forty miserable families, in huts of dirt, within a spacious court, which once enclosed a magnificent temple. This court hath a stately high wall, of large square stone, adorned by pilasters both within and without; there are about sixty on each side. The beautiful cornices have been beaten down by the Turks. Towards the centre, are the remains of a castle, shrouding the fragments of a temple of exquisite beauty, as appears by what is still standing of its entrance, viz. two stones thirty-five feet long, carved with vines, and clusters of grapes. In the great court are the remains of two rows of very noble marble pillars, thirty-seven feet high, with capitals finely carved, and the cornices must have been of equal elegance; fifty-eight of these pillars are entire: there must have been many more, as it appears they went quite round the court, supporting a most spacious double piazza. The walks on the west side of this piazza, which face the front of the temple, seem to have been grand and spacious; and at each end are two niches for statues at length, with pedestals, borders, supporters, canopies, &c. carved with inimitable art. The space within this once

beautiful enclosure, is (or rather was) encompassed by another row of pillars of a different order, fifty feet high; sixteen of which are yet standing. The temple was about ninety feet long, and forty broad: its grand entrance on the west appears, by what remains of it, to have been the most magnificent in the world. Over a door-way in the remaining walls, you trace a spread-eagle, as at Balbec; and here are the fragments of cupids, as well as of eagles, most finely imitating nature, on large stones mouldering on the earth. Nothing of the temple stands but the walls, the window-places of which are narrow at top, but richly adorned with sculpture. In the middle is a cupola, all one solid piece. Leaving this court and temple, your eyes are saluted with a great number of pillars of marble, scattered for near a mile. To the north, you have a stately obelisk before you, consisting of seven large stones, besides its capital, grandly sculptured: it is more than fifty feet high, and is twelve feet and a half in circumference just above the pedestal; and it is imagined a statue once stood upon it. To the east and west of this, at the distance of about a quarter of a mile, is another obelisk, that seems to have corresponded with the first-mentioned; and, according to the fragment of a third, it should seem that there was a continued range of them. On one of them, which is about forty feet high, there is a Gothic inscription, commemorating two patriots; and about an hundred paces from it, is a large and lofty entrance, leading to a grand piazza, adorned with marble pillars, on most of which there are inscriptions. A little further onward, to the left, are the remains of a stately pile of remarkably fine marble, twenty-two feet long. On the west side of the piazza, are several openings for gates; two of them appear to have been the most superb that ever captivated the human eye, both in point of grandeur of work in general, and the beautiful porphyry pillars with which they were adorned. Eastward of the piazza, are a great number of scattered marble pillars, most of which have been deprived of their elegant capitals. A little ruined temple lies mouldering at a short distance, which appears to have been a very curious structure. But of all the venerable remains, none more attract the admiration, than the magnificent sepulchres towards the north of the city, extending a mile and more, and which, at a distance, have the appearance of tops of decayed churches, or bastions of ruined fortifications."

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 sand. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world; and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered state, therefore, can be only accounted for by natural causes, which have turned the more fertile tracts

tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history, it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and put to death her principal nobility, and among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures, in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which are hereunder mentioned. Travellers give but an imperfect account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inscriptions 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 very justly observed, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal to those of Balbec; which we shall now give an account of.

The venerable ruins of Balbec (called by the Greeks Heliopolis, or The City of the Sun) evince, that it was one of the most magnificent cities in the universe; at present it is not above a mile and a half in circumference, and the poor inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in mean houses, built out of the ancient ruins. The Hon. Van Egmont says,

“Balbec, now called Baalbec, is probably the ancient Heliopolis, or City of the Sun; and its new name seems to correspond with the ancient Baal, in the Phœnician language, signifying an idol, particularly that of the sun. And what seems to confirm me in my opinion, that Balbec is the ancient Heliopolis, or City of the Sun, was a medal of Philippus Cæsar, which I found here. He is on one side represented as a youth without beard, or crown; and on the reverse are two eagles, with the ends of their beaks joined; and between them is inscribed, COL. HEL. whence it is plain, that this city was at that time a Roman colony.” It is situated in one of the most delightful plains in the world, at the foot of Mount Antilibanus towards the westward: it is about 30 miles north of Damascus, and the same east from the sea-coast, in 33 deg. north lat. and 37 deg. 30 min. east long. This place was by the Arabians called the Wonder of Syria; and the magnificent ruins are certainly the admiration of all travellers who behold them. A superb palace, a noble temple, and some other ruins, stand at the south-west of the town; and having

been patched and pieced in later times, are converted into a castle, as it is called. In approaching these venerable edifices, a rotunda or round pile attracts the view, encircled with pillars of the Corinthian order, which support a cornice that runs all round the structure. The whole, though greatly decayed, exhibits marks of astonishing elegance and grandeur, being built of marble, circular without, and octangular within. The Greeks, by whom it hath been converted into a church, have taken infinite pains to spoil its beauty, by daubing it with plaster. There is a superb, lofty building contiguous to the rotunda, which leads to a noble arched portico, of 150 paces in length, that conducts you to a temple of astonishing magnificence, which is a miracle hath withstood the injuries of time. It is an oblong square, of 192 feet in length on the outside, and 120 within. The breadth on the outside is ninety-six feet, and within sixty. The whole is surrounded by a noble portico, supported by pillars of the Corinthian order, each of which consists only of three stones, though the height is fifty-four feet, and the diameter six feet three inches; they are nine feet distant from each other, and from the wall of the temple: their number on each side of the temple is fourteen, and at each end eight; the architrave and cornice are exquisitely carved and embellished. Round the temple, between the wall and pillars, is an arcade of large stones, hollowed out archwise, in the centre of each of which is a god, goddess, or hero, executed with such animation as is scarce conceivable. Round the foot of the temple wall is a double border of marble, whose lower parts are filled with basso relievo miniatures, expressive of heathen ceremonials and mysteries. The entrance to the temple is the most august imaginable, the ascent being by thirty steps, bounded by a wall on each side that leads to a pedestal, on which a statue formerly stood. The front is composed of eight Corinthian pillars, fluted like those that go round the temple, and a nobly-proportioned triangular pediment; in the midst of these pillars, at six feet distance, are four others, resembling the former, and two more, with three faces each: all these form a portico sixty feet broad, and twenty-four deep, before the door of the temple. Under the vault of the portico, the entrance of the temple appears through these pillars in admirable proportion. The portal is square, and of marble, forty feet high, and twenty-eight wide, the aperture being about twenty; from this portal the bottom of the lintel is seen, embellished by a piece of sculpture not to be paralleled in the universe: it represents a prodigious large eagle in basso relievo, his wings are expanded, and he carries a caduceus in his pounces; on either side a cupid appears, holding the one end of a festoon by a ribbon, as the eagle himself holds the other in his beak, in a manner inimitably fine.

The temple is divided into three aisles, two narrow on the sides, and one broad in the middle, by three rows of fluted Corinthian pillars, of near four feet in diameter, and about thirty-six feet in height, including the

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pedestal: the pillars are 18 feet distance. The walls between the pilasters, one at the bottom of the niches arches, and the wall portion of a Corinthian. Over the round between the pilasters are marble, and end of the middle the choir is distant two large square form a superb sculpture here is same as in the bust stand upon the pedestals. The stood in a vast choir is open to upon vaults of their construction signed for some superincumbent accompanied by evident from with marble steabrest.

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pedestal: the pillars are 12 in number, six of a side, at 18 feet distance from each other, and 12 from the walls. The walls themselves are decorated by two rows of pilasters, one above the other, and between each two of the innermost is a niche 15 feet high; the bottoms of the niches are upon a level with the bases of the pillars, and the wall to that height is wrought in the proportion of a Corinthian pedestal: the niches themselves are Corinthian, and executed with inimitable delicacy. Over the round niches are a row of square ones between the pilasters of the upper order: the ornaments are marble, and the pediment triangular. At the west end of the middle aisle, you ascend to a choir by 12 steps: the choir is distinguished from the rest of the fabric by two large square columns adorned with pilasters, which form a superb entrance. The profusion of admirable sculpture here is astonishing; but the architecture is the same as in the body of the temple, except that the niches stand upon the pavement, and the pillars are without pedestals. The principal deity formerly worshipped here stood in a vast niche at the bottom of the choir. The choir is open towards the middle. The whole pile stands upon vaults of such excellent architecture, and so bold in their construction, that it is imagined they were designed for something more than merely to support the superincumbent building. This temple anciently was accompanied by some other magnificent buildings, as is evident from four ascents to it, one upon each angle, with marble steps long enough for ten people to go up abreast.

The palace, which is in what the Turks call the Castle, must have been one of the most superb structures that imagination can conceive, but it is much more decayed than the temple. It ought to be observed, that the old wall which encloses both these structures is composed of such prodigious blocks of stone as almost transcends belief; three in particular that lie close to each other in a line extend 183 feet, one being 63 feet in length, and the other two 60 feet each. A dark arched vault, containing many busts, leads to an hexagonal building which forms a spacious theatre; the end opens to a terrace which is ascended by marble steps; you then enter a square court surrounded by magnificent buildings: on each hand are double rows of pillars, which form galleries of 66 fathoms in length and eight in breadth. The bottom of this court is occupied by a building amazingly sumptuous, which appears to have been the body of the palace; the columns are as large as those of the Hippodrome at Constantinople, nine of them are standing, and a good piece of the entablature. But it is surprising that each of these large columns is made of one entire block only. All the buildings in this castle front the east, and the Corinthian order prevails throughout the whole; there is no place where such precious remains of architecture and sculpture are to be found; as the fine taste of Greece, and the magnificence of Rome, seem to be blended; the ornaments are at once innumerable and

exquisite. Beneath the whole are vaults, in which vast flights of marble stairs, of 200 steps in a flight, are frequently found. The turn and elevation of these vaults are bold and surprising; they contain many noble halls and superb apartments, admirably decorated. Some of these vaults are dark, others receive light from large windows which stand on the level of the ground above; but the most singular circumstance is, that all these astonishing edifices are built with such enormous stones as those before-mentioned, without any visible sign of mortar, or any kind of cement whatever. The present city is surrounded with a wall of square stones, and some towers in good condition; the gardens in the environs are pleasant, fruitful, and well watered. Many houses which contain various apartments, are cut out of the solid rocks. Conjectures of a very different nature have been formed concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different aeras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the christian aera, but without going back to the ancient times of the Jews or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. A free-stone quarry in the neighbourhood furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, which, reduced to our measure, is 135 tons. The ornamental parts were furnished from a coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance.

The cities of Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected upon the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried; so that the vast sums spent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in visiting those places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uses. We shall not amuse the reader with any accounts of the spot which is said to have formed Paradise, and to have been situated between the river Euphrates and the Tigris, where there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in those immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is indeed easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but their inscriptions

tions will give the best information concerning particulars.

The seat of Old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a rock, which the poets magnified into a river. A temple of marble built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milisso in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think that the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus, may be discerned.

CH A P. IV.

The Provinces and chief Towns of TURKEY.

THE province of Eyraca-Arabic, Yerack, or Irack-Arabi, hath been anciently termed Shinaar, Babylonica, and Chaldea. It lies between 30 and 40 deg. north latitude; and is bounded on the north by Diarbec; on the west, by the deserts of Sham; on the south, partly by the same deserts, as those of Arabia; and by the Median and Assyrian mountains, on the east.

The air of this country is in general very serene and temperate, but at certain times is so extremely dangerous, and the heats so excessive, that formerly many of the inhabitants used to sleep in cisterns of water; and this pernicious practice is at present not entirely discontinued. The inhabitants are sometimes visited by a pestilential wind, which has greatly excited the attention of travellers and philosophers. As they have no rains for eight months in the year, and sometimes much longer, the land is watered from the Euphrates, and other rivers, by means of a great number of engines admirably constructed for that purpose.

The country, in general, yields grain two hundred fold, and frequently three hundred; and its fertility is such, that it would astonish a traveller who had seen all the rest of the known world. The palms, particularly those of the date kind, afford the inhabitants meat, wine, and honey. The millet and sesame shoot up to the size of trees, and the barley and wheat have leaves of four fingers in breadth. They have neither olives nor grapes; but the sesame is an excellent substitute to furnish oil where olives are wanting, and, in lieu of grapes, the palm supplies them with wine.

The Tigris and Euphrates used formerly to overflow in the months of June, July, and August, and cover the whole country with water; and the inundations were generally increased by torrents of melted snow, which poured down from the Armenian mountains; but those floods proving very detrimental in various cases, the inhabitants guarded against them by

cutting a great number of artificial canals, rivers, and canals, which they effected with infinite assiduity and labour. Thus the waters were properly distributed, an easy communication made betwixt every part of the country, and the people universally benefited. The pasture being exceedingly rich, great numbers of cattle are fed, which not only plentifully supply the inhabitants with meat, but with milk, butter, and other useful necessaries.

This country is famous for the great plain of Shinaar, or Sennaar, where the whole race of mankind were collected together after the flood, and from thence dispersed over the face of the whole earth; which was the place where the tower of Babel was built, and the renowned city of Babylon, of which the vestiges, or what are shewn for such, are very inconsiderable.

Bagdad, the capital of the ancient Chaldea, was the metropolis of the caliphate under the Saracens in the 12th century. This city is built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of the ancient Babylon: few marks of its ancient grandeur are now remaining. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air: many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceiling ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange-trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the bashaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. sterling. Their bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large, and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandize, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of different colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion; but in the year 1779 they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not able to support a siege. Below the castle, by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity

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and elegance of their dialect. The pilgrims, who visit Mecca by land, pass thro' Bagdad, and pay four piastres by way of tribute, which brings a considerable revenue to the grand seignior.

Bassora, or Basrah, on the frontiers of Dusia, lies in 30 deg. 17 min. north lat. and 9 deg. 30 min. east longitude, being about 250 miles south-east from Bagdad, and 240 south-west from Ispahan; it was built A. D. 636, by Omar the second caliph, in order to cut off the communication between Persia and India. This city is 19 miles in circumference, opulent and populous, but the buildings have nothing extraordinary in them, the houses being only two stories high, built with bricks dried in the sun, and flat on the tops. The circumjacent country is exceedingly fertile and delightful. It is subject to an Arabian prince, who is tributary to the grand seignior.

The Province of DIARBEC, or MESOPOTAMIA.

THIS country extends about 600 miles along the banks of the Euphrates and Tigris, from Mount Taurus, on the north, to the Persian gulph on the south. The breadth is in some places 300, and in others 150 miles. The air is exceedingly temperate and serene. The country produces silk; and is fertile with very little cultivation, being rich in grain, fruits, and pasturage. Numerous flocks and abundance of cattle feed on the latter; yet there are considerable uninhabited deserts in some parts. The celebrated rivers Euphrates and Tigris flow through this country, and not only supply it with excellent fish, but contribute exceedingly to its beauty and fertility.

The Tigris rises in the Armenian mountains; and acquired its name from its rapidity, the word, in the Median language, signifying a dart or arrow. It passes through the lake Arethusa, and afterwards sinking into the earth, rises again on the other side of Mount Taurus. It proceeds from thence to the lake Thespiates, but, in the way, hides itself for the space of 25 miles, and afterwards proceeds with great rapidity. Between Assyria and Mesopotamia, it receives several rivers; and below Bagdad branches into two channels, both which disembody themselves into the Euphrates, and form an island by that means.

But the most considerable river in Asia is the Euphrates, which takes its source in Mount Taurus; proceeding westerly, it crosses Turcomania, then turning southward, it divides Syria from Diarbec. Afterwards running along the western limits of Arabia Deserta, it waters a great number of towns, and then flows smoothly to the city of Asia, where the reflux, or tides of the Persian gulph, disturb its stream, and discolour its waters, though ninety miles distance from it. At about 60 miles from the Persian gulph it unites with the Tigris. In general it flows gently,

and waters a great number of fertile and delightful plains; its banks are embellished with perpetual verdure, and adorned by many trees, particularly palms; it is neither deep nor wide, except when the melting of the snows on the Armenian mountains occasions it to swell; but the waters are deemed very salubrious.

Diarbec is the chief city of this province: it is situated in 37 deg. 35 min. north lat. and 40 deg. 50 min. east longitude, and encompassed by two walls, the outermost of which is defended by 72 towers; there are but three gates, over that towards the west some Latin and Greek inscriptions are seen, though many of the letters are almost obliterated. The name, however, of Constantine is still visible, and frequently repeated, which gives occasion to surmise that it was either originally built, or greatly repaired and improved by that emperor. The Tigris forms a half moon about it, and from its wall to the water side there is a steep precipice. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and upon the whole is one of the most commercial, strong, opulent, and populous cities of all Asiatic Turkey. It is supplied with water from the Tigris by means of an artificial canal, and embellished with many noble piazzas or market places, and other elegant buildings, particularly a spacious grand mosque, which was once a christian church. On the sides of the river are several caravanferas or inns; and near the town is a chapel, in which the Turks affirm that Job lies buried: about a league from the city the Tigris is fordable, nevertheless there is a stone bridge over this very part, on account of the floods, which are occasioned by the excessive rains and melted snows, and which often render the ford impassable. The neighbouring country is pleasant and fertile. The pigeons are larger and more delicate than any in Europe. The meat, bread, and wine, are admirable, and the fruits excellent.

The men are more affable here, and the women are treated with much more politeness, and have greater indulgence granted them, than in any other part of the Turkish empire. The chief manufactures carried on here are dyeing, dressing, and tanning, particularly goats skin, which is commonly known by the name of Turkey leather, of which immense quantities are vended in all parts of Asia and Europe: they likewise dye linen and cotton to great perfection. The waters of the Tigris are said to be admirably adapted to dyeing, and give the leather a finer grain, and leather, linen, and cotton, a livelier colour than any other waters.

The governor of this city, who is a bassa, is exceedingly powerful, and usually has a body of 20,000 cavalry under his command, that he may be the better enabled to repel the incursions of the Cordes and Tartars, who in great companies of horse attack and rob the caravans.

Orfa, or Orpha, lies in 37 deg. 16 min. north latitude, and 39 deg. 15 min. east longitude; and is situated

situated at the head of the river Scirtas, on the east side of the Euphrates, and about 65 miles from it. The inhabitants affirm, that it was the place where the city of Edesse stood, and where Abraham dwelt. The city is surrounded by a good stone wall, and is about two leagues in compass, but the houses in general are deserted, and in a ruinous condition, and those that are inhabited are but low and ill built; upon the whole the place resembles more a wilderness than a metropolis, though Tavernier is inclined to deem it the capital of Mesopotamia; the inhabitants carry on a great trade in some excellent tapestries and yellow leather.

The neighbouring country is exceedingly rich in corn, wine, fruits, &c. the city is governed by a beglerberg, who has 150 janissaries, and 600 spahis under his command, to awe the Arabian free-booters. Several pleasant gardens surround the walls of the city, and are watered by small artificial canals, which flow through cuts from one that is pretty large; in the time of our Saviour, this city and territory had a prince of its own named Agbarus.

Mosul, or Mossul, stands on the banks of the Tigris, and is situated in 36 deg. 59 min. north latitude, and 43 deg. east longitude, opposite to the ruins of the ancient city of Nineveh. It is surrounded by handsome stone walls, and is very spacious, being about a league in circumference, but the number of inhabitants are not proportionable to the extent. The people have great commercial connections with the inhabitants of Bagdad, and the merchants of Curdistan. Caravans likewise pass through it to and from Persia. The basha, whose residence is in the castle, has always 9000 men under his command. It is singular, that the soil on the city side of the river is exceedingly barren, but on the opposite it is very fertile. The heat is so excessive in summer, that none go out of doors from two hours after sun rise till an hour after sun set. There is likewise a malignant and dangerous wind called Samiel, which reigns from hence to Surat, and is supposed to be the same east wind mentioned by Job. It is impregnated with little streaks of fire as small as hairs, which immediately kill those who breathe or inhale them, and turn them as black as a coal. When the people perceive them coming, they fall flat on their faces, and sometimes escape. This wind is felt chiefly on the banks of the river, but not on the water, and is deemed to proceed from sulphurous vapours, which are kindled by agitation. Independent of this wind the hot air is often dangerous, and injures the lungs, inflames the blood, and parches the skin, or raises it into blisters, and occasions it to peel off. On this account travellers wear a kind of mask made of a soft black crape to preserve their eyes. But if after all their precaution they become inflamed, the afflicted person anoints them with a mixture of sugar and long pepper sifted very fine, and made into a salve.

In Diarbec are a few other less considerable cities and towns; namely,

Bir, or Beer, in 37 deg. 15 min. north latitude, and 38 deg. 15 min. east longitude. It is situated on the side of a hill to the east of the Euphrates, and defended by two large old castles, the one on the land side, and the other on the banks of the river. The garrison consists of about 200 janissaries, and 400 spahis, commanded by a sangiac. The neighbouring territory is pleasant, fertile, and well cultivated, except to the eastward, where it is rough, hilly, and rather sterile.

Gezira, in 37 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 39 deg. 10 min. east long. It is situated in an island in the Tigris; and is a small, but rich commercial city, governed by a bey.

Amadia, or Amad, is about 72 miles east from Gezira, and the same west from Mosul.

Zibin, in the midway between Orfa and Mosul, is a tolerable town, situated on an ascent. It is surrounded with good walls and ditches, well supplied with springs and fountains, and is furnished with provisions in great plenty.

Nisbin, or Nafbin, about 35 miles from the Tigris, is divided into two wards, each on an eminence, with a large tract of ploughed land between. Several arches, gates, and the remains of a noble church are still visible.

The Province of CURDISTAN, or ASSYRIA.

THIS division lies on the east side of the Tigris, towards Persia, which bounds it on the east; it hath the Tigris on the west, Eyraca-Arabia on the south, and Turcomania on the north. It is not above 90 miles broad towards the south, but to the northward it extends near 200 miles from east to west. From north to south it reaches from 53 deg. 30 min. to 27 deg. 20 min. north latitude.

Nineveh, a magnificent city, celebrated in sacred and profane history, once stood here. It was built upon the Tigris, opposite to where Mosul at present stands. The walls were 60 miles in circumference, the same as those of Babylon, and sufficiently broad to admit of three chariots going abreast upon them; they were flanked with 1150 turrets, each of which rose 200 feet above the walls.

Betlis is situated in 37 deg. 55 min. north, and 43 deg. 30 min. east long. It is the residence of a powerful prince of the Curdes, who is independent both of Turks and Persians. The Curdes are continually upon the watch for caravans; and when they meet with one, if they are strong enough, they usually rob and murder the whole company. They dwell in tents while the weather permits, and do not retire to the villages till the snow compels them. The city of Betlis is built between two high mountains; the castle is situated

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situated upon a hill that resembles a sugar-loaf; and there is no coming at it but by a winding path cut in a rock, which is exceedingly steep, rugged, and difficult to ascend. There are three draw-bridges before the castle.

Cherofsoul, called by some the capital of Curdistan, is in 36 deg. north lat. and 45 deg. east long. and situated about 150 miles north of Bagdad. The houses are all hewn out of a rock on the side of a hill, which extends a mile in length, and there is an ascent to them of about 20 steps. The bafsa, or governor of the province, who hath several sangiacs under him, resides here.

Abela (celebrated in history for the decisive battle fought, in a plain near it, between Alexander the Great and Darius) is in 35 deg. north lat. and 77 deg. 20 min. east longitude, and situated between the Caprus and Lycus, or the two Zabs, as some writers term those rivers.

To these we may add, Harpel, a large town, and the residence of a sangiac: it is situated on the river Caprus, and surrounded by a mud-wall. The houses are miserably built. In this province is likewise the town of Holwan, in 35 deg. north lat. and 47 deg. 10 min. east longitude: it is situated between the mountains that divide the Persian Irak, Curdistan, and Chaldea.

TURCOMANIA, OR ARMENIA.

THIS province is bounded on the north by Georgia; on the south, by Mesopotamia; on the east, by Persia; on the west, by Cappadocia and the Lesser Armenia, from which it is separated by the Euphrates. It extends from 38 deg. 20 min. to 42 deg. north latitude, and from 39 to almost 42 deg. north longitude, and from 39 to almost 42 deg. east longitude. It is about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth.

The country, which, in general, is exceedingly mountainous, produces nothing without the most indefatigable industry; every kind of grain is but indifferent: the wine is likewise bad. The cold being very intense, occasions the fruit to be extremely backward. There are, however, some fine dales and pleasant vallies interspersed among the hills.

Ararat, the Paryadræ, Marusius, Antitauris, Abus, Niphates, Mofchick, and Gordyæan, are the principal mountains. The rivers which water this country are the Cyrus, Lycus, Phasis, Araxes, Tygris, and Euphrates.

Arzemm, or Erzeron, is the capital city of Turcomania. It is a place of great trade, and situated on the northern extremity of the province, about ten days journey from the frontiers of Persia, and five from the Black Sea: it is defended by a good castle, and has a strong garrison of jannissaries commanded by an aga; about 18,000 Turks, 8000 Armenians, and 500 Greeks

reside here. The Armenians are allowed to have a bishop; and they have two churches, and several monasteries.

The city Van, or Wan, is situated on a lake of the same name, one of the largest in Asia, in 38 deg. 12 min. north latitude, and 44 deg. 55 min. east long. It is large, and stands at the foot of a high craggy mountain, in which there is a fortress deemed impregnable, that commands the town and country, and has a strong Turkish garrison. The lake is 150 miles in circumference, receives many rivers into its bosom, and contains several islands; two of these, viz. Limdali and Adafeton, are considerable, each having little villages and a monastery of Armenian monks on it. Here are a great variety of fine fish, particularly one of the pilchard kind, large quantities of which are exported to many distant places, as well as consumed at home, being used in sauces, and eaten in the same manner as anchovies.

Cars, or Kars, called by the Turks, Azem, is in 40 deg. north latitude, and 43 deg. 20 min. east longitude, about 150 miles north of Arzerum. The city is defended by a strong castle built upon a steep rock: the houses are mean, and in a ruinous condition. The country about it, though naturally fertile, is but very little cultivated. The bathaw of Cars is subject to the governor of Arzerum.

Irvan, Erivan, or Chirvan, is situated in 40 deg. 10 min. north lat. and 45 deg. 30 min. east long. It is about 180 miles east of Arzerum, and has been alternately possessed by the Turks and Persians. It is a spacious place, but ill built, and very dirty. The town is watered by two rivers, and the neighbouring country is extremely fertile in corn, wine, rice, cotton, &c. Here provisions are exceedingly cheap, particularly game, and the fruits and wine are admirable. The public square, or piazza, is handsome; and the bazar, or market, capacious. The baths and caravanferas, as well as the governor's palace, are elegant and roomy buildings. The river Zangeric issues from the lake of Erivan, which is about 25 miles in circumference, and contains an island with an Armenian monastery, the monks of which lead a life uncommonly austere, never speaking to each other but four times a year.

Nackfivan stands about 63 miles south of Erivan, and about seven leagues from the Araxes, in 39 deg. north lat. and 75 deg. east long. It contains many bazars, caravanferas, public baths, coffee-houses, handsome streets, &c. The celebrated battle between Lucullus and Mithridates was fought near it.

Zulpha (or Old Zulpha, to distinguish it from New Zulpha, near Ispahan, in Persia) stands on the Araxes, which begins to be navigable about six miles below the town. Near it are several Armenian monasteries, the monks of which are Roman Catholics of the Dominican order. The district contains about 6000 souls, who are all Roman Catholics, whose mode

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of worship is the same with those of Europe, except that mass is celebrated in the Armenian instead of the Latin tongue. Their archbishop is chosen by themselves; but he is obliged to go to Rome to be confirmed by the pope before he can officiate. At the foot of a high mountain near Zulpha are some medicinal springs, particularly celebrated (among their other virtues) for curing persons bit by any venomous animal.

GEORGIA, including MINGRELIA and IMARETTA.

GEORGIA, or Gurgistan, is bounded on the north by Circassia; on the south, by Armenia; on the east, by Daghestan; and on the west by the Euxine or Black Sea. It is partly subject to the Turks, and partly to the Persians; abounds with mountains and woods, which are interspersed with a variety of beautiful vales and fertile plains.

The air of this country is dry, cold in winter, and hot in summer. It produces all kinds of fruits, which are excellent, and the bread is hardly to be paralleled. There is plenty of fine cattle; the pork is admirable; the wild and tame fowl incomparable; and the fish, both of sea and river, equal to any in the universe. Here are likewise produced great quantities of excellent silk.

The Georgians in general are by some travellers said to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wine: in their capital and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges. Lately they formed an alliance with Russia, whose protection they claimed. They are, however, represented as great liars; implacable in their hatred; addicted to drunkenness, luxury, and libertinism. The clergy in general are worse than the laity, and the women are as vicious as either. They hurt their beauty with paint, and their minds by the most licentious behaviour. They are all usurers, and affect a grave deportment. All religions are tolerated in Georgia, every one being at liberty to think, pray, and speak as he pleases. The Armenians are the richest people here, occupy the principal places of trust and power, and are more numerous than the Georgians themselves.

The principal rivers are the Kur or Cyrus, and the Aragus: the first rises in the Moschian mountains, and discharges itself into the Caspian sea; the latter springs from the mountains which separate Iberia from Colchis, and falls into the Cyrus.

Teflis, the capital, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress

on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are fourteen churches in Teflis, six of which belong to the Georgians, and the rest to the Armenians: the Mahometans, who are here, have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of this city are many pleasant houses and fine gardens.

The western parts of Iberia or Georgia, which the moderns call Mingrelia, but which was known to the ancients by the appellation of Colchis, is bounded on the east by Georgia, properly so called; on the west, by the Euxine sea; on the north, by Mount Caucasus; and, on the south, by Armenia and part of Pontus.

The following rivers run through Mingrelia, viz. the Corax, Hippus, Cyancus, Chanitus, Abarus, Cissa, Ophis, and Phasis, where the Argonauts landed. All the above rivers empty themselves into the Euxine sea; but none of them are considerable, except the Phasis, which rises in Mount Caucasus. The inhabitants of this celebrated mountain are said to have little besides speech, which can entitle them to humanity; they are tall and well made, their looks are fierce, and indicate the savage disposition of their minds.

MINGRELIA is in general extremely woody, full of hills, and but little cultivated; the soil is bad and sterile, the fruits are all ill tasted and unwholesome, except the grapes, which might be converted into some of the best wine in the universe, if the natives did but know how to make it. The country, however, abounds in bees, hogs, wild boars, and good venison; likewise in partridges, pheasants, quails, &c. falcons, eagles, pelicans, tigers, leopards, wolves, and jackals, breed on Mount Caucasus.

They make their bread of a small grain called gomen: it is agreeable to the taste, salubrious, cooling, and laxative. Their principal food is beef and pork. They have a great number of excellent horses, which are never shod, nor fed with corn.

Here are no towns, except two little ones by the sea-side, but the country is every where interspersed with houses. Their castles are built of stone, to the height of about fifty feet, in the midst of a wood; these are about ten in number, in the principal of which, named Rues, the prince keeps his court. They have many huts made of branches of trees, canes, and reeds, and are so secure in these retreats, that none can come at them, but by one winding narrow passage, which, when they apprehend an attack, is always stopped up. They have neither windows nor chimnies, but are furnished with beds and couches; and the whole family, together with the cattle, all lie in one room at night.

As to the natives, the men are well-proportioned, and the women pretty, but they paint their faces and eye-brows; they wear their hair in curled ringlets, are witty and polite, but vain, luxurious, treacherous, and ferocious; dexterous thieves, and glory in the practice

practice. They to have many children, whom for necessities quick, they do likewise murder do it with the of their misery when a man wife, he obligately dressed, very loving man.

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IMARETTA breadth; it complains produce the whole morning. They have a great deal of copical towns in ziki. Cetatiss on the top of v mand and defense the town has houses: it lies 43 deg. 54 min in a hole, 500 min. north latitude; the river contains about and the walls of the inhabitants are Armenians, Jews, T churches and a

The northern having the Eux west, and Mount principal traffic ever, deal in the honey, wax, and the merchants things which th naked, and live once Christians rant, and little.

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which is a place of the garrison consists of fourteen churches of the Georgians, and some metatans, who are in the neighbourhood of these gardens.

Georgia, which the world was known to the world, is bounded on the east, called; on the west, by Mount Caucasus, and part of Pontus, and high Mingrelia, viz. Chantlus, Abfatus, and Argonauts landed. It gives into the Euxine Sea considerable, except the Caucasus. The inhabitants are said to have a title them to humane, their looks are of disposition of their

is very woody, full of the soil is bad and unwholesome, and is converted into a garden, if the natives are converted into the country, however, wild boars, and good sea-fants, quails, &c. leopards, wolves, &c. casus.

A small grain called wheat, salubrious, and good food is beef and mutton of excellent horses, and corn.

There are a few little ones by the sea where interspersed with a small part of stone, to the middle of a wood; in the principal of these keeps his court, and branches of trees are in these retreats, and they are by one winding way they apprehend an enemy have neither walls nor ditches, but are furnished with beds and arms, together with the

They are well-proportioned, and paint their faces and hair in curled rings, and are very luxurious, treacherous, and glory in the practice

practice. They think it prudent, as well as lawful, to have many wives, because they bring them many children, whom they can sell for money, or barter for necessaries; when children, however, come too quick, they do not hesitate to murder them. They likewise murder the sick and aged, and pretend they do it with the benevolent design of putting them out of their misery. Adultery is thought but a trifle: when a man catches another in familiarity with his wife, he obliges him to pay a hog, which is immediately dressed, and all three partake of the feast in a very loving manner.

They profess the christian religion; but are exceedingly ignorant of all its duties and precepts; few of the clergy can either write or read; but they greatly impose upon the laity, by pretending to divination. They attribute the conversion of their ancestors to St. Andrew.

IMARETTA is about 120 miles in length, and 60 in breadth; it contains many hills and woods, but the plains produce corn, cattle, pulse, &c. It is upon the whole more fertile and plentiful than Mingrelia. They have some excellent iron mines, carry on a great deal of commerce, and coin money. The principal towns in this principality are Cotatis and Akalziki. Cotatis is situated at the foot of a mountain, on the top of which there is a strong castle to command and defend it. It is watered by the Phasis; the town has no walls, and contains only about 200 houses: it lies in 42 deg. 23 min. north latitude, and 43 deg. 54 min. east longitude. Akalziki is situated in a hole, surrounded by about 20 hills, in 41 deg. 55 min. north latitude, and 44 deg. 55 min. east longitude; the river Kur flows very near it. The town contains about 400 houses, which are built of wood, and the walls and fortifications are old and ruinous; the inhabitants are a mixture of Georgians, Armenians, Jews, Turks, Greeks, &c. who have several churches and a synagogue.

The northernmost of these countries is Abcassia, having the Euxine sea to the south, Circassia on the west, and Mount Caucasus on the north and east. The principal traffick is in slaves; the inhabitants, however, deal in the skins of tigers, deer, &c. box-wood, honey, wax, and thread, which they exchange with the merchants who come upon the coast, for many things which they have occasion for. They go almost naked, and live in little mean low huts. They were once Christians, but are at present exceedingly ignorant, and little better than savages.

With respect to the Mameluks, who were once so celebrated in Asia and Egypt, these people were no other originally than Georgian children, who being brought up to a military life, became so powerful as to revolt against their masters, and usurp the throne of Egypt.

This country has lately claimed independence, and put itself under the dominion of Russia.

CHAPTER V.

NATOLIA, or the LESSER ASIA, in the WEST.

Chief Towns, Inhabitants, Buildings, Rivers, &c.

NATOLIA, or Anatolia Proper, is the nearest to Europe, and the largest of the four provinces into which Asia Minor is divided. It extends almost from 26 to 35 deg. of east longitude, and from 37 to 41 deg. of north latitude; being bounded on the west by the Archipelago and Propontis; on the north, by the Euxine sea; on the south, by Caramania; and, on the east, by Amasia and Adulia; and contains the provinces of Bithynia, Mysia, the Lesser Phrygia, Æolis, Ionia, Caria, Doris, Lydia, Phrygia, Paphlagonia, and Galatia.

The chief towns in Natolia, which merit our notice, are, Bursa, Nice, Smyrna, and Ephesus.

Bursa is the capital of Bithynia, and was the metropolis of the whole Ottoman empire before the Turks possessed themselves of Constantinople. It lies in 40 deg. 16 min. north lat. and 29 deg. 35 min. east long. and is situated at the foot of Mount Olympus, 20 miles from the sea of Marmora, and 58 south of Constantinople: it is exceeding well built, and deemed one of the best paved cities in all the Turkish empire; the streets are spacious, the caravanseras noble and convenient, and the mosques magnificent. This city still preserves a share of its ancient grandeur, beauty, and opulence; it is likewise a place of considerable traffick. In the bezeltine all kinds of commodities of home manufactory, and others from the Levant, are exposed to sale. The workmen here manufacture the best silks, hangings, carpets, tapestries, &c. in Turkey.

The city is about three miles in circumference, but the walls are falling to decay. It is computed to contain 40,000 Turks. The suburbs, which are more spacious and handsome than the city itself, are inhabited by 4000 Jews, 500 Armenians, and 900 Greek families, independent of many foreigners who are settled here. The fine orchards, gardens, plantations of mulberry, plantain, and other trees, &c. afford some of the most delightful, pleasant, and shady walks that imagination can conceive. All the necessaries, and even luxuries of life, are excellent in their kinds, very plentiful, and quite reasonable: the wine in particular is exquisite, and the fish of an excellent taste and flavour.

There is a castle in the middle of the city: it was once the palace, but is now running to decay. The seraglio, built by Mahomet IV. is a noble edifice. There are some excellent hot baths in the city; and in the suburbs the Greeks have three handsome churches, the Armenians one, and the Jews four synagogues.

Nice, called by the Turks Nickor, stands about 30 miles from Constantinople, in 40 deg. 32 min. north lat. and 29 deg. 40 min. east long. being situated near a gulph of the sea of Marmora, called Alicanio or Afcu; though

though its ancient splendor is much diminished, it is still a considerable place, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, whose commerce is very great in corn, fruit, tapestries, fine cloths, and other merchandize brought from the Levant. The streets are large and well built: there is a *feraglio* in the highest part of the town.

Smyrna, which the Turks call *Ismir*, lies in 38 deg. 15 min. north lat. and 27 deg. 10 min. east long. It is the best sea-port town in the Levant, and the most populous and opulent city of Asia Minor; being about eight days journey by land from Constantinople, and about 133 leagues by water. In the time of the Romans, it was looked upon as the most beautiful of the Tenian cities, and was called, The Ornament of Asia.

The commodious harbour and advantageous situation of Smyrna has rendered it one of the most opulent cities in Turkey. The haven is defended by a strong castle, and sheltered from all winds, except the westerly, by high mountains. There is an astonishing conflux of people in Smyrna, of several nations, who differ in manners, dress, language, religion, &c. The Turks occupy the greatest part of the town; the Protestants and Roman Catholics have their chapels, and the Jews a synagogue or two. The Armenians have a large handsome church, with a contiguous burying-ground.

The principal buildings are the mosques, baths, market, and khans, and some of these are very noble; the streets in general are narrow, inconvenient, and intricate; but the most disagreeable circumstance to those who live here is the great heats, which commence in June, and continue till September: this city is likewise annually visited by the plague.

Provisions are extremely plenty in Smyrna: the tails of some of the sheep weigh ten pounds, and are deemed a great dainty. The fish taken in the bay are excellent; wild hogs, hares, and all other kinds of game, fowls, &c. may be had in abundance; the wine, olives, fruits, &c. are all admirable. The musketoes, as well as a much smaller fly, of which the name is unknown, are extremely troublesome, but more so to strangers than natives; lemon juice is the best remedy for the fiery tumours which ensue.

In the harbour are always ships of almost all nations, and all burthens. The European merchants bring hither a great variety of goods from Europe, the East and West-Indies, &c. export fine and coarse wool, silk, cotton, mohair, wax, rhubarb, gall-nuts, opium, aloes, scammony, tully, galbanum, tacamahac, gum-tragacanth, ammoniac, and arabic, myrrh, frankincense, zedoar, &c. The town is supposed to contain about 15,000 Turks, 10,000 Greeks, and 2000 Jews, besides Armenians, Franks, &c. The whole country is exceedingly rich and fertile. In the neighbourhood a kind of earth is found, which being boiled with oil makes excellent soap.

Ephesus is in 38 deg. 16 min. north lat. and 27 deg. 3 min. east long. It lies about 50 miles south of

Smyrna, 23 from Miletus, and 63 from Laodicea and was anciently the metropolis of all Asia; Ephesus and Smyrna having been termed the eyes of Asia Minor; but of this once splendid, opulent, and magnificent city, nothing remains but about 30 houses inhabited by Greek families, who are miserably poor, and so exceedingly ignorant, that none of them are able to read the admirable epistle with which St. Paul honoured them. The Greeks call this city *Elefo*, and the Turks have given it the name of *Ajafalouch*. There are many noble ruins, particularly of an aqueduct, a theatre, and a circus.

Ancyri, or, as the Turks call it, Angouri, or Angora, is in 40 deg. north lat. and 32 deg. 58 min. east long. 250 miles east of Smyrna. It is a very populous and trading place. The inhabitants are estimated at 40,000 Turks, 5000 Armenians, and 1000 Greeks. The chief manufacture was camlets; the evidences of its primitive grandeur are innumerable; the streets, piazzas, &c. being full of stately remains, columns, &c. of the finest marble, porphyry, red jasper, and other beautiful stones, elegantly wrought; the modern buildings, however, are mean, low, and formed only of mud and turf. The sheep bred here are some of the finest, and the goats the most beautiful in the universe; the hair of the latter is of a dazzling whiteness, as fine as silk.

Natolia is excellently well watered; the principal rivers are the Zanthus, Cydnus, Meander, Granicus, Scamander, Cayster, Hermus, Pactolus, and Caius, which discharge themselves into the Mediterranean and Euxine seas, the Archipelago, and the Euphrates. The principal lake is Gool-Bug-Shaw, 50 miles long, and 20 broad.

A M A S I A.

THIS province is bounded on the north by the Euxine sea; on the south, by Caramania and Aladulia; on the east, by Armenia; and on the west, by Nartolia Proper.

The capital city, called also Amasia, and by the Turks Amnafan, is about 60 miles from the Euxine sea, and 40 east of Tocat, situated on the river Iris, or Casalmach, as it is now called. Though the place is large, the commerce is inconsiderable; the river, however, is navigable for ships of great burthen up to the town itself. On a mountain to the east there is a strong castle, and a wooden bridge over the river. There are only two caravanferas at present in the city. This was formerly a place of great beauty and importance.

Trapezonde, or Trebizonde, called by the Turks Tarabozan, is situated in the ancient Pontus Cappadocia, on the eastern parts of Amasia, at the foot of a hill. It is a kind of peninsula, running into the Euxine sea. It lies in 41 deg. 5 min. north lat. and

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39 deg. 22 min. east long. at about 18 miles distance
from Tocat. The walls of this city are high and
strong, defended by towers, battlements, &c. The
environs, though little cultivated, are very fertile; the
neighbouring mountains are covered with stately woods
of various trees, such as oaks, elms, beech, &c. which
are of an astonishing height, and the whole face of the
country forms an agreeable landscape. In the city, the
gardens and groves are as numerous as the houses; but
the suburbs, which are inhabited by Greeks and Ar-
menians, are more extensive and populous than the
city itself: A great deal of rock-honey is found in the
adjacent parts, which is so exceedingly luscious as to
render the eating much of it dangerous.

Tocat, or New Casarea, lies in 38 deg. 48 min.
north lat. and 30 deg. 58 min. east long. and is a con-
siderable thoroughfare for the caravans to Smyrna. It
stands partly at the foot, and partly on the sides of two
very high hills, on the river Toslanlu. The environs
are extremely fertile, some excellent plants are pro-
duced, and curious fossils found, particularly many
subterraneous vegetations of admirable beauty. The
garrison consists of about 1000 janissaries and spahis.
Here are twelve mosques with minarets, and many
without; seven Armenian churches, and one Greek
chapel. The city and suburbs are supposed to contain
20,000 Turkish, 4000 Armenian, and about 500 Greek
families.

ALADULIA, OR ANADULIA.

THIS country, which is the third division of Asia
Minor, is called, by the Turks, Dulgadir. It is unfit
for the purposes of agriculture, being rough and hilly;
but abounds in excellent pasture, and produces abun-
dantly of excellent fruit, wines, and cattle, particu-
larly horses and camels, besides vast herds of goats and
sheep; venison, all kinds of game, &c. There is
silver, copper, iron, alum, &c. in the mountains.

Ajazzo, or Lajazzo (placed by some geographers in
Caramania) was formerly called Issus, and is situated
in a gulph of the Mediterranean, to which it gives its
name. It is a neat, strong, opulent, sea-port town,
and was anciently a place of very great importance.

Marat, Mars, or Maraph, is a large well-built city,
in the south-east boundaries of the province. It is
situated on a small river, which falls into the Euphrates
about 180 miles to the southward of Trebizonde: it is
a place of some commerce, and a bashaw resides here.

Caisa, the ancient Casarea, is a large town on the
banks of the Millas, near mount Argæus, and about 70
miles west of Scisas. The walls are strong, and flanked
with towers. The castle is in the centre of the city.
The bazar is handsome; and well furnished with all
sorts of merchandize, the houses in its neighbourhood
are built either in the form of a tower with a cupola;
or they resemble a sugar-loaf. Their principal trade is

in cotton. The city is well supplied with water from
the river.

CARAMANIA.

THE province of Caramania extends itself along the
Mediterranean coast from north to south, comprising
the ancient Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, and Cilicia,
with part of Isauria, Phrygia, Pataiana, Cappado-
cia, &c. It reaches from the neighbourhood of Alex-
andretta to the gulph of Macri, at the mouth of which
lies the island of Rhodes. The Turks call this
country Caraman-ili: it is divided into the Greater
and Lesser; the latter lying along the sea-coast, and
the former to the north of Mount Tauris. The princi-
pal town is

Satalia, anciently called Attalia, and by the Turks
Sataliah. It was formerly an important city in Pam-
phylia, at the bottom of the gulph of its name, in 36
deg. 45 min. north lat. and 31 deg. 20 min. east long.
It is the strongest place the Turks have upon this coast.
The harbour would be commodious, if the entrance was
not difficult and dangerous. This is one of the most sin-
gular places in the universe, being divided into three
distinct towns, each of which is divided from the others
by its own strong walls, and the gates are shut up pre-
cisely at noon every Friday till one o'clock, from a pre-
tended prophecy, that on such an hour the Christians
are to surprise it. The whole is about six miles in cir-
cumference; the buildings are good, the place populous,
and the trade considerable. The castle, which com-
mands the town, is a very good one. The neighbour-
ing country is very fertile and delightful, being covered
with citron and orange-trees, which afford an exquisite
fragrancy. The summers are so hot, that they who can
afford it retire towards the mountains, where there is
more air and shade.

Terafso, Tarfon, or Horn, the ancient Taurus, is
situated upon the Cydnus, about six miles from its
mouth. If we may venture to judge by the ruins of
the old wall, it appears to have been near 12 miles in
circumference. At the mouth of the river there is a com-
modious harbour. The lake Rhegium is about a mile
below the town, through which the Cydnus runs; but,
this place is at present quite decayed.

The Xanthus, Lamus, Cestrus, Eurymedon, Cydnus,
Sarus or Smarus, Pyramus, Smyras, Latamao, &c. are
the principal rivers. Caramania contains also many ce-
lebrated mountains, viz. Olympus (of which name there
are many in Asia) Cragus, and Antigragus, all in Lycia;
Amanus in Cilicia; the great chain called Mount Tauris;
and the celebrated Lycian volcano mountain, called by
the ancients Chimæra.

SYRIA, WITH PALESTINE,
Or the HOLY LAND, East of the LEVANT SEA.

THIS division of Turkish Asia, called by the Turks
Souric and Souristan, was originally so named from its

capital Tzor or Tzur, which the Greeks softened into Sur and Tyre. This country includes Syria, properly so called, Phœnicia or Phenice, and Judea or Palestine. It extends from north to south about 400 miles, and about 200 from east to west, being bounded on the north by Mount Amanus and a branch of Mount Taurus, which separates it from Armenia Minor and Cilicia; on the west, by Arabia the Desert: and on the east by the Euphrates, which divides it from Mesopotamia or Diarbec.

Libanus, Anti-Libanus, Gilcad, Tabor, Carmel, Cassius, Amanus, and Alladaurus, with some smaller in Judea, viz. Sion, Hermon, Ebal, Olivet, Calvary, Gerizim, and Moriah, are the principal mountains.

The chief rivers are the Euphrates, Jordan, Cassimeer, Licomes, Chryssorroas, Orontes, Odonis, Cherfeus, and Colk.

The air of Syria is the most serene, temperate, and healthful imaginable; during the hot months of June, July, and August, it is agreeably refreshed by cooling breezes from the Mediterranean. The face of the country is delightful and level, the soil rich and fertile. It abounds not only with all the necessaries of life, but with all the delicacies that can gratify the most luxurious appetite; and is superior, in point of climate and produce, to all other countries that even lie under the same parallel of latitude. In short, though Syria contains some rocky mountains, it would be the finest and most desirable country in the universe, were it not under such a despotic government as that of the Turks.

In this part of Turkey, we meet with the following principal cities and towns:

Aleppo, the finest and most opulent city in all Syria, lies in 36 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 37 deg. 50 min. east long. It stands on four hills, about 60 miles to the eastward of Scanderoon, is about three (including the suburbs, seven) miles in circuit, has twelve gates, and the walls, which are tolerably strong, are flanked with towers. Most of the streets are well paved, and the houses in general better built than they commonly are in other towns in Turkey. On a hill, in the centre of the city, stands a large castle, well mounted with cannon, and has a large garrison. Here are about 120 mosques, some of them very magnificent, several Turkish monasteries, colleges, khans or inns, bazars, divans, and other public edifices, which, in general, make a better figure within than without. The town is well supplied with provisions of all sorts; and water is brought to it by aqueducts, from a river near two days' journey from the city. The whole number of the inhabitants, Jews, Turks, and Christians, in the city and suburbs, is about 250,000. In the serene months of May and September, the people lie all night on the tops of their houses, without danger.

A bashaw governs this city, and commands the whole country from Scanderoon to the Euphrates; under him are three agas or governors of the city and

castle, together with the sub-bashaw, whose office is to go the rounds every night, as captain of the watch, and to execute the sentence of the bashaw on criminals and delinquents. The cadi is the sole judge in all civil matters, he makes and dissolves all marriage contracts, confirms acts of sale and purchase, and, in order to prevent frauds and abuses, creates masters of every trade.

Here is a very considerable traffick carried on, for hither are brought all the commodities of Europe and Asia; and from hence they are again exported, the former into Asia, and the latter to Europe. In Aleppo are several manufactures, particularly those of fine Turkey leather, silk, camblet, and soap. The principal commodities brought from hence to Europe are raw silk, cotton, program, yarn, galls, and a great variety of drugs. The English, French, Dutch, Italians, Arabians, Persians, Indians, &c. have their respective consuls residing here.

What remains of the ancient city of Antioch, is situate about 22 miles from Scanderoon, in a fine plain of 18 miles in extent, on the river Hasi or Orante: the Turks call it Antackia. It has a castle which commands the town and river, and some considerable remains of ancient temples, walls, churches, &c. together with an extensive canal. The vast number of plantains, poplars, sycamores, fruit-trees, &c. in the gardens of the town, make it at a distance look like a forest.

Damascus, now called Sham, is situated on the river Barada, and was formerly a very celebrated city, having eight gates, with strong walls. It is of an oblong figure, about two miles in length, and was long the residence of the Syrian kings, and afterwards of the caliphs of the Saracens. Most of the private houses here are low, and make a very mean appearance, being built with nothing but sun-burnt bricks, or mud; but the public buildings, in general, are very handsome. In the centre of the city is a castle, of an oval form, the walls of which are fourteen feet thick, flanked with square towers, mounted with cannon, and well furnished with arms and water: in this place is kept a constant garrison of fifteen thousand janissaries. In the neighbourhood of the city is an hospital for pilgrims and strangers of all religions, who are maintained at the grand seignior's expence. The great mosque, formerly a christian church, is a very magnificent edifice, into which it is death for any but Mussulmen to enter. The bagnios here are generally noble buildings, and most of the streets are arched, to keep off the sun and rain.

The chief trade of this city consists in scymitars, sword-blades, knives, bridle-bits, and all kinds of iron and steel wares, in which it is supposed above twenty thousand of the inhabitants are employed. They likewise manufacture those beautiful silks, which from this city obtained the appellation of damasks; and carry on a considerable traffick in raw and worked silk, otto of

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roses, which is one of the most fragrant scents in na-
ture, fruits and wine. The merchandizes of Turkey,
Arabia, and India, are brought hither by caravans,
which are continually going and coming from Egypt,
Aleppo, Bagdad, Mecca, &c. The country round
this place is very pleasant and fertile; it is remark-
able for fine grapes, some of the bunches weighing
between thirty and forty pounds. There is a species of
alabaster found near the city, and a red earth, both in
great esteem; the latter is said to be good against the
bite of venomous creatures. Some of the sheep here
are surprisingly large. The inhabitants of this place
do not thresh their corn, as in most other countries,
but cut the straw off with iron pincers, fastened to
wooden rollers, drawn over the corn by a horse. All
sorts of Christians in this city are allowed their churches
and particular worship, and the Jews have some noble
synagogues.

Tyre and Sidon, formerly so distinguished by their
grandeur and opulence, are almost entirely decayed;
the latter, indeed, has a good harbour, and still carries
on a trifling trade. The houses are built chiefly of
stone, and are two stories high. The inhabitants are
about 16,000, chiefly Greeks: it has two public baths,
and two mosques.

But Tyre, which is now called Sur, is only inha-
bited by a few miserable fishermen, who live in the
ruins of its primitive state. On the land side there
are strong walls of stone eighteen feet high, and seven
broad. The circumference is about a mile and a half;
here are 500 Christians and Mahometans. Some of the
ruins of ancient Tyre are still to be seen.

Tripoli stands in the Levant sea, in 34 deg. 30 min.
north lat. and 36 deg. 15 min. east long. at the foot
of Mount Libanus. It is extensive, strong, populous,
and opulent, adorned with fine gardens and orchards,
plantations of mulberry-trees, &c. The walls are
strong, and fortified with seven towers. The castle is
the residence of the beglerbeg, and garrisoned by 200
Janissaries. It is a strong fortress, situated on an emi-
nence, and well stored with cannon. This city is
commodious, and watered by a little river: on ac-
count of its importance, they deem it the capital of
Phœnicia. The harbour is very open, but it is in
some measure defended by two small islands at about
two leagues from it. There are six square towers or
castles along the shore, well fortified with artillery.
The town contains about 8000 houses, and 60,000
inhabitants, who consist of Jews, Turks, or Christians.
There is a large handsome mosque, which was once a
Christian church. The Jesuits have a handsome col-
lege, and the Christians in general some monasteries
and chapels.

The air is clear and healthy, the country rich and
fertile, and the town plentifully supplied with all kinds
of provisions. The gardens have all cascades and
fountains, and even the chambers have water con-
veyed to them. In the gardens the people spend most

of their summer, being buried in their silk-worm
manufactory.

Scanderoon (anciently called Alexandretta, or Little
Alexandria, to distinguish it from Alexandria in Egypt)
lies in 36 deg. 34 min. north lat. and 36 deg. 40 min.
east long. about 60 miles from Aleppo, to which it is
the port town: it stands near the sea on the gulph of
Ajazzo; but its marshy situation renders the town so
unhealthy, that it only contains at present a confused
and straggling heap of mean wretched houses built of
wood, or huts formed of the boughs of trees inter-
woven and covered with mud, inhabited principally by
Greeks. It is defended only by an old decayed castle,
and a few soldiers, under the command of the go-
vernor. The adjacent country is in general rich,
level, and fruitful.

PALESTINE, or Judea, is situated between 31 deg. 30
min. and 32 deg. 30 min. north lat. and from 34 deg.
50 min. to 37 deg. 15 min. east long. being bounded by
the Mediterranean sea on the west, Syria and Phœni-
cia on the north, Arabia Deserta on the east, and
Arabia Petraea on the south. It is therefore near 200
miles in length, and about 80 in breadth towards the
middle, but increases or diminishes 12 or 15 miles in
other places; the longest day is about 14 hours 15
minutes.

The air of Judea is the most salubrious and pleasant
imaginable; neither heat nor cold are felt in the ex-
treme, but an agreeable serenity diffuses itself through-
out the year, which puts the stranger in mind of the
golden age.

The city of Jerusalem is at present about three miles
in circumference, and lies in 31 deg. 50 min. north
lat. and 36 deg. east long. being situated on a rocky
mountain. Dr. Shaw says, "The hills which stand
about Jerusalem make it appear to be situated, as it
were, in an amphitheatre, whose arena inclineth to
the eastward. We have now where, as I know of, any
distinct view of it: that from the Mount of Olives,
which is the least, and perhaps the furthest, is not-
withstanding at so small a distance, that when our
Saviour was there, he might be said, almost in a literal
sense, "to have wept over it." There are very few
remains of the city, either as it was in our Saviour's
time, or as it was afterwards rebuilt by Hadrian,
scarce one stone being left upon another; even the
very situation is altered; for Mount Sion, the most
eminent part of the Old Jerusalem, is now excluded,
and its ditches filled up; while the places adjoining to
Mount Calvary, where Christ is said to have suffered
without the gate, are now almost in the centre of the
city."

With respect to its present state, the Turks call it
Cudsembaric: it is thinly inhabited; the walls are
weak, and without bastions; the ditch inconsiderable;
the gates are six in number, viz. Damascus, St. Ste-
phen's, Herod's, Sterquilina, Bethlehem, and Mount
Sion Gate; beside the Golden Gate, which is shut up,

on account of a prophecy which the Turks have among them, that by that gate the Christians are to take Jerusalem. The streets are narrow, and the houses mean. Pilgrims and travellers; who flock from all parts, either through devotion or out of curiosity, are the principal support of the city. A Turkish *bassa* resides here, to keep good order, collect the grand seignior's revenues, and protect the pilgrims from the insults of the Arabs.

No European Christian is permitted to enter the city till the requisite duties are discharged; nor can a stranger safely stay here, without being upon good terms with the Latin fathers; these ecclesiastics subsisting by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament.

The principal object of the pilgrims is the church of the Holy Sepulchre, situated upon Mount Calvary. It is 100 paces in length, and 60 in breadth: the workmen were obliged to reduce the hill to a plain area, in order to lay the foundation; but great precaution was used not to alter any part of it, where our Saviour's Passion was concerned. The scene of the Crucifixion is left entire, being about 12 yards square, and stands at this day so much higher than the floor of the church, that it is ascended to by 21 steps. The Holy Sepulchre, which was originally a cave hewn out in the bottom of the rock, may be now compared to a grotto standing above ground, and having the rock cut away, and levelled all round. The walls of the church of the Holy Sepulchre are of stone, and the roof of cedar; the east end encloses Mount Calvary, and the west the Holy Sepulchre; the former is covered with a superb cupola, supported by 16 large columns, and open at top. Over the altar there is another fine dome; the nave constitutes the choir, and the isles of the church contain the most remarkable places where the circumstances of our Saviour's Passion were transacted, together with the tombs of Godfrey and Baldwin, the two first Christian kings of Jerusalem. In the church of the Crucifixion, the hole is shewn in which it is said the cross was fixed. The altar has three crosses richly adorned on it, particularly with four lamps of immense value, which are kept constantly burning. The cloister round the sepulchre is divided into sundry chapels. The Latins, who take care of the church, have apartments on the north-west side, but they are never suffered to go out; the Turks keeping the keys, and furnishing them with provisions through a wicket. Some grand ceremonies are performed at Easter, representing Christ's passion, crucifixion, death, and resurrection.

Bethlehem is distant between six and seven miles from Jerusalem, to the south west in the way to Hebron: it lies in north lat. 31 deg. 35 min. and in 65 deg. 50 min. long. Anciently it was called the City of David, having been the birth-place of the royal psalmist. It was otherwise called Ephrath or Ephrath: see Genesis xxxv. 19. It was originally built by the Jebusites, and both Jerom and Eusebius assure us, that the monument of Jesse, the father of David, was here shewn in their

time. It is seated on a pleasant hill, in a fine fertile plain, and enjoys a most excellent air. It contains a convent of the Latins, another of the Greeks, and another of the Armenians, and is annually resorted to by a great number of pilgrims and travellers. All the convents have doors which open into the chapel of the holy manger: for the place where the blessed Redeemer was born, and the manger in which he was laid, are shewn to this day.

The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of many of the countries contained in Asia Minor, and which are celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and profane writers, of their beauty, strength, fertility, and population; though it must be confessed, that at present, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, they are either totally forsaken, or a theatre of ruin. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible, and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. Even Palestine and Judea, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own soil.

The Turks seem particularly fond of representing Judea in the most despicable colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which, being artfully propagated among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians. The late Rev. Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek, at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make the most just observations, says, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, he further remarks, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine," says Mr. Wood, "we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed party, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows, is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

Some part of Palestine revived under the government of Sheik Daher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and shewed great indulgence to the Christians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which stands on the declivity of Mount Carmel, distant about twenty miles from Acre, was also new built and enlarged by Daher.

The ancient Joppa, now Jaffa, 50 miles west from Jerusalem, stands on a rocky hill; hath an harbour for

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small vessels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7000. The western part of the town is inhabited by Christians.

The present state of Ramah is deplorable, its walls being in decay, and most of the houses empty, though the number of inhabitants is still between 3 and 4000.

Not a house is standing of the once magnificent city of Casarea, but the remains of the walls testify its former grandeur.

Azotus is about two miles in circumference; the inhabitants are near 3000, and mostly Mahometans. An old structure is shewn here, with fine marble pillars, which is said to be the house that Sampson pulled down, when insulted by the Philistines.

Gaza is still respectable; it extends from east to west three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The last is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs: the number of the inhabitants is reckoned to be 26,000. It is about five miles from the sea, and outside the town is a market for the country people to dispose of their commodities to the inhabitants; for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile; but corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton, are its chief produce.

It may be a question with some, whether those countries of Asia could ever be restored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population; but I apprehend that it would now be impossible, let the Turkish government be ever so beneficent, to divert commerce (without which all attempts of that kind must be feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no question, that a government less brutal and bigoted than that of the Turks might make the natives a powerful, as well as a happy people within themselves: the misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other sects of Christians there, partake but too much of the Turkish stupidity. Though they are not suffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horseback, and are subjected to a thousand indignities and miseries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppressors; yet so abject is their spirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and are contented under all their mortifications. If they are less indolent than their oppressors, it is because they must otherwise starve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, lest it should be discovered to their tyrants, who would convert it to their own use, as though they were lawfully entitled to it.

With respect to their commerce and manufactures, there are no people in the world, who, from advantage of situation, and vast extent of empire, seem more calculated for monopolizing the trade of the whole east, than the Turks. They possess the navigation of the Black-Sea, the Levant, and the Red-Sea, which undoubtedly affords them greater opportunities of importing the rich merchandizes of the east, and distributing them all over Europe, than any other power. But such is the indolence of this people, that those great objects

are little attended to. The cities of Tyre, Sidon, and Alexandria, formerly the chief emporiums for trade in the universe, are now of no consequence, but are entirely overlooked.

The Turks have but few merchant-ships, and never attempt distant voyages; so that the English, French, Dutch, and other European nations, resort thither with the commodities of their respective countries, and return laden with those of Turkey: even the inland trade of the empire, which is exceeding trifling, is carried on by Jews and Armenians.

Their articles for export are coffee, rhubarb, turpentine, storax, gums, opium, galls, mastic, emery, Lemnian-bole, pomegranate-shells, sponges, dates; wine, oil, figs, raisins, mother of pearl, box-wood, saffron, and some other articles; to which may be added, the produce of their manufactures, consisting of silks, burdets, cottons, dimities, waxed-linen, shagreen-skins, blue, red, and yellow Morocco-leather, carpets, and soap.

The traffic of the human species, though shocking to human nature, is carried on in a very extraordinary degree in Turkey; for they not only sell their slaves of both sexes, but also beautiful young girls, who are purchased, particularly by the Jews in Circassia, Georgia, and other parts, and again sold to supply the seraglios of the grand seignior, and other great men.

By the constitution and government established in Turkey, the grand seignior is one of the most despotic princes upon earth, having an absolute power of life and death over all his subjects; of the justice of which they are so entirely persuaded, that they never make any resistance, but submit with mildness to the first order he issues for taking away their goods, and even their lives. This excess of obedience is taught them by their religion; and, labouring under the force of this prejudice, even the chief officers of the empire conclude it to be their highest good-fortune and glory to end their days by the hand or command of their sovereign. The whole extent of the Turkish empire, lands, and houses, are his property, and at his sole disposal, except lands annexed to the church; which is a law that the Jews and Christians avail themselves of, to secure the enjoyment of their estates to posterity: and so sacred and inviolable has it been held, that there is no instance recorded in history of a sultan's having even attempted to violate it.

The Asiatic Turks hold their lands by a kind of military tenure, being obliged to maintain horses and men always in readiness, against the grand seignior shall call them forth to serve in the wars. At his inauguration, this prince obliges himself to govern within the compass of the Mahometan law; which is in fact no restriction at all, for this very law styles him the mouth and interpreter of it, and endows him with a power to alter and annul the most fixed and settled rules, or at least to dispense with them when they prove an obstacle to his government. But notwithstanding this despotic power, if he acts contrary to the humours of the people, parti-

cularly the janissaries, he is in danger of being deposed, and also put to death; therefore upon the least suggestion of the disaffection or misconduct of his ministers, he causes them to be murdered, or at least disgraced; and frequently saves himself from the general fury, by throwing the whole blame of any mal-administration upon the grand vizier, and sacrificing him to the public resentment.

There is a gradation of the great officers of state in Turkey; of whom are the grand vizier, or prime minister; the captain-bashaw, or admiral; the musti, or high-priest; the viziers of the bench, or of three bashaws tails, so denominated from three horses tails being carried before them when they march; these sit in the divan, or courts of justice, with the musti; the kadilafquiers, or chief justices of provinces; the beglerbegs, or viceroys; the bashaws, or governors of towns and districts under the beglerbegs; the kaimacan, or governor of Constantinople; the grand vizier has a deputy, who is likewise styled kaimacan: the reis-effendi, or lord-chancellor and secretary of state; and the teterdar, or lord-treasurer. There are likewise the aga of the Janissaries, the aga of the Spahis, the aga of the Siluds, and some others. The chief officers of the seraglio are, the kildar aga, who is superintendent of the women, and has the command of all the black eunuchs; the capi-aga, who has the command of all the white eunuchs, and to whom all petitions intended for the sultan are first delivered.

The officers, both civil and military, with the best part of their forces, are seldom composed of Turks, but consist chiefly of the children of Tartar or Christian slaves taken in war, or renegadoes. The most beautiful, well-made, and sprightly of these, while exceeding young, are presented to the grand seignior; and such as he approves of, are admitted into the seraglios of Constantinople, Adrianople, and Pera, where they are educated under the appellation of Ichogians. Being circumcised, they are first taught silence, and a modest, humble behaviour; and as they advance in years, they are instructed in the Mahometan religion, the Turkish language, and afterwards the Persian and Arabic. When fit for many exercises, they are taught the use of arms, and such other sciences as may render them serviceable to the state, and are advanced, and their salaries augmented, according to their proficiency. When any post becomes vacant, it is filled by one of these; but none are preferred out of the seraglio before they have attained the age of forty. These men, however, being tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence, are generally as distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank; and they have a further reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they are arrived. The administration of justice, therefore, is

extremely corrupt over the whole empire, which is owing, not to the laws of the kingdom, which are very equitable, but to the iniquitous conduct and manners of the judges. Besides these Ichogians, there are children in these seraglios called Azamogians, who are trained up for inferior employments. Among the sultan's attendants, are a number of mutes and dwarfs, the former of which converse by signs with great readiness, and the latter divert the court by their buffoonery.

The revenues of the grand seignior are immense, but it is impossible to ascertain the exact sum. According to Baron de Tott, they are estimated on the records to amount to 25,400,000*l.* but produce effectively only 3,200,000*l.* to the public. They arise from the customs, the produce of the demesne lands, the capitation or poll-tax, imposed on every subject of the empire who is not a Mahometan; towards which the rich pay thirty shillings a year, tradesmen fifteen shillings, and common labourers six shillings and tenpence halfpenny. Besides this, are the annual tributes paid by the Cham of the Crim Tartars, the Princes of Moldavia, Walachia, the little republic of Ragusa, and part of Mingrelia, together with half a million annually from Egypt. All these, however, are inconsiderable, when compared to the vast sums extorted by the sultan from his viceroys and great officers of state, under the plausible appellation of presents. He also raises vast sums by the confiscations of the estates and effects of his ministers, whom, if they happen to be immoderately rich, he frequently puts to death, under pretence of misconduct. He is likewise heir to all his officers and ministers; who, after distressing the people they are appointed to govern, in order to amass prodigious wealth, are obliged to leave it at his disposal when they die; and it is seldom that generosity prompts him to bestow any considerable part on the relations of the deceased.

In Turkey, the current coin consists of gold and silver, there being no copper or brass money. The gold coins are the altines or ducats, and the zehinos. The former are worth about seven shillings and sixpence, and the latter about nine shillings. The silver coins are, the asper, worth three halfpence; the para, worth four-pence halfpenny; the grosh, about three-pence; the krip, about eleven-pence, and the solga, about two shillings and two-pence farthing. The gold and silver of all countries go for their full value.—A kize is a bag of fifteen thousand ducats; a purse is worth five hundred thousand crowns, and of these the sultan makes his common presents; but those he presents to his sultanas or favourites, are called golden purses, and contain thirty thousand crowns.

As to the Turkish military and marine strength, their armies, even in time of peace, are very numerous; and the chief part of them consist of a kind of militia, amounting to several hundred thousand men, whom their leaders are obliged to conduct into the

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field, whenever they are termed light-horse; these men; but there is his, who are all grand feignior's of the empire, however, who are else armies, and on engagement: they are quartered in frequently grow much so far as to deposit from the treasury strained up from There are not less over every province selves to be register the privileges of being subject to no chief commander

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field, whenever the government requires their service; they are termed the Tinar-ispahis, and are in fact light-horse; these amount to about 268,000 effective men: but there is another body of cavalry, called Spahis, who are about 12,000 in number, and form the grand seignior's horse-guard. The chief dependence of the empire, however, is upon the janissaries, or infantry, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on whom they principally depend in an engagement: their number is about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. These frequently grow mutinous, and have sometimes proceeded so far as to depose the sultan. They receive their pay from the treasury, are educated in the seraglio, and trained up from their infancy to the use of arms. There are not less than 100,000 foot soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, in order to enjoy the privileges of janissaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of the aga, or chief commander of their corps.

The titles of the emperor are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, "The Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all Earthly Crowns," &c. The grand seignior's arms are, Vert, a crescent argent, crested with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's-quills, with this motto, *DONEC TOTUM IMPLEAT ORBEM*, i. e. *Until he shall fill the whole world.*

The grand seignior's seraglio consists of a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and Greek islands, most of them being the children of Christian parents. The brave Prince Heraclius hath for some years past abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, formerly paid every year by Georgia to the Porte. The number of women in the harem depends on the taste of the reigning monarch, or sultan: Selim had 2000, Achmet had but 300, and the present sultan hath nearly 1600. On their admission, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called Katon Kiaga, or governess of the noble young ladies. There is not one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation: the last that is entered, serves her who preceded her and herself. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand seignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys 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 approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the harem, which

carry the grand seignior's wives, are manned with twenty-four rowers, and have white covered tilts, shut alternately by Venetian blinds.

Whenever the ladies are permitted to walk in the gardens of the seraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every side there is a guard of black eunuchs, with sabres in their hands, while others go their rounds, in order to hinder any person from seeing them. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, either through ignorance or inadvertence, he is undoubtedly killed, and his head brought to the feet of the grand seignior, who gives a reward to the guard for their vigilance. Sometimes the sultan goes into the gardens to amuse himself when the women are there; and it is then that they make use of their utmost efforts, by dancing, singing, seducing gestures, and amorous blandishments, to ensnare the affections of the monarch. He is not allowed to take a virgin to his bed, except during the solemn festivals, and on occasion of some extraordinary rejoicings, or the arrival of some good news. Upon such occasions, if the sultan chooses a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governesses, to whom he speaks, and intimates the person he likes best; but does not throw the handkerchief to her, as is generally asserted and believed.

As soon as the grand seignior has chosen the girl that he has declined to be the partner of his bed, all the others follow her to the bath, washing and perfuming her, and dressing her superbly, conducting her, singing, dancing, and rejoicing, to the bed-chamber of the sultan, who is generally, on such an occasion, already in bed. Scarcely has the new-elected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than she kneels down; and when the sultan calls her, she creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if he does not order her, by special grace, to approach by the side: after a certain time, upon a signal given by the sultan, the governess of the girls, with all her suite, enter the apartment, and take her back again, conducting her with the same ceremony, to the women's apartments; and if by good-fortune she becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, she is called *afaki-sultanehs*, that is to say, *sultanehs-mother*. For the first son, she has the honour to be crowned, and she has the liberty of forming her court, by way of distinction. Eunuchs are also assigned for her guard, and for her particular service. No other ladies, though delivered of boys, are either crowned or maintained in such a costly manner as the first; however, they have their service apart, and handsome appointments.

After the death of the sultan, the mothers of the male children are shut up in the old seraglio, from whence they can never come out any more, unless any of their sons ascend the throne. A writer of credit informs us, that the female slave who becomes the mother

ther of a sultan, and lives long enough to see her son mount the throne, is the only woman who, at that period alone, acquires the distinction of sultana-mother: she is till then in the interior of her prison with her son. The title of *Bache-Kadun*, principal woman, is the first dignity of the grand seignior's harem; and she hath a larger allowance than those who have the title of second, third, and fourth woman, which is the number of free women allowed by the Koran.

A COMPENDIOUS HISTORY of the ORIGIN, PROGRESS, and ESTABLISHMENT of the TURKS.

THE southern and more fertile parts of Asia have, at different periods, been conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men who inhabit the vast country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks, or Turcomans (which name signifies wanderers) extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian-Sea, to the Straights of the Dardanelles. Having been long resident in the capacity of body guards about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a considerable time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia-Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom about the year 1037, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and plundering the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. On the declension of the caliphate, or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting the holy city of Jerusalem being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrible cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous crusades, of which an ample account is given in another part of this work.

The Greek emperors were unfortunately more jealous of the Christians than of the Turks; and though after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem, under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were able to maintain it, by any real power they possessed. About the year 1299, the Turks had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa, in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation; hence they

took the name of Othmans from that leader, the appellation of Turks, as it signifies in the original wanderers, or banished men, being considered by them as a term of reproach.

Othman may with propriety be styled the founder of the Turkish empire, and was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes that are mentioned in history. About the year 1357 they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janissaries was established. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek Emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire to his obedience. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's forces were cut to pieces, and he himself taken prisoner, and shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his days.

This was a dreadful blow to the Othmans; but the successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, gave the Turks an opportunity of recovering the prodigious loss they had sustained, and of becoming more powerful than ever; and though their career was in some measure checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, nevertheless they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the eastern empire; an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was, the total degeneracy and luxury of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families; the dislike their subjects had to the popes, and the western church, one of their patriarchs having declared publicly to a Romish legate, "That he would rather see a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate the conquered nations, but reduced them to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands, where, though grievously oppressed, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, more wealthy than those of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer, and more conversant in trade. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still preserve somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles,

principles, by which so eminently distinguished. The conquest submission of a Turk have been and as having accu- tical balance of In 1481, Ma- was succeeded o- That prince car- and Venetians, Egyptians; but f- dolent, was hara- length, by order- sioned by a Jew p- Selim, persuad- throne in peace, man race subsiste- east, and caused- strangled, with- race. He conti- Persia, and the- seated their fore- penetrate into the- against Egypt, w- subdued, in the- the Lesser Asia- Aleppo, Antioch- several other plac- his son- Soliman the- ever filled the thr- the fatal differ- Christian power- driving the knig- was given them- reign of Soliman- the Christian pe- by sea and land- Hungary at tha- near 200,000 ca- and two years- and besieged Vi- Charles V. he n- to take the Ile- ceded by- Selim, the for- nued the wars b- ans, but without- which was now- the Christians, i- almost annihilat- tory been prop- ally the Spaniar- But differences a- the panic of th- their spirits, and- but their marine

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The conquest of the capital was followed by the submission of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power, and as having acquired a considerable weight in the political balance of affairs.

In 1481, Mahomet paid the debt of nature, and was succeeded on the Othman throne by Bajazet II. That prince carried on a war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as against the Persians and Egyptians; but falling ill of the gout, he became indolent, was harassed with family differences, and at length, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician.

Selim, persuaded that he could never possess the throne in peace, while any other prince of the Othman race subsisted, pursued the barbarous policy of the east, and caused his eldest brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He continued the war against the Sophis of Persia, and the Prince of Mount Taurus, and defeated their forces; but finding himself unable to penetrate into the Persian dominions, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he subdued, in the year 1517. He was also successful in the Lesser Asia, where he made himself master of Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and several other places. He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son

Soliman the Magnificent, the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman. Availing himself of the fatal differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, he besieged and took Rhodes, driving the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the Emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives. This happened A. D. 1526; and two years afterwards, he advanced into Austria, and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. he miscarried also in an attempt he made to take the Isle of Malta. Dying in 1566, he was succeeded by

Selim, the son and successor of Soliman, who continued the wars begun by his father against the Christians, but without his good fortune. The Turkish fleet, which was now very powerful, was totally defeated by the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This blow almost annihilated the Turkish navy, and had the victory been properly pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards, Selim had tottered on his throne. But differences and jealousies prevailing among them, the panic of the Turks subsided, they soon recovered their spirits, and their army again became formidable; but their marine has never since been able to face that

of the Christians. Selim died in 1575, and was succeeded by his son,

Amurath III. who carried on a successful war against the Persians, and obliged them to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities to the Turks. He was also fortunate in his wars against the Hungarians, and made himself master of the fortress of Raab. His whole reign was indeed a continual war, the operations of which were various; sometimes fortune attended the Othman standards, and sometimes those of the enemy. After a reign of eighteen years, Amurath paid the debt of nature, and his son,

Mahomet III. ascended the Turkish throne. The most memorable transactions of the reign of this prince are his cruelties. At his accession to the throne, he caused nineteen of his brothers to be strangled: and as ten of his father's concubines were supposed to be pregnant, he caused these unhappy victims of his jealousy to be thrown into the sea. But though he waded to the throne through a sea of blood, he did not long enjoy it. He died of the plague in the year 1604.

Achmet succeeded to the Turkish throne on the death of his brother, and carried on an unsuccessful war against the Persians: but though his army was defeated in Asia, and several towns taken from him, yet his forces in Hungary were victorious, and obliged the Austrians to sign a peace in 1606, by which Achmet was allowed to retain all the conquests he had made. Soon after this peace, Achmet died, and

Osman, his son, then only sixteen years of age, succeeded him. He was a prince of great hopes, and seemed formed for governing a turbulent people; but being unsuccessful in his wars against Poland, he was put to death by the Janissaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. He was succeeded by

Morad IV. who, after a long contest with the Persians, made himself master of the city of Bagdad.

Ibrahim, his brother, succeeded him in the Othman throne, in 1640, but being a worthless, inactive prince, he was strangled in the seraglio by the Janissaries, in 1648.

Mahomet IV. succeeded Ibrahim, and carried on a long war against the Venetians. During his reign, Candy was taken by the Turks, after a siege of thirty years, and the loss of 180,000 men. A bloody war succeeded between the Turks and Imperialists, in which the former were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna; but were forced to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, King of Poland. This misfortune caused a ferment in Constantinople, Mahomet was shut up in prison, and

Soliman II. Mahomet's brother, was placed upon the throne. The standards of this prince were equally unfortunate, nor was his brother, Achmet II. more successful: the Turks were beaten in almost every action, and victory seemed to have totally deserted the Othman forces. Persuaded that many of the late misfor-
tures

tunes were owing to the want of abilities in the Turkish generals,

Mustapha II. who mounted the throne in 1696, headed his armies in person. But he was soon convinced that his opinion was too precipitately formed; the celebrated Prince Eugene, who then commanded the Imperial armies, totally defeated him, and a peace was concluded between the Imperialists and Turks, in the year 1699. This defeat terminated the reign of Mustapha; he was deposed, his musti beheaded, and his brother,

Achmet III. was placed upon the throne. This prince was more successful; he gave shelter at Bender to Charles XII. and terminated a successful war against the Russians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. He also declared war against the Venetians; but the numerous armies he levied for attacking the territories of that republic alarmed all Europe, so that the scene of action was translated to Hungary. Eugene then commanded the Imperial army, and gave the Turks so many repeated defeats, that Achmet was forced to conclude an inglorious peace at Passarowitz, in 1718. Nor were the Turkish armies more successful in Asia; they were defeated by Kouli Khan, who had seized the throne of Persia. Enraged at these repeated misfortunes, and alarmed at the progress of the Persians, the populace demanded the heads of the vizier, the chief admiral, and the secretary. These were accordingly struck off; but even this sacrifice was not sufficient to appease the clamours of the people; Achmet himself was deposed, and

Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. This total change in the government did not however recall victory to the standards of Othman. Mahomet was as unsuccessful as his predecessor, and at last obliged to acknowledge the usurper Koutli Khan as Sophi of Persia.

The war being thus terminated in Asia, Mahomet turned his arms against the Imperialists and Russians; he was victorious in several actions with the former; Eugene was dead, and there was no other general of equal talents to supply his place: but his forces were not a match for the latter. Defeat succeeded defeat, and the progress of the Russians was so rapid, that Constantinople itself was threatened with a siege. Reduced to this extremity, a hasty peace was concluded with the emperor, and soon after another with the Russians, both disadvantageous to the Turks. Mahomet died in 1754, and was succeeded by his brother

Osman III. who after a short reign of three years, paid the debt of nature, and the crown was placed upon the head of Mustapha III. This prince was born in 1723, and died on the 21st of January 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war against the Russians, of which some account will be given in our history of Russia.

Abdul Hamed, or Achmet IV. grand seignior, was born in 1710, and succeeded to the throne of Turkey

on the death of Mustapha, his brother: he had three sons and three daughters.

In the course of the war between Mustapha and the Empress of Russia, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of shaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet first sailed to Minorca, and departing from thence in the beginning of February 1770, shaped its course for the Morea. Count Orlov, the Russian admiral, having debarked such land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the westward of Metapan, and about fifty miles to the south-west of Mistra, the ancient Sparta, the Marriotes, the descendants of the Lacedaemonians, and who still possessed the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand seignior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks followed their example, or rather only wanted to hear the arrival of the Russians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea seemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Mistra, Arcadia, and several other places as speedily taken, while the Russian ships that had been separated, or that put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every small detachment soon swelled to a little army, and the Turks were every-where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time the Greeks gave the utmost loose to their revenge, and every-where slaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were seized, extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers.* They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within their fortresses. The mal-contented had so much increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note.

Whilst they were employed in these enterprizes, an army of 30,000 men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Serckier, Bathaw of Bosnia. This Turkish general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula, as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but about the same time another Russian squadron, commanded by Admiral Elphinston, arrived from England, to reinforce Count Orlov's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia.

The Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebques and gal-

lies, amounting to thirty. The Russians had only some of the ships, on both sides, approaching sufficient to grapple with the admiral, encountered, of ninety guns, both fought with great courage, and were at length separated, the Russians, after the Turkish fleet, he disentangled, and in flames. The possibility of success, a most terrible effect, principal officers on the greatest part of the

The dreadful fate to those that were on both sides; and continued till night, either side. When cut their cables, the Russian ships, up, and in the conveyed among the behaviour of Lieutenant Russian service, himself directed the destruction. The five hours the war, a few gallees that totally destroyed and bombarded that protected it, blown up the port reduced to a heap of ruins, and a fine appearance at once at nine the

As we intend some of the military between that and here, that after the Turks, peace them and the Russian few months after Achmet IV. son, then only young to manage the situation of his brother to surprise he intrusted the strongest to grand seignior is The great importance of the empire

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Mustapha and the Russian fleet was sailing, with a view to the Archipelago. This, starting from thence, shaped its course to the Russian admiral, who he had with him westward of Malacca, the descendant of the Sultan. Still possessed the submission to the Turkish arms in every part of thousands, from the Turks. The other admiral only wanted to do what they had done before. The country was quickly taken, and several other places were taken. The ships that had been sent, arrived successfully, and arrived in different quarters, and swelled to a little more. They were attacked or injured. The wrecks gave the utility where slaughter, and the rage and fury of the continent were increased. They were also the officers. They were, at the Russians and the destruction was found. The contents had so much of the Russians, and the places of less

These enterprises, and chiefly of Albanians, commanded by Seraskier, general recommendation, as soon as the ships that were found were instantly put to give back to their other Russian squadron, arrived from the emperor's armament. The obstinate engagement, which divides the Asia.

superior in force, and from sixty to the beques and gallees,

lies, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ships engaged with great resolution, whilst others, on both sides, found various causes for not approaching sufficiently near. But Spirtoff, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain-pacha, in the Sultane, of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm. They both fought with the greatest fury, and at length ran so close, that they locked themselves together with grappling-irons, and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-granades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire, and as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, they both at length blew up with a most terrible explosion. The commanders and principal officers on each side were mostly saved, but the greatest part of the crews were lost.

The dreadful fate of those ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause on both sides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night, without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coast of Natalia: the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were successfully conveyed among the Turkish fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of Lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, who, though abandoned by his crew, himself directed the operations of these vessels of destruction. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war, and a few gallees that were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed; after which, they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that a shot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had made a formidable appearance at one o'clock, there was scarcely left a vestige at nine the same morning.

As we intend, in our account of Russia, to notice some of the military transactions by land, in the war between that empire and Turkey, we shall only add here, that after a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July 1774, a few months after the accession of the late grand seignior, Achmet IV. The emperor, Mustapha III. left a son, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government, in the then critical situation of the Turkish affairs, Mustapha appointed his brother to succeed him in the throne; and to this prize he intrusted the care of his infant son, under the strongest terms of recommendation. The present grand seignior is Salem III. born in 1761.

The great springs of those successes which have rendered the empire of the Turks so formidable, have been

ascribed to their perseverance, their numerous Asiatic armies, and an implicit submission to their officers, rather than to any excellency in military discipline, or courage in war. The extension, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed, in some measure, be owing to the military institution of the Janissaries, a corps originally composed of the children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the seraglio: they were generally in number about 40,000, and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed to be invincible, and they still continue to be the flower of the Turkish armies. But the Ottoman power is in a declining state: the political situation of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, are now the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why these once haughty infidels are suffered to remain any longer in possession of the finest provinces in the world.

CHAP. VI.

EASTERN TARTARY.

Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Mountains, Rivers, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants, &c.

THESE vast regions are 4000 miles in length, and 2,400 in breadth; being situated between 50 and 150 deg. east long. and 30 and 72 deg. north lat.

Taken in its fullest extent, Tartary is bounded by the Frozen-Ocean on the north; by the Pacific-Ocean on the east; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian-Sea, on the south; and by Muscovy on the west. But the accounts given us by geographers, respecting the extent, limits, and situation of this country, are not to be depended upon entirely, since the Empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, Persians, and other nations.

One part of this extensive territory is subject to the Chinese empire, another is under the dominion of Russia; and the third is independent.

Its grand divisions, subdivisions, and chief towns, are as follow:

The north-east division contains the Kamtschatka Tartars, whose chief town is Kamtschatka; and the Jakutskoi-Tartars, whose chief town is Jakutskoi.

The south-east division includes the Thibet and Mogul-Tartars, whose chief towns are Bratski, Thibet, Pologon, Kudak, containing 985,380 square miles.

The north-west division comprises Samoieda and Otiack: their chief towns are Mangasia and Kortskoi.

The south-west division contains Circassian and Astrachan-Tartary, whose chief towns are Terki and Astrachan.

The middle division includes Siberia, with its chief town,

town, Tobolsk; Kalmuck-Tartary, and its chief town, Bokhariz; and Usbeck-Tartary, whose chief town is Samercand; Kalmuck-Tartary contains 850,000 square miles, and Usbeck-Tartary 339,840.

The chief mountains of Tartary are Caucasus in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, so contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia from Mingrelia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the north.

Its seas are, the Frozen-Ocean, the Pacific-Ocean, and the Caspian.

There are several lakes in Tartary, the most considerable of which are the Baikal, the Kifan, and the Kologal.

The most remarkable rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of 2000 miles; the Obey, which divides Asia from Europe, the Tabol, Irtis, Genesá or Jenka; the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires; the Burrumpooter, and the Lena.

As this country is of a vast extent from north to south, consequently the air, climate, soil, and produce, must be very different; the southern parts being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey; and the northern reaching beyond the arctic polar circle.

The most uncomfortable regions are Nova Zembla and Russian Lapland; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickets.

Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as fertile and desirable countries, which, when cultivated, yield excellent fruits, particularly very large grapes; and the grass grows spontaneously to an amazing height, but the Tartars have no idea of making it into hay. The common productions are, some wheat, rice, barley; several kinds of roots, and pulse, coffee, aloes, and various other drugs. Their method of procuring early grass for their cattle, particularly in Mongalia, is very extraordinary: during the high winds which blow here in spring, they set fire to the rank grass; this runs in a most amazing manner, and the flames frequently spread till their progress is stopped by some river or barren hill. The following year the ashes of this consumed grass, washed into the earth by the snow as it melts, prove such excellent manure, that the young grass springs thicker than wheat, on the land thus prepared.

Besides other land and amphibious animals common in the north parts of Europe, such as bears, wolves, &c. there are, in some parts of Tartary, camels, dromedaries, goats with yellow hair, squirrels, foxes, an animal called hautchan, resembling an elk; another called chulon or chalon, which seems to be a sort of lynx, a little creature called tael-pe, and marmots. The last of these animals are chiefly found on the hills in Mongalia, where they burrow under the broad spread-

ing leaves of the rhubarb plants; to the growth of which it is said their dung, and their casting up the earth about the roots, greatly contribute. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong.

Near Astrachan, there is a bird (by travellers taken to be the pelican) called by the Russians Baba, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and, on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings, and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them, or carries them to the young.

The population of Tartary can never be ascertained; but from some circumstances we must conclude, that the number of inhabitants are by no means proportioned to the extent of their country. These people, originally descended from the Scythians, are now generally divided into three distinct powers; the first are those known by the name of Tartars, the second are the Calmucks, and the third the Monguls. The Tartars, properly so called, live to the west of the Caspian sea. The most considerable of them are the Usbecks, subject to Persia; the Kara Kallpacks, the Nogais, and the Baskirs, the two last being subject to Russia; and the Daghestans, who depend on no power, and are more savage and untractable than any of the rest.

In their persons they are generally short and stout, with broad faces, flat noses, and small but quick black eyes. They continually thin their beards by plucking the hairs out by the roots, so that they are scarcely visible. The women bear a strong resemblance to the men, except in Circassia, where they are esteemed as remarkable beauties, and are admired for their wit and address. Many of them are found in the seraglios of the grand seignior, and other great personages, both in Turkey and Persia; being purchased of their parents, while exceeding young, by merchants, who cause them to be instructed in such accomplishments as may tend to enhance their value when offered to sale. The Tartarian women are famed for being honest, sincere, and in general very modest. Adultery is a crime scarce ever heard of among them.

In their dispositions the Tartars are naturally easy and cheerful, always disposed to laughter, and scarce ever experience either care or melancholy. They are extremely hospitable to each other, and likewise to strangers, who put themselves under their protection. Their ideas of filial duty cannot be exceeded, and scarcely equalled, by more polished nations; but they sometimes carry them to what we must term, a cruel height, for if any of them are rendered infirm by age, or seized with an incurable distemper, they build a small hut near some river, into which they put the patient with a quantity of provisions, and then quitting him, seldom or never return to know his fate. The reason they

assign for this is that it prevents a good offer for them; believe leads to happiness tempted by an usually, if well-verb: "Though own handle."

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assign for this strange conduct is, that they do their parents a good office in sending them to a better world; for they believe in a future state, and that virtue leads to happiness, and vice to misery: therefore, when tempted by another to commit a bad action, they usually, if well-disposed, reply in the following proverb: "Though a knife be sharp, it cannot cut its own handle." Their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses; for, being inured to horsemanship from their infancy, they seldom appear on foot; their dexterity in shooting at a mark is inconceivable, and frequently while in full gallop, they will cleave a pole, at a considerable distance from them, with an arrow. They avoid all kind of labour, and have few mechanics among them, except those who make arms. In general, they lead a wandering life, setting out in the spring, frequently ten thousand in a body, preceded by their flocks and herds; and when they come to an inviting spot, they pitch their tents, and stay there till all the grass is consumed, when they again set forward in search of another fertile plain. Some of them live in huts half sunk under ground, the fire being in the centre, with a hole just over it in the roof to let out the smoke, and round it are benches to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward, to the Japanese ocean. In the northern provinces, as soon as the winter sets in, every family burrows itself under ground, nor do they emerge again till the succeeding spring.

Their favourite food is horse-flesh, which they broil and roast, and sometimes large pieces of it are smoked or dried in the sun; but they never eat it raw, as is commonly believed, unless compelled to it by necessity. On long marches, all their provisions consist of cheese, or rather dried curd, made up into little balls, which they poult, and, mixing the powder with water, drink it.

Some of the tribes are far more filthy than others, but in this particular none exceed the Kamtschatkans, who are said never to wash their hands or face, nor cut their nails: they eat out of the same dish with the dogs, without ever being washed, every thing about them stinks of fish, and they never comb their heads. Both men and women plait their hair in two locks, binding the ends with small cords. If any hair happens to start out, they sew it down with thread, to make it lie close, by which means their heads swarm with vermin, which they scrape off with their hands.

The Tartars have very little money except what they get from the Russians, and their other neighbours, in exchange for cattle: and with this they sometimes buy meal, but it is more frequently expended in cloths, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women, whom they likewise purchase with a cattle.

They are not very nice in their marriages, not being uncommon, in some of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter; and there is very little difference made between the child of a concubine

or slave, and that of a wife, except that, among the heads of tribes, the wife's son is always preferred in the succession. But what is still a greater hardship, every wife, when turned of forty, is degraded to the menial offices of a servant, and, as such, must wait on the young wife who succeeds to her place.

The Tartarian dress is very simple; that of the men consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves, made of deer-skins, with the fur outward, and trowsers and hose all of one piece. Most of the tribes shave their heads, except a lock behind, which is plaited, and hangs down their backs. They wear a cap turned up with fur, adorned on the top with a tassel of red silk. The women are dressed in loose gowns, ornamented and bordered with different colours; they all wear ear-rings, and their hair plaited in several locks. Those of most consequence among them, wear silk garments in the summer.

The inhabitants of Siberia are, like their ancestors, most of them idolaters. They consist of many nations, entirely differing from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by some Tartars, and such as are converted to Christianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increased since it became a Russian province, for the Russians have built therein a number of towns, fortresses, and villages. Notwithstanding which, it presents but a void and desert appearance; since, by its extent, it is capable of supporting several millions more than it at present contains.

The religion of the Circassians is Paganism; for, notwithstanding they use circumcision among them, they have neither priest, koran, or mosque, like other Mahometans. Every body here offers his own sacrifice at pleasure, for which, however, they have certain days, established more by custom than any positive command. Their most solemn sacrifice is offered at the death of their nearest friends, upon which occasion both men and women meet in the field to be present at the offering, which is a he-goat: this having killed, they flay it, and stretch the skin, with the head and horns on, upon a cross at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickset hedge (to keep the cattle from it) and the sacrifice is offered near the place, by boiling and roasting the flesh, which they afterwards eat. When the feast is over, the men rise, and having paid their adoration to the skin, and muttered over some certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking a great quantity of aqua vitæ, and this generally ends in a quarrel before they break up the meeting.

We shall now proceed to give an account of the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Lassa, a large tract of Tartary bordering upon China, which is considered as the most remarkable, and most

worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Delai Lama, who is not only submitted to, and adored by them, but is also the great object of adoration for the various tribes of heathen Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Korea on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest, where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchon Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians, is, that when the Grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens known only to the Lamas or priests, in which order he always appears.

In 1774 the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Taysloo Lama, who in authority and sanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The Lamas, who form the most numerous as well as the most powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, fill up many monastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The residence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of the Barampooter, about seven miles from Lassa. The English East-India company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774, in consequence of the fort of Dellameotta, the principal pass through the ridge of the Bootan mountains, being taken by storm by Capt. Jones in 1773, which made the Thibetians sue for peace. The people at Thibet have a great veneration for the cow, and also highly respect the waters of the Ganges, the source of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniasses, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as an holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is possessed of unlimited power throughout his very extensive dominions.

The religion of Schamanism is also very prevalent among the Tartars. The professors of this religion 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 number of inferior divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheless generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore it is incumbent on mankind to use all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these subordinate deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as beings vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to superintend and manage household affairs: in consequence of these principles, it is no wonder they are treated with that contempt and severity they commonly meet with.

Among a nation of Tartars, the reader cannot expect to find a very satisfactory account on the article of learning; it is, however, very certain, that under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Astrachan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning and politeness, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes; and there are still extant some remains of their taste in architecture, but these are only to be found in desolate and almost inaccessible places. The cultivation of learning was the first care of the prince, and generally committed to the care of his own relations. They wrote in the Persian or Arabic tongues; and their histories carry with them the strongest marks of authenticity: many of these are still extant in manuscript.

Their curiosities are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the above-mentioned great conquerors, and their successors. Here are remains of ditches and ramparts, which heretofore either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered upon the spot, as well as other traces of buildings, &c. which strongly indicate their pristine importance. Many of them are in tolerable preservation, and make some figure even at present.

The Slabode, or Tartarian suburb of Kaimof, on the Oha, seems to have been the residence of some khan. In the midst of the ruins of that city is a round and elevated tower, called in their language Misiqui, a sort of temple, or building dedicated to devotion. Here are also the remains of the walls of a palace; and in one of the maselets, or burial-places, is a very considerable mausoleum; all which edifices are built of hewn stone and bricks. From an Arabic inscription we learn, that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the nine hundred and sixty-second year of the hegira, or the one thousand five hundred and twentieth of the christian era. Near Mount Caucasus are still very considerable

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remains of Madfchar, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent are numerous tombs covered with cylindrical stones, exceeding the usual stature of men, with Arabic inscriptions.

In the environs of Astrachan, the ruins of ancient Astrachan are very visible, and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzantzin, on the left shore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itself into the above-mentioned river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, 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 400 years. Not far from hence, on the Tcheremscham, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are those of Boulymer, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The small town of Bilyairk has been erected by the Tartars upon its ruins.

There is a monument, in the fortress of Kafan, of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present for ramparts: the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. In going up the river Kafanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old Kafan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen about Tobolsk upon the Irtych. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulph in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratchik. Not to mention a great number of other cities and ruins in Siberia; and especially all those that are to be met with in the desert of Kirgius, which abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg.

About eighty miles from Lassa is the lake Palte, or Janglo; of that extent, the natives say it requires eighteen days to walk round it. In the middle of it are islands, one of which is the seat of the Lamissa Turecpama, or the great regenerate, in whom the Tibetians think a divine spirit resides, as in the Great Lama. M. Voltaire, in his History of Peter the Great, informs us, that there were found in Kalmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equestrian statue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscript, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. Hair, fine wool, coarse cloths, rock salt, musk, and gold, are their staple commodities.

CHAP. VII.

DESCRIPTION OF VARIOUS ISLANDS
DISCOVERED BY THE RUSSIANS.

THOUGH the voyages of Columbus and Vasquez de Gama had discovered a new world in the west, and proved the cause of exploring many countries little known, but by hearsay, in the oriental quarter of the world; yet it was still supposed, by many who curiously contemplated the figure of the globe, that there were many islands in the eastern ocean; and much land to the southward yet remaining undiscovered; and some for a long time entertained the idea of a vast southern continent, or first division of the world, which they contended was necessary to keep up the due balance of the terraqueous globe.

While these things were yet in contemplation, the Russians discovered the northern Archipelago, a vast number of islands situate between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka and the western part of the continent of America; the first project for making which discoveries was actually conceived and set on foot by the Czar Peter the Great. The first group of these islands called Salignan, comprehends (partly under the name of Aleutian Isles) 1. Beerings-Island. 2. Copper-Island. 3. Orma. 4. Samyra. 5. Anakta. The second group, called Khao, contains eight islands. 1. Imnaak. 2. Kiska. 3. Ichetchia. 4. Ava. 5. Kavia. 6. Ichangulak. 7. Ulagama. 8. Amitchkidga. The third, under the general name of Negho, comprehends a number of islands, sixteen of which are thus denominated. 1. Amatinak. 2. Ulak. 3. Unalga. 4. Navoltscha. 5. Uliga. 6. Anagin. 7. Kagulak. 8. Illak. 9. Takavanga. 10. Kanaga; on both which are volcanos. 11. Leg. 12. Sketskuná. 13. Tugaloon. 14. Goreloi. 15. Ochtu. 16. Amla. The fourth group, which is called Kavalang, and by the Russians the Fox-Islands, contains: 1. Amuchta. 2. Tschigama. 3. Ischegula. 4. Uniftra. 5. Ulaga. 6. Tauagulana. 7. Kagamin. 8. Kigalga. 9. Skelmaga. 10. Umnaak. 11. Agun-Alashka. 12. Unimga. 13. Uligen. 14. Anturo-Leifume. 15. Semidit. 16. Senagak.

The natives of these islands (some of which are only occasionally inhabited) are, in general, strong and robust, but short in stature. They have little beards, lank black hair, and flat faces, with a fair complexion. The inhabitants of the Aleutian Isles generally live upon wild animals and roots which grow spontaneously, little troubling themselves to catch the fine fish which the rivers abound.

Copper-Island takes its name from the quantity of copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The Fox-Islands receive their appellation from the number of black, grey, and red foxes which are found there.

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The inhabitants are the most numerous and warlike of all these Tartars, they generally wear a cap, and a coat that reaches to the knee. Some of them adopt caps of a party-coloured bird-skin, on which they suffer part of the wings and tail to remain. They often ornament these on the fore part with a board set with the jaw-bones of sea-bears, and ornamented with beads. They generally eat their flesh and fish raw, and so they feed their children with it; but when they think proper to dress their food, they choose a hollow stone in which they put the viands, closing the interstices with clay or lime; then laying that horizontally on two other stones, kindle a fire beneath. What they intend for keeping, they do not salt, but dry it fresh in the open air.

They use bows and arrows, darts, and wooden targets in war. They live together either in families, or societies of several families united, which they call a race; and these are in a state of alliance, though without any settled form of government. Nor does it appear that they have either established laws or punishments, but property in each island is held in common among every society, and so enjoyed without disturbance. The consequence is a perfect equality, that child of the simplicity of nature, never to be expected in mighty states or in great republics, and so often considered as a mere Utopian scheme and idle dream by European politicians.

These people are described as possessing, with but little acuteness, a good portion of natural sense; in general, slow and phlegmatic, but capable of being roused by injuries to a most implacable fury, and susceptible of apprehensions of evil, which will often drive them to the commission of suicide, which they perpetrate with great apparent indifference. They seem much averse to the visits of their powerful neighbours the Russians.

As a race of Tartars, delicacy is not to be expected among these islanders; and they may well be concluded strangers to what is termed the refinement of manners. They seldom heat their dwellings, but when they are necessitated to warm themselves, they either fire train oil, and pour it into a hollow stone, or stand over a bundle of burning hay, and this they think sufficient. They endure the cold the more easily because they are inured to it from early youth: a mother will carry her infant when it cries to the sea-side, though in winter, and hold it in the water till it is quiet; by which means the child, as it grows up, can walk barefooted at all seasons, and never experiences any sensible inconvenience from the severity of the weather. Trees are not found on these islands, but drift wood is brought on shore in great quantities.

Being of an hospitable disposition, the natives of the northern Archipelago make frequent feasts, at the celebration of which they put on their most showy caps, and advance in procession to meet their guests with drums beating, proceeded by singing and dancing women, especially if the people of one island are visited

by those of another; and these feasts form the principal part of their recreation.

Such are the manners of the inhabitants of a cluster of islands which were discovered at various times; and as we have already observed, on a plan conceived by Peter the First, that famous reformer and enlightener of his people. But great projects, do not always meet with immediate success.

It was in the year 1728 that Beerling and Tichrichoff, two Moscovite navigators, failed first on a voyage of discovery, which, however, produced nothing worthy of notice. A second expedition succeeded no better; and in a third voyage, in 1741, Beerling's ship was cast away, and he died on an island not far from Kamtschatka; and so little did the Russians possess of nautical knowledge, that notwithstanding all encouragements given by their government, and though these islands were in their own neighbourhood, no perfect idea of them was obtained till so late as the year 1750. The account which we have here given, is from the authority of Mr. Muller, who consulted many journals of voyages, by the direction of the present Empress of Russia, to which he added the substance of further information received from a native and chief of one of the islands, who was brought to Peterburgh in the year 1751.

CHAP. VIII.

KAMTSCHATKA.

Extent, Boundaries, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS is a great peninsula, extending from north to south about 7 deg. 30 min. It is divided into four districts, Bolcheresk, Tigilskaja Krepost, Verchnei, or Upper Kamtschatkoi Ostrog, and Nishnei, or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog. The eastern ocean separates it from America; on the west, it has Penshinska for its boundary, commencing near the southern point of the Cape of Kamtschatka, and extending northerly between Ochotkoy and the western coast of Kamtschatka. The southern part is in 51 deg. north lat. and 143 deg. long. east of London.

The inhabitants have no one fixed general name for this country, though the Russians call the whole of it Kamtschatka: it has the several names of Kurilski, Bolshcheretki, Awatcha-Koreki, Ukoj, and Tegil, some from the names of the natives, and others from some particular or memorable circumstance. The three divided nations have different languages.

The Kamtschadales are short in stature, have dark hair, hollow eyes, sharp noses, and tawny complexions. Their dress consists of deer-skins, with the fur outwards; also of dog-skins, and those of other animals. They often wear two coats, the sleeves of the outer coat reaching down to the knees; they have a hood to it, which in bad weather serves to cover the head; and they

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They ornament the back part with shreds of skins, and sometimes with silk of different colours.

The men wear a leather belt round them, and their legs are covered with different coloured skins; they wear seal-skin caps or hats, and sometimes a hat or cap of birch bark: some have caps of grass plaited.

The women wear the same sorts of garments as the men; though their coats, or rather waistcoats, fit closer to their bodies, and are decorated with slips of red, blue, and yellow cloth, and sometimes ribband, or woollen silk. They have fur caps, that are white within, and black without: they let their hair grow much longer than the men, plait it, and hang brass trinkets to it.

There are three volcanoes in Kamtschatka. The first is that of Awatcha, to the northward of the bay of that name. The second issues from some mountains situated between the river of Kamtschatka and that of Tabolski. The third volcano issues from the highest mountain in Kamtschatka on the banks of the river of that name.

The Kamtschadales live some of them in huts, others in the woods, and on the banks of rivers. The men, when not employed in hunting or fishing, weave nets, and construct sledges or boats: in the spring and summer they procure the necessaries of life, and lay up a store for the succeeding winter, which is not very inclement, though their spring and summer do not continue more than four months.

THE PROVINCE OF JAKUTSKOI.

IN this country, and in the northern parts of Siberia, the cold sometimes increases so considerably in a few hours as to strike men and cattle dead, who happen to be at too great a distance from any habitation to shelter themselves from it: but when some parts of the body are only frozen, they rub them with snow, by which the circulation is immediately restored. This severe weather is succeeded by so hot a summer, that the inhabitants are obliged to go partly naked.

In the northern parts, beyond the sixtieth degree of latitude, the earth produces neither corn nor fruit; they are, however, supplied with those necessaries from the southern parts; and they are in want of neither fish nor animal food; for they have a great diversity of the former, and a plenty of tame and wild animals; and as to fuel, they have also a sufficiency of that necessary article.

There is some corn in the country of the Jakutskoi, but they pay little regard to it, as their chief attention, like that of their neighbours, is employed in hunting animals.

The town of Jakutskoi, on the river Lena, is the capital of the province, and is about 400 miles from the Frozen-Ocean.

These people form one of the most considerable and numerous Pagan nations in this vast country: they are

divided into ten tribes, making in the whole not less than 30 or 40,000 persons, all under the dominion and taxation of Russia.

The Jakuti believe in a Supreme Being, and have attempted to give an image of him; the image, however, hath a very hideous aspect, with a big head, and large eyes of coral. They place it in a tree, and cover it with furs: once a year they assemble together, and sacrifice horses, &c. to this image, sticking up the horses' heads all round the tree. Then sitting down in a circle, they drink of a liquor which they call cumose, and get intoxicated with it. They also throw some of the liquor into the air, and into a fire which they light on the occasion.

When Captain Cook first made the land of the Jakutskoi, in August 1778, it was supposed by some, on board the Resolution, to be a part of the Island of Alafchka, laid down in Mr. Stæhlin's map; but, from the appearance of the coast, and other circumstances, it was soon conjectured to be rather the country of the Jakutskoi, or the eastern extremity of Asia, explored by Beerig in 1728. In admitting this, however, without farther examination, we must have pronounced Mr. Stæhlin's map, and his account of the New Northern Archipelago, to be either remarkably erroneous, even in latitude, or else to be a mere fiction; a judgment which we would not presume to pass upon a publication to respectfully vouched, without producing the most decisive proofs.

This country, lying on the eastern coast of Asia, is bounded on the south by the river Anadir, and extends along the shore, to the north and north-east, to 74 deg. of latitude.

Upon Captain Cook's landing, with a party of our people, at this place, thirty or forty men, each of whom was armed with a spontoon, a bow, and arrows, stood drawn up on an eminence near the houses. Three of them came down towards the shore, on the approach of our people, and were so polite as to pull off their caps, and make them low bows. Though this civility was returned, it did not inspire them with sufficient confidence to wait for their landing; for, the instant the boats put ashore, the natives retired. Captain Cook followed them alone, without any thing in his hand, and, by signs and gestures, prevailed on them to stop, and accept some trifling presents. In return for these, they gave him two fox-skins, and a couple of sea-horse teeth. The captain was of opinion, that they had brought these articles down with them, for the purpose of presenting them to him, and that they would have given them, even if they had expected no return.

They discovered manifest tokens of apprehension and fear, intimating their desire, by signs, that no more of our people should be suffered to come up. On the captain's laying his hand on the shoulder of one of them, he started back several paces. In proportion as he advanced, they retreated, always in the attitude of being ready to make use of their spears; while those on the

eminence were ready to support them with their arrows. Insensibly, however, the captain, and two or three of his companions, introduced themselves among them. The distribution of a few beads among some of them soon created a degree of confidence; so that they were not alarmed, when the party was joined by a few more; and, in a short time, a kind of traffic was entered into. In exchange for tobacco, knives, beads, and other articles, they gave a few arrows, and some of their clothing: but nothing that our people had to offer, could induce them to part with a spear or a bow. These they held in continual readiness, never quitting them, except at one time, when four or five persons laid theirs down, while they favoured our people with a song and a dance; and even then, they placed them in such a manner, that they could lay hold of them in a moment.

Their arrows were pointed either with stone or bone, but very few of them had barbs; and some of them had a round blunt point. What use these are applied to could not be determined, unless it be to kill small animals without damaging the skin.

Their spontoons, or spears, were of iron or steel, and of European or Asiatic workmanship; and considerable pains had been taken to embellish them with carving, and inlayings of brass, and of a white metal. Those who stood with bows and arrows in their hands, had the spear slung by a leathern strap over their right shoulder. A leathern quiver, slung over their left shoulder, served to contain arrows; and some of these quivers were exceedingly beautiful, being made of red leather, on which was very neat embroidery, and other ornaments. In this, and some instances of their clothing, they gave proofs of a degree of ingenuity, not to be expected among the inhabitants of so northern a region. The natives were robust and well proportioned. No women or children, of either sex, were observed, nor any aged persons, except one man, whose head was bald, and he was the only one who bore no arms: the others seemed to be select men, and rather under than above the middle age. The elderly man had a black mark across his face, which was not perceived in any others. All of them had their ears perforated, and some had glass beads hanging to them. These were the only fixed ornaments seen about them, for they wore none to their lips.

The drefs of these people consisted of a frock, a pair of breeches, a pair of boots, and a pair of gloves, all made of the skins of deer, dogs, seals, and other animals, extremely well dressed, some with the hair or fur on, and others without it. Their hair was apparently black; but their heads were either shaved, or their hair cut close off; and none of them wore beads.

They have their winter and summer habitations: the former are like a vault, the floor of which is sunk below the surface of the earth. One of them, examined by Captain Cook's people, was of an oval figure, about twenty feet in length, and twelve or more in height; the framing consisting of wood and the ribs of whales, judiciously disposed, and bound together with smaller

materials of the same kind. Over this framing, a covering of strong coarse grass was laid, and that again was covered with earth; so that on the outside the house had the appearance of a little hillock, supported by a wall of stone, of the height of three or four feet, which was built round the two sides, and one end. At the other end of the habitation the earth was raised sloping, to walk up to the entrance, which was by a hole in the top of the roof, over that end. The floor was boarded, and under it was a sort of cellar, in which was seen nothing but water. At the end of each house was a vaulted room, which was supposed to be a store-room.

Their summer huts were of a tolerable size, and brought to a kind of point at the top. Slight poles and bones, covered with the skins of sea-animals, composed the framing. The inside of one being examined, there was a fire-place just within the door, where a few wooden vessels were deposited, all very dirty. Their bed-places were close to the side, and occupied about one half of the circuit: some degree of privacy seemed to be observed; for there were several partitions made with skins. The bed and bedding consisted of deer skins, and most of them were clean and dry.

When a visiter comes to see them, he is always presented with the master of the hut's wife or daughter, who hands to him a basin of her own urine, with which the visiter (if among their own people) walters his mouth; and this he is obliged to do, or he is not looked upon as a friend.

About the houses were erected several stages ten or twelve feet in height. They were composed entirely of bones, and were apparently intended for drying their fish and skins, which were thus placed out of the reach of their dogs, of which they had great numbers.

These dogs are of the fox kind, rather large, and of different colours, with long soft hair resembling wool. They are, in all probability, used for the purpose of drawing their sledges in winter; for it appears that they have sledges, as many of them were seen laid up in one of their winter huts. It is likewise not improbable that dogs constitute a part of their food, for several lay dead, which had been recently killed.

The canoes of these people resemble those of the northern parts, the form being simple, but calculated for every useful purpose.

From the large bones of fish, and other sea animals, it appeared, that the sea furnished them with the greater part of their subsistence. The country seemed exceedingly barren, as our people saw not a tree or shrub. At some distance towards the west they observed a ridge of mountains covered with snow, that had fallen not long before.

Such of these people as live to the northward of the Anadir not being under the dominion of the Russians, are inimical to those who are. The Russians, indeed, have made many strenuous but unsuccessful efforts to bring them under a general subjection.

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northward, in order to make a nearer approach to the
American coast; and arriving in their passage at the
latitude of 70 deg. 6 min. north, saw an amazing num-
ber of sea-horses on the ice, and as they were in want
of fresh provisions, the boats were dispatched from each
ship to procure some. Nine of these animals were
brought on board the Resolution, and which, till this
time, were supposed to have been sea cows; nor would the
difference have been known, had not two or three men
on board, who had been in Greenland, declared what
animals these were, and that no person ever eat of them.
Notwithstanding this, they served for provisions, and
there were few of our people who did not prefer them
to salt meat.

The fat of these animals, at first, is as sweet as
butter; but, in a few days, it becomes rancid, un-
less it is salted, in which state it will keep much longer.
The lean flesh is coarse and blackish, and has a strong
taste; but the heart is almost as well tasted as that of a
bullcock. The fat, when melted, affords a great quan-
tity of oil, which burns very well in lamps; and their
sides, which are of great thickness, were very useful
about the rigging. The teeth, or tusks, of most of
them were, at this time, of a very small size; even
some of the largest and oldest of these animals had them
not exceeding six inches in length. Hence it was con-
cluded that they had lately shed their old teeth.

They lie upon the ice in herds of many hundreds,
huddling, like swine, one over the other; and they roar
very loud; so that in the night, or when the weather
was very foggy, they gave our people notice of the
vicinity of the ice, before they could discern it. It was
never found that the whole herd were asleep at the same
time, some of them being constantly on the watch.
These, on the approach of the boat, would awake those
that were next to them; and the alarm being thus gradu-
ally communicated, the whole herd would presently
be awake. However, they were seldom in a hurry to
get away, before they had been once fired at. Then
they would fall into the sea, one over the other in the
utmost confusion; and, if our people did not happen,
at the first discharge, to kill those they fired at, they
generally lost them, though mortally wounded.

They did not appear to be so dangerous as some au-
thors have represented them; even when they were
attacked. They are, indeed, more so in appearance,
than in reality. Vast multitudes of them would follow,
and come close up to the boats; but the flash of a
musket in the pan, or even the mere pointing one at
them, would send them down in a moment. The fe-
male, however, will defend her young ones to the very
last, and at the expence of her own life, whether upon
the ice or in the water.

There appeared some striking instances of parental
affection in these animals. All of them, on the ap-
proach of the boats towards the ice, took their young
ones under their fins, and attempted to escape with
them into the sea. Some, whose cubs were killed or

wounded, and left floating upon the surface of the wa-
ter, rose again, and carried them down, sometimes just
as the men were on the point of taking them into the
boat; and could be traced bearing them to a consider-
able distance through the water, which was stained with
their blood. They were afterwards observed bringing
them, at intervals, above the surface, as if for air, and
again plunging under it, with a horrid bellowing. The
female, in particular, whose young one had been killed,
and taken into the boat, became so furious, that she
even struck her two tusks through the bottom of the
cutter. Nor will the young one quit the dam though
she has been killed; so that if you destroy one, you are
sure of the other. The dam, when in the water, holds
her young one between her fore fins.

Why this animal should be called a sea-horse is dif-
ficult to determine, unless the word be a corruption of
the Russian name *Morse*; for they do not in the least
resemble a horse. It is, doubtless, the same animal that
is found in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and there
called a sea-cow. It is certainly more like a cow than
a horse; but this resemblance consists in nothing but
the snout. In short, it is an animal not unlike a seal,
but incomparably larger. The length of one of them,
which was none of the largest, was nine feet four
inches from the snout to the tail; the circumference of
its body at the shoulder was seven feet ten inches; its
circumference near the hinder fins was five feet six
inches; and the weight of the carcase, without the
head, skin, or entrails, was eight hundred and
fifty-four pounds. The head weighed forty-one
pounds and an half, and the skin two hundred and
five pounds.

Captain Cook's people, in a short time, began to
relish these animals, so that the whole stock they had
procured was soon expended.

THE PROVINCE OF THIBET.

THIS division of Tartary is situated in an excellent
climate, between 30 and 40 deg. of north lat. but it
is surrounded with very extensive mountains, and is
bounded, on the East, by China; on the west, by
Indostan; on the north, by the country of the Mon-
gols; and on the south by Ava. The whole country
extends in length, from east to west, upwards of 1700
miles, and the broadest part of it, from north to south,
is about 1780. It is divided into three principal parts,
namely, Great Thibet, Little Thibet, and Lassa. This
last division, being the most rich, as well as the most
plentiful province, and the residence of the grand lama,
frequently givese name to the whole country.

In general, the climate of this country is very tem-
perate and healthful; but in the western parts it is cold,
especially on the tops of the mountains. The soil is
for the most part fertile, and produces great plenty of
rice and pulse. It is particularly famous for the produce
of

of rhubarb and mulk, the latter of which is esteemed the best of any to be met with in India.

There are many rivers in Thibet, some of which produce great quantities of gold, particularly the Kin-chau-kyang, which enters the Chinese province of Yun-nan, whose name signifies the river with golden-sand: here is also the Nukyang, a very principal one; the Lantfan-kyang, which also enters Yun-nan, and flows into the kingdom of Tonquin; and the great river called Yotutian-pu, or Dian-pu.

The towns in this province are for the most part exceeding small, and very poorly inhabited; nor is even Lassa, the principal place in the country, in the least fortified. There is indeed but little occasion for fortifications here, the Tartars, in their wars, choosing rather to fight in the open fields, than to undertake sieges.

The natives of Thibet are in general a very robust and healthy people. They have an olive or tawney complexion, their noses are flat, and their faces very broad; but the women are much handsomer in their features than the men. They are naturally very indolent, and the common people in particular are exceeding filthy. The garments of both sexes are alike, consisting of a large piece of coarse cloth, fastened round the body with a girdle, and on their heads they wear a kind of bonnet, which is decorated with pieces of tortoise-shell, and other trifling baubles; but the better sort adorn them with coral, and beads of amber. Both sexes wear bracelets on their left arms, fastened with beads.

The poor people live principally on rice and pulse, though they have various kinds of flesh: they are in general very temperate in their diet; but, as they are extremely fond of spirituous liquors, will often drink to excess.

The houses of the better sort are tolerably handsome, and chiefly built of wood; but those of the common people are low, mean huts, made of stones rudely piled together.

The country of the Mogul Tartars, or Mongols, is bounded on the east by the territories of the Mantchews, the Kalkas on the west, China on the south, and by Eastern Tartary and the Kalka Tartars on the north.

Here the climate is exceedingly severe, and ice lies on the ground eight or nine months together. It is a country not very well known, except that part of it which the caravans pass in travelling from Muscovy to China.

The Bratki Tartars dwell near the Lake Baikal, many of whom are good mechanics, and others well skilled in husbandry. Some of these Bratki are people of considerable property: it is not uncommon for a man to be proprietor of five or six hundred horses, as well as of numbers of other cattle. The food of these people is venison and horse-flesh, the latter of which they prefer.

SAMOIEDA, OR, SAMOEDIA.

THIS country is situated north-west of Siberia: it is divided into Obdora on the west, and Mariano and Loppo east of the river Oby: the Riphæan mountains surrounding the river Potzor, are its western limits.

Their dwelling-places are caves, in which they live nine months in the year, and make subterraneous passages for the purpose of visiting each other. They burn lamps fed with a stinking fish-oil.

The Ostiocs live along the rivers Oby, Jenisay, &c. These people dry their fish in the summer, which serves them in the winter: they have no rice, but subsist on roots, fish, wild-fowl, &c. Their winter-huts are low in the ground, with a roof of bark or rushes; in summer, they build on the banks of the rivers, and employ themselves in fishing. Their sledges are drawn by dogs, four of which will draw a sledge with 300 pounds weight upon it, fifteen leagues in a day. What is remarkable, they have posts in this country for sledges, as regular as the posts of Europe, with relays of dogs for travellers to change on their journey at set distances: they increase the number of dogs, in proportion to the hurry a passenger is in. These people worship and offer sacrifices to small brazen idols, placed in groves, or on the tops of houses.

WESTERN TARTARY. CIRCASSIA AND ASTRACHAN.

CIRCASSIA is that country lying between the Caspian-Sea on the east; Asoph, and the Palus-Mæotis on the west; the high mountains of Caucasus on the south; and Astrachan on the north. The southern division is claimed by the Persians, the western is under the dominion of the Turks, and the eastern pays obedience to Russia.

Kizlaar is the capital of Circassia. This town being only in 44 deg. north lat. the air is consequently serene and wholesome. It was built by the Russians: the citadel is only formed of earth, but the garrison consists of about 500 regulars, and 3000 Cossacks; the latter of whom are permitted by the Russian government to erect habitations on the banks of the Terek, which flows from east to west, and affords a great variety of fish, as sturgeon, salmon, &c.

The Circassians are lovely in their features, majestic in their persons, and agreeable in their deportment. In their stature they are large, and the men make excellent soldiers.

The country abounds in wild swine, wolves, and foxes; produces vines, whose grapes are excellent, and here is a great variety of game.

Terki, the capital of Circassian Tartary, is seated in a spacious plain, on an island formed by the rivers Terki and Bustrow, and is garrisoned by 2000 regulars, and 1000 Cossacks.

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west of Siberia; in the Rhipæan mountains, in which they live in subterraneous passages. They bury their dead in Oby, Jenifay, &c. in summer, which serves for rice, but subsist in winter-huts are low of rushes; in some places are drawn by dogs with 300 pounds weight a day. What is necessary for sledges, with relays of dogs for conveyance at great distances, in proportion to the people worship and are placed in groves, or

TARTARY.

ASTRACHAN.

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Tartary, is seated in the valley by the rivers Terek, 2000 regulars, and 1000 Cossacks.

300 Cossacks. It is well fortified with ramparts and bastions in the modern style, well stored with cannon, and has always a considerable garrison in it, under the command of a governor. The Circassian prince, who resides here, is allowed 500 Russians for his guard, but one of his own subjects are permitted to dwell within the city, for the fortifications. Ever since the reduction of these parts to the obedience of Russia, they have put all places of strength, not only Russian garrisons and governors, but magistrates, and priests for the exercise of the Christian religion: yet the Circassian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords, and judges; but these administer justice in the name of the emperor, and in matters of importance, not without the presence of the Russian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to his imperial majesty.

This city has a great number of serpents about it, which make holes in the ground that are extremely dangerous. These serpents are about six or seven feet in length, and about the thickness of a man's arm. There are likewise mice as large as squirrels, which are called Jeruab. Their ears are long, and their fore-feet shorter than those behind, which prevents their running swiftly; they, however, can leap to a considerable height or distance, by laying their tail over their backs.

The kingdom of ASTRACHAN lies between 44 deg. 30 min. and 52 deg. north latitude; the longitude east is 44 deg. 30 min. being bounded on the east by the country of the Cossacks; on the north, by the kingdom of Kazan, and part of Siberia; and towards the South, by Circassia. The eastern boundaries being deserts very little known and uninhabited, cannot be ascertained.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages of Astrachan, are perfectly similar with those of the Tartars of Kafon. In the city of Astrachan, they have a large magazine for goods, built of brick, and several shops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, and Bukharians; and manufacture Morocco-leather, cottons, camblets, and silks.

The metropolis, called also Astrachan, is built upon an island in the Volga, known by the name of the Isle of Hares. It is in 46 deg. 13 min. north latitude, and 48 deg. east longitude. This city is commonly supposed to contain 100,000 inhabitants. It abounds in well-stocked magazines, and hath a citadel surrounded by a thick brick wall, of about thirty feet in height; though this citadel, which lies towards the west of the city, is regularly built, the bastions are strong, and the cannons numerous. Here is a palace for the governor, and another for the archbishop. In the court of chancery, all civil and military affairs are heard and adjusted, and the records are kept. The citadel hath three gates, one opens to the city, another to the Volga, and the third to the Tartar suburbs. It contains likewise a guard-house, a metropolitan-church, and a monastery.

This city is surrounded by a wall, between which and the houses is a large intermediate space, upon which none are permitted to build. It consists principally of three long streets from east to west, which are intersected by many others, and is upon the whole about a mile in length. The houses are built of timber, the suburbs are extensive, and more populous than the city. There are four churches and a monastery belonging to those of the Greek persuasion. The reformers have a church built of wood; the Roman Catholics have a monastery, and the Armenians a church of stone. Without the suburbs, are a naval and military-hospital, and a large monastery.

No Tartar is permitted to stay all night in the city. Armenian and Russian merchants inhabit the eastern suburbs, and the Indians are permitted to live in guarded Caravan-seras.

Astrachan is garrisoned by five regiments of infantry, and one of dragoons; many field-regiments and Cossacks, exclusive of the Tartar militia, winter here, besides the garrison itself.

The use of the regulars is to march against the wild Tartars whenever they attempt to make any incursions into this kingdom, and the irregulars are employed to scour the deserts, in order to trace out the lurking-places of the banditti.

The commerce of Astrachan consists chiefly in silks, brocades, velvets, satins, drugs, copper, cotton, Persian fruits, wines, sweetmeats, &c. which they import; and in return, export meal, fish, salt, woolen, &c. All naval and military stores are prohibited from being exported to Persia.

The Russians, who compose a principal part of the inhabitants, are in the chief offices of state. The Georgians, who profess the Greek religion, are fond of serving in the army; and the Armenians, who, in person, disposition, and features, very much resemble the Jews, have no other object but scraping money together by means of traffic. As for the Persian and Tartar inhabitants, they are too fond of indolence and roving to think of any thing else, unless compelled to it by absolute necessity. Their huts, which are about twelve feet in diameter, are formed of canes or bulrushes, at the top of which a hole is made to let out the smoke: their fuel is turf, or cow-dung.

The soil is light and sandy, but so much impregnated with salt, as greatly adds to its sterility. The earth produces no grain, unless it has been overflowed during the winter season. Its natural productions are reeds, liquorice, kal, guristar-aculeata, the herb astrachania-nitratia, &c. The inhabitants likewise raise melons and pumpions, which they eat with bread. The wine made of their grapes is too sharp, which proceeds from the salt of the earth, though their grapes are fine, and delicious to the taste. The mulberries are unwholesome, but the garden vegetables tolerably good.

C H A P. IX.

SIBERIA, INCLUDING KALMUCK AND
USBECK-TARTARY.

SIBERIA extends from 50 to 68 deg. north lat. and is bounded on the west by Russia, from which it is separated by the mountains of Werkhotauria, which extend from Mount Caucasus, and divide Asia from Europe quite to the Frozen-Ocean, which bounds it on the north; on the east it is bounded by the Japanese-Ocean, and part of Tartary; and on the south, by the same. It is upwards of 3000 miles in length, from east to west, and about 760 in breadth. The southern is the only part fit for human beings to live in: here the climate is mild, and the soil appears as if it would be fertile, if cultivated. The northern part exhibits nothing but impenetrable woods, snow-topt mountains, fens, lakes, marshes, &c. and is withal so much exposed to the bleak winds, that it is quite barren and desolate. To these dreary regions, the czars of Muscovy banish their courtiers and other great persons who incur their displeasure.

The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors.

Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis-lazuli, and loadstones. Naturalists have long disputed, whether a substance found there, resembling elephants-teeth, are really such, or whether they are a marine production: when polished with art and skill, their appearance is certainly whimsical and curious.

A great variety of animals range the forests of Siberia, 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. This territory may also be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables, and ermines, the skins of which are superior to those of any other part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty, and may be had cheap.

Tobolski, the capital, is situated in 58 deg. north lat. and 67 deg. east long. from London, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants, almost all Russians, or naturalized. The city is divided into two parts; the larger being situated on the banks of the river Irtyz, and the other upon a hill. This part is fortified, both east and north, by a rampart, ballions, and a ditch six feet broad, bordered with palisadoes.

This city has a governor, whose prerogative reaches almost all over Siberia: here too is a court of equity, composed of fifteen counsellors, who conduct both civil and military affairs. In the lower town are seven churches, and a convent built of stone; and there are

three different communications from the upper to the lower town. It has a garrison, consisting of two regiments of infantry. A considerable traffic was once carried on between this place and the Chinese, by means of caravans; but the reciprocal knavery of the Chinese and Russian merchants reduced it in a short time to a very languishing state.

The KALMUCKS are the inhabitants of a prodigious desert, which lies between the rivers Don and Volga. These people are continually roving about; in the winter, they usually reside on the borders of Circassia; they proceed northerly in the spring, and return back again at the latter end of autumn. They never cultivate any land, their only riches being their flocks and cattle, on whose account they principally roam about in search of fresh pasture. Their temporary habitations are huts, covered with reeds, rushes, or felt.

These people are divided into different hordes, each of which hath its chief, but all are subject to one foreign, called khan, who has an agent or envoy at Atrachan.

USBECK-TARTARY is situated between the Great Mogul's dominions, which bound it on the south, and the Caspian-Sea, which, with Persia, are the western confines. It has the country of the Kalmucks on the north, and Thibet towards the east.

The country of Usbeck-Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis or Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world.

The Usbecks are generally esteemed the most civilized of all the Mahometan Tartars; not but they can pillage and rob their neighbours as well as any other Tartarian tribe. They nearly resemble the Persians in their dress, their boots, which are uncommonly large, excepted: the chiefs wear a plume of feathers on their turban, and as well as their khan, pride themselves much on being the descendants of the renowned Tamerlane.

Their common food is pilau, or boiled rice, but their greatest delicacy is horse-flesh. They drink a kind of arrack, or fermented liquor, made of mare's-milk: Their language is a mixture of the Turkish, Persian, and Mongol; but they are well acquainted with the Persian language in its purity.

The capital of this country is called Bukharia, and lies in 39 deg. 15 min. north latitude, at the distance of thirteen miles from the once famous city of Samarcand. It is surrounded by a mud wall; the houses are built of wood, but the mosque and caravanferas are of brick. It is tolerably populous, but not equal to what it was formerly. The khan is permitted to seize upon the property of whom he pleases, which damps the spirit of cultivation, and greatly injures commerce.

Lassa is a small city, but the houses, which are of stone, are spacious and lofty.

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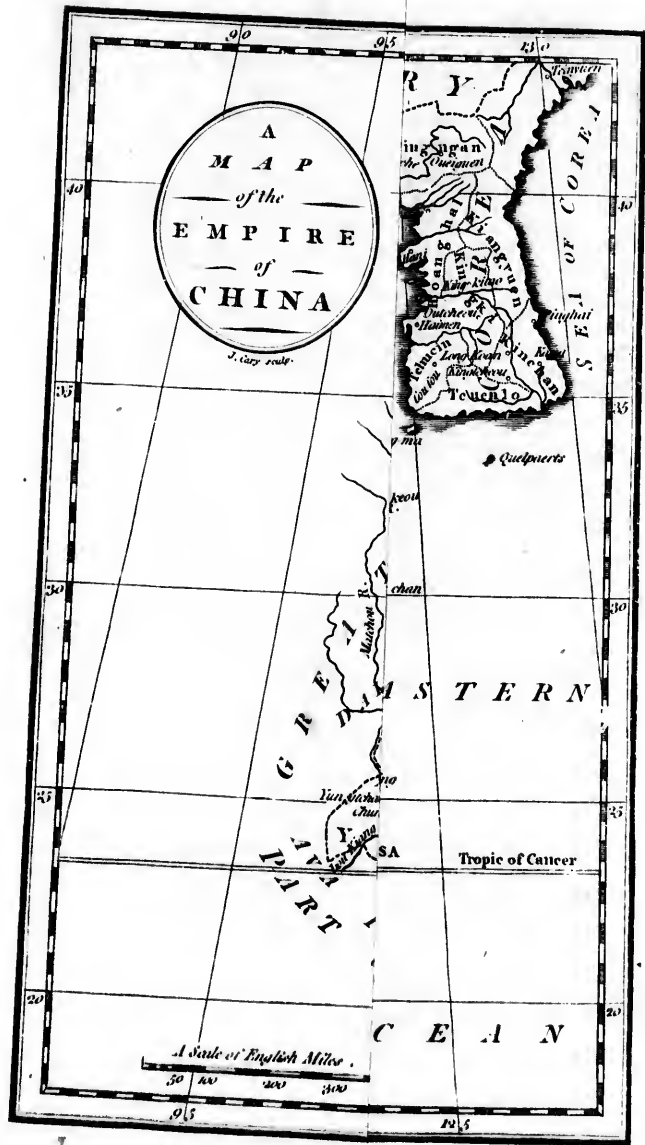
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The city of Derbent, situated on the Caspian shore, is called the frontier of Persia. It is said to have been the first built by Alexander the Great, and that he here received the visit from the Amazonian queen Thalestris. It is now enclosed with a strong broad wall, built with large square stones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucasus.

Tarku is the capital of Dagestan, and contains three thousand horses, two stories high, platformed at top for walking. The Tartars of this province are numerous and Mahometans, governed by a shekhal, whose office is elective.

With respect to commerce and manufactures, we must confess that this head makes but an inconsiderable figure in the description of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in cattle, skins, beavers, rhubarb, mink, and fish. The Atrachais, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic into Persia, to which they export red leather, woollen, and linen cloth, and some of the manufactures of Europe.

We shall conclude our account of this country with some few particulars concerning its inhabitants, who are generally allowed to be the descendants of Japhet.

Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing numbers who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts once resided, are now scenes of horror and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by the victorious Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, and their descendants; for nothing is more common in their histories, than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days. Some authors indeed have absurdly questioned the veracity of the historians of these great conquerors, though it be better established than that of the Greek and Roman writers. The former, about the year 1200, made himself master of those regions which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son, Batou Sagin, made himself master of the southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. Long and heavily did the Tartar yoke gall the neck of Russia, till alleviated by the divisions amongst themselves: but they were not delivered from these warlike invaders till the time of Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1462. He repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan and other provinces, and made his name respected in all that quarter. Tamerlane's memory hath been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkish emperor, Bajazet, hath been before noticed in the history of that nation, and great were his conquests, and his name far beyond the limits of his proper dominions. His de-

scendant is claimed not only by all the khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the Emperor of Indostan himself.

It may not be amiss to mention, that, among the Tartars, the standard or colours of the respective tribes form a distinct mark, whereby each Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. These marks of distinction consist of a piece of Chinese linen, or other coloured stuff, suspended on a lance twelve feet in length, among the Pagan Tartars. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their standards the name of God, in the Arabic language. The Kalmucks and the Mogul Tartars, distinguish theirs by the name of some animal; and as the branches or divisions of a tribe preserve always the figure drawn upon the standard of that tribe, adding only the particular denomination of each branch, those standards answer the purpose of a genealogical table or tree, by which the origin and descent of each individual may be ascertained.

The khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependence upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of the utmost consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independence; and, when united, they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese, of which we shall give some account in the description of that empire.

The method of carrying on war, by wasting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them, from the Danube eastward. This circumstance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of all subsistence, while the Tartars are at no loss for provisions, having always many spare horses to kill and eat.

CHAP. X.

C H I N A.

Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Produce, Rivers, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS vast and opulent empire, is 1450 miles in length, and 1260 in breadth, and is situated between 20 and 42 deg. north lat. and between 98 and 123 east long: it contains 1,110,000 square miles, to which if we add Chinese Tartary, containing 644,000, the whole will amount to 1,754,000.

China is bounded by the Chinese Tartary, and an amazing stone wall, on the north; by the Pacific-Ocean, which divides it from North-America, on the east; by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Russia, on the west; and by the Chinese Sea, on the south.

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the great division of this empire is into fifteen provinces, exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situated without the great wall, though under the same dominion; each of which might, for their largeness, fertility, populousness, and opulence, pass for so many distinct kingdoms. But it is necessary to acquaint the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of jesuits, and other religious sent thither by the pope, but whose missions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of procuring information about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are justly to be suspected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and successes, as well as the importance of the Chinese empire, so that their exaggerated accounts ought to be read with great caution.

The name of this empire is probably derived from a Chinese word, signifying central or middle; for the natives, till they were convinced to the contrary by the European mathematicians, fancied that the world was flat; and that their country not only occupied the best part, but lay exactly in the middle.

China is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains except to the north, where those which separate it from Tartary are craggy, steep, and almost inaccessible; but many hills are scattered throughout the whole empire, which in general are cultivated by the admirable contrivances and indefatigable industry of the natives. Numbers of these are, with infinite labour, cut into the most whimsical figures, so as to resemble, at a distance, elephants, camels, leopards, bears, tigers, &c.

The principal rivers are, 1. the Hoambo, or Yellow-River, so called from being tinged with a yellow colour, owing to the peculiar quality of the soil through which it flows. It rises towards the frontiers of Indostan, in the intermediate mountains between Tartary and the province of Szechan, and after pursuing a winding-course of near 1900 miles, it falls into the eastern ocean: this river is exceedingly rapid. 2. The Ky-am, or Blue-River, rises in Thibet, flows from east to west, and disembogues itself into the Eastern Ocean: it is remarkably broad and deep. 3. The Bloody-River, so called from the redness of its sand. 4. The Pearl-River, so denominated, on account of the number of precious stones found among its gravel. 5. A river near Somin, which in harvest-time turns blue, when its waters give an admirable tinge of that colour. 6. A river near Pengau, whose waters are so thin, that even timber will sink in them. 7. A seventh, in the neighbourhood of Ching-tien, the waters of which are odoriferous. 8. The Kin-xa, which contains gold-sand. 9. The Xo, of a medicinal quality, on which account many flock to its banks for the cure of

various disorders. 10. The river, near the city Hang-chen, which annually, on a certain day, rises to an astonishing height; a phenomenon not yet accounted for either by Asiatic or European philosophers. By these rivers, and the canals, the people are plentifully supplied with excellent fish in the greatest variety.

The chief bays of this country, are those of Nankin and Canton.

The canals of this mighty empire are perhaps the most useful and stupendous works that ever the imagination of man conceived, or the exertion of human industry executed, and are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of being the wisest and most industrious people in the world. The commodiousness and length of them is incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn-stone on the sides; and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above 1000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be obtained by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render China the most delightful to the eye of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature. Innumerable bridges pass over these canals, the centre arches of which are sufficiently high to admit of a vessel passing without lowering the mast.

Though no country is better fitted than China for producing timber of all kinds, yet such is the industry of the inhabitants, that they are not incumbered with forests or woods. They suffer no timber to grow, but for ornament and use, or on the side of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed by water to any place.

The air of China differs according to the situation of the places. Towards the north, it is sharp; in the middle, mild; and in the south, hot. The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful in every thing that can administer either to the necessities, conveniences, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description. The rare trees and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to itself.

Gardening is placed in China at the head of the sciences: the profession is honourable; the professors men of the greatest abilities; and a kind of degree is taken, ere they can be admitted to practise this most ancient and most useful art. But, for all their skill,

they are unacquainted with the art of meliorating the soil, which accretions of sand, gravel, and leas of principal trees are a kind of date-fruit that resembles the pea of Europe yields excellent is, half cypress berries of which overcomes those which is of two chiu; the former is so much admired latter bears a nut furnishes a variety size-tree, yields admirable use it much admired by of all their carp ponds in their g pleading of any, peculiar respect tree has red leav contrast, and gr the kernels; wh candles are mad and the light rai riodically covere its branches thin yew-trees yield f and the product sweetmeat.

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They are unacquainted with the nature of grafting trees, or of meliorating the earth where they are planted; on which account the fruit in general is of an inferior flavour, and less delicious than the European fruit. The principal trees are orange, lemon, and citron; the li-tchi, a kind of date-tree; the pea-tree, which produces a fruit that resembles, and is as delicate to the taste, as the pea of Europe; the meal-tree, the pulp of which yields excellent flour; the hermaphrodite-tree, which is half cypress and half juniper; the pepper-tree, the berries of which are so strong, that the smell frequently overcomes those that pluck them; the varnish-tree, which is of two species, viz. the tsi-chu, and the tong-chu; the former produces that admirable varnish, which is so much admired in most parts of the universe; the latter bears a nut, from which an oil is extracted, that furnishes a varnish of an inferior kind: the kou-chu, or size-tree, yields a matter resembling milk, which is of admirable use in gilding: the weeping willow-tree is much admired by the Chinese, who plant it on the sides of all their canals and rivers, and near most of the ponds in their gardens. They deem its shade the most pleasing of any, and their pastoral poets mention it with peculiar respect in all their compositions. The tallow-tree has red leaves and white fruit, which form a lively contrast, and greatly please the eye of the beholder: of the kernels, which have all the properties of tallow, candles are made; the flame is yellow, the smell strong, and the light rather dim. The white wax-tree is periodically covered with swarms of insects, who leave on its branches thin threads of wax. The mango and long-yea-trees yield fine fruits, that serve as delicate pickles, and the produce of the tse-tse-tree is an admirable sweetmeat.

The polomic-tree, which is not peculiar to China alone, bears the largest fruit in the world, the kernel of which is delicious when roasted, and makes an admired dish when dressed in cocoa-nut milk; but the most singular particular of this tree is, that the fruit grows from the trunk of the tree, and not from the branches, which, indeed, would not be able to sustain it.

The wood of the iron-tree is so hard, that whatever is made of it is exceedingly durable; of this, anchors are formed, and the Chinese affirm, that they are more lasting than those that are made of the metal from which the tree receives its name.

The tset-ham is admired for the beauty of its wood, which is of an admirable red, beautifully variegated with fine veins, which produce such an effect, that it seems to the eye to be elegantly painted.

The bamboo, or cane-tree, is pretty high and thick, the bud has an excellent flavour, and the pith is fine eating; it grows in marshy grounds, is used in buildings, and the tubes are often converted into water-pipes; baskets are fabricated of its splinters, and when it grows old and rotten, the Chinese reduce it to a paste, of which paper is made. Here is likewise a reed, of which not only baskets and mats are made, but ropes, pack-

thread, &c. The nan-mu-tree, however, furnishes the principal wood for the purposes of building; nevertheless, they have oak, pine, sanders-wood, ebony, camphire, &c.

But one of the most remarkable and profitable productions of this country, is the tea-tree; and this being almost as generally used at present in many parts of Europe as in China, we shall be the more particular in our description of it. All the various kinds of tea are produced by the same sort of shrub, only the leaves are gathered at different periods; indeed the soil where the tea-tree grows, makes some little difference in the flavour of the leaves: its taste is bitter, and its qualities astringent; the little oil it contains is resinous, and its salt fixed; it purifies, dilutes, invigorates the brain and stomach, promotes digestion, perspiration, &c. The Chinese use it in fevers, cholics, and other acute disorders, chronic diseases, scorbutic habits, &c. Its virtues are not local, though they are perhaps more efficacious in China than other places.

The general division of teas is into two sorts, viz. green and bohea; but these are again distinguished by other appellations, according to the time of gathering, province where produced, or method of curing: as congo, fouchong, singlo, bloom, imperial, hyson, &c. &c. the singlo is deemed the most delicate, and the bohea the most wholesome: the bohea is gathered in March, the imperial in April, the singlo in May, and the green in June. After the leaves are first plucked, persons are employed to infuse them for a certain time in water, by which the resinous particles are dissipated, and they are rendered palatable; for without such a preparatory prelude, they would be so exceedingly bitter, that scarce any quantity of sugar would prove sufficient to correct the taste, or render them agreeable to the palate; after infusion, the bohea, which is made of the leaves when in maturity, is dried by the fire, or in the sun; but the green, after being exposed for a short space to the rays of the sun, and assiduously turned and stirred about the whole time, is strewn upon sheets of copper (which are gently warmed by embers beneath them) and rolled up and down by proper persons, whose hands are defended by thick leather gloves from the effluvia, which would, without such precaution, prove of the most pernicious consequence.

The tea receives the principal part of its green tincture, and fine flavour, from the baleful vapours that exhale from the heated copper; yet these very circumstances, that should render it obnoxious, are its principal recommendations, not only with the Europeans, but the Asiatics; who are so infatuated, as to please the eye and gratify the palate at the expence of their constitutions; and to prefer the unwholesome green to the more salubrious bohea. Green is considerably dearer than bohea, on account of the greater trouble in preparing it, which is already mentioned, and because when the young leaves are plucked, the tree receives so much injury, that it is allowed two

or three years to regain its strength and vigour, during which time, the leaves that accidentally fall, are gathered up and converted into bohea. Mr. Bell, however, the latest traveller who hath given us any authentic account of China, affirms, that the bohea, in curing, is mixed with another herb; this is probably only an adulteration, of which the Chinese, who are exceedingly avaricious, and practised in every artifice to defraud, may be justly suspected.

Dr. Quincy calls tea the most salubrious of all vegetables that were ever introduced into food or medicine; and Dr. Cheyne recommends green-tea as a fine diluter; while Dr. James, on the contrary, says, "Whatever virtues are ascribed to tea, or however useful it may be in China, it is very certain that either the tea, or the water, or both, are extremely prejudicial, as an habitual drink in England;" but, with submission to these great physicians, we rather think they have carried their respective opinions too much into extremes. Tea hath, doubtless, many of the virtues which the Chinese ascribe to it, without being an universal medicine, as Doctor Quincy would have us believe; it may likewise have its bad qualities, without being so exceedingly pernicious as Doctor James would persuade us. Besides, if we consider the probable adulterations of the Chinese merchants, and our own domestic dealers, with the virtues it may lose in the voyage, and by the length of time it lays by previous to consumption, it is natural to conclude, that the latter gentleman drew his inferences, not from the effects of the genuine, but of a spurious and adulterated kind of tea.

The Chinese drink their tea without sugar, though the latter, as well as the former, is a produce of their country, and exceedingly cheap. The very best green tea is sold at Peking at the rate of two shillings English per pound; and it is observable, that the tea-tree degenerates when transplanted, even in countries under the same parallel of latitude. The Dutch dry and prepare sage as tea is in China; of which the Chinese are so fond, that they give four pounds of the latter for one of the former.

The culture of this plant seems to be very simple; and it is certain that some kinds are of a much higher and more delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the finest, which is the flower of the tea, is imported over-land to Russia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body.

The Portuguese, it is supposed, had the use of tea long before the English; but it was introduced among the latter before the restoration, as mention of it is made in the first act of parliament, that settled the exercise on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the use of it common at court.

The ginseng (a native of Chinese Tartary) so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in British Ame-

rica. 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, penned by the jesuits, are to be read. It grows in moist grounds, is many years maturing, has small leaves, pointing upwards, a bluish flower, and, when dried, is of a greyish cast. Several other vegetables of a medicinal nature are also found in China, particularly rhubarb, ton-ling, or China-root; the tihohang, a restorative; the fant-li, a purifier; and tobacco.

Naturalists affirm, that China produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. They procure gold, which is the natural produce of the country, by gathering the larger particles which are washed down the rivers, catching the smaller by means of sieves, or searching for what accidentally sticks in the banks. They have also gold mines; but as one of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government, is, that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry, these are therefore but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sands of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan. The mountains are stored with iron, copper, quicksilver, lead, white copper, or tutenage, which the natives call pe-tong, loadstones, pit-coal, salts of various kinds, and quarries of stone, particularly marble, many veins of which are finely variegated with landscapes; and some of the other stones, when burnt, produce a metal of which they make excellent swords, and other weapons.

The meadows and pastures are fat and rich, and feed prodigious quantities of cattle.

No country is better furnished with horses, the breed of which, though small, hath been greatly improved by the introduction of the Tartarian, Arabian, and Persian.

Here are likewise great numbers of oxen, buffaloes, swine, game, &c. Their tygers are exceedingly fierce and dangerous, for they search for their prey in droves, and when pressed by hunger, will enter villages, and attack the inhabitants with great fury.

The bears in China naturally walk upon their hind-legs, have faces resembling those of monkeys, long beards, and great sagacity: they are taught a variety of tricks, and are rendered very entertaining by the address of their tutors. The Chinese camel is about the bigness of a middle-sized horse, of a dun or ash colour; it is well made, and has two bunches upon its back. Here are no lions, and but few elephants, but many rhinoceroses and wild boars: stags also, and hares are in great plenty. The dwarf stag is a great curiosity, being in form exactly like a stag, and in size no bigger than a dog: this is accounted a domestic animal, as few persons of any consideration are without them in their houses or gardens. The musk-cat is likewise found here, from a bag under the navel of which is taken that noble perfume called musk, which

Asia.] makes a valuable wild mules can serviceable; they their flesh is

With respect accounts inform us fifty-eight million

work published man, the Tartary) is settled inhabitants to every number, one-fourth

public taxes; and such. Notwith their amazing in of provisions. A

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who are not much complexioned; the nails of the length, to shew labour.

As to the Chinese plump rosy lips delicate though their feet is red and no swathing

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makes a valuable article of Chinese commerce. Their
wild mules can never be so far broken as to become
serviceable; they are therefore only caught to be killed,
as their flesh is a delicacy.

With respect to the population of China, some ac-
counts inform us, that there are in this vast empire
fifty-eight millions of inhabitants; and all between
twenty and sixty years of age pay an annual tax; but in
a work published at Berlin in 1786, by Professor Herr-
mann, the population of China (including Chinese
Tartary) is settled at 104,096,254 souls, allowing 946
inhabitants to every square mile. Of this amazing
number, one-fourth part, he says, contributes to the
public taxes; and the army is computed at one-seven-
tieth. Notwithstanding the industry of the people,
their amazing increase frequently occasions a scarcity
of provisions. As next to being barren, they count it
the greatest scandal to bring females into the world;
therefore if a woman of a poor family happens to have
three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently hap-
pens that she will expose them on the high roads, or
cast them into a river, which they are allowed to do;
but then they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may
float on the water; and there are often compassionate
people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the
children, to save them from death.

The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized,
their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their
noses rather short. The Chinese have particular ideas
of beauty: they pluck up the hairs of the lower part
of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few
straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes
compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and,
like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown.
Their complexion towards the north, is fair; towards
the south, swarthy; and the fatter a man is, they think
him the handsomer. Men of quality and learning,
who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately
complexioned; and they who are bred to letters, let
the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous
length, to shew that they are not employed in manual
labour.

As to the Chinese women, they 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 so swathing is omitted, from their earliest age, to
give them that unnatural accomplishment; so that
when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather
than to walk. This absurd custom is said by some to
have been invented by the ancient Chinese to palliate
their jealousy, by restraining women from visiting, and
rambling abroad too much.

It would give little information, and less amusement
to the reader, were we to enter into all the ridiculous
formalities of the Chinese, especially of their men of
quality, when paying or receiving visits; and this very
probably would come too late, as the manners of the

Chinese, since they fell under the power of the Tar-
tars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is suffi-
cient to observe, that the legislators of China, looking
upon submission and subordination as the corner-stones
of all society, devised those outward marks of respect,
ridiculous as they appear to us, as the test of duty and
respect from inferiors to superiors; and their capital
maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility,
was void of good sense.

From the general mode of behaviour, and the com-
pliments used by the Chinese on every occasion, they
seem to be a polite and affable people: but view them;
independent of the ceremonials prescribed by law, and
they will appear to be the most dishonest, low, thieving
set in the world, employing their natural quickness
only to improve the arts of cheating the European na-
tions they deal with, especially the English: but it has
been remarked, that none but a Chinese can over-reach
a Chinese. They are fond of law-disputes beyond any
people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without
bounds; and the men of property among them prac-
tise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meannesses,
to obtain preferment. It should however be remem-
bered, that some of the late accounts of China have
been drawn up by those who were little acquainted
with any part of that empire, but the sea-port towns,
in which they probably met with many knavish and
designing people. Some of the jesuit missionaries seem
to have too much extolled the Chinese, who are, on
the other hand, too much degraded by later writers.
Upon the whole, it seems not just to attempt to char-
acterise a great nation by a few unfavourable in-
stances, though well attested; and we appear not to be
sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China,
to form an accurate judgment of the manners and char-
acters of the inhabitants.

The dress of the Chinese varies according to the de-
grees among them. The men wear caps on their
heads, of the fashion of a bell; those of quality are
ornamented with jewels: the rest of their dress is easy
and loose, consisting of a vest and sash, a coat or gown
thrown over them, silk boots, quilted with cotton, and
a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the south wear
nothing on their head; sometimes their hair is drawn
up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled: their dress
differs but little from that of the men, only their gown
or upper garment has very large open sleeves. The
dress, both of men and women, varies, however, ac-
cording to the temperature of the climate. On paying
a visit, they envelope themselves entirely with a blue
silk loose habit, which they cover with a black or pur-
ple cloak, that reaches to the mid-leg, they usually
wear a scymetar by their side, and carry a fan in their
hand, but never forget the silk buskins which cover
their pink stockings. Elderly women generally dress
in black or purple, but the youthful in whatever col-
ours they please, except yellow, which none but the
royal family are permitted to wear.

Marriages in China are concluded on by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children, who never see each other till the day of their nuptials; and though in other countries it is the custom for women to bring portions to their husbands, here husbands pay a sum of money to the parents of the bride, which is generally laid out in clothes, &c. for her: then follow certain ceremonies, the chief of which consist in the relations on both sides sending to demand the name of the intended bridegroom and bride, and in making them presents. The relations of the bride, who fix the day of the nuptials, frequently consult the calendar for a fortunate day; mean-while the man sends his intended bride some jewels, pendants, and the like; at least this is the custom among the rich. When the nuptials are ratified, the bride goes among the ladies, and spends the day with them, while the bridegroom treats his friends in a separate apartment, and at night the couple repair to bed.

No man, except the emperor, can marry more than one wife; he however has the privilege of taking as many concubines into his house as he pleases, but these must be obedient to the wife, and treat her as their mistress, though the children are not deemed bastards, but share the father's estate in common with those of the lawful wife, who permits them to style her mother, and treats them as the does her own children. The emperor has three wives, and about 3000 concubines.

As to the funerals of these people, a great personage is always buried with a peculiar solemnity and pomp: they first wash the corpse, and after embalming it, dress it in the richest robes, and then expose it to view in a raised alcove, before which the wives, children, relations, and friends prostrate themselves: near the coffin, stands an image of the deceased, or else some carved work, with his name in large characters, and with flowers, perfumes, and flambeaux. The coffin is made of precious wood, varnished and gilt. People of note, and even some of the poorer sort, will have their coffins made in their life-time. Before the corpse is put into the coffin, a quantity of lime is strewed at the bottom of it. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table or altar, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great-grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is substituted.

The mourning of the Chinese is white, which is worn three years for a parent; wives mourn three years for their husbands, but husbands only one year for their wives. Children, mourning for their parents, wear coarse white cloth the first year, a better sort the second year, and the third year white silk if they please. The first hundred days are spent in solitude, lamentation, and abstinence; and during the whole period of their mourning, they are forced to refrain from holding

any public employment; even a mandarin quits all business on such an occasion.

The two principal public festivals or rejoicings in China, are celebrated, one in the beginning, and the other about the middle of January. The former is kept in visiting, sealing, making presents, &c. that of the middle of the month, is called the Feast of the Lanterns.

The Chinese language contains only 336 words, all of one syllable; but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could easily be imagined, and enables them to express themselves very well on the common occasions of life. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language, being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature, and therefore their literature is all comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous: according to some of their writers, they amount to 25,000, to 50 or 40,000 according to others; but the later writers say, they amount to 80,000; though he is reckoned a very learned man who is master of 15 or 20,000. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as spoken, the latter hath still continued in its original, rude, uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvements.

As a specimen of the Chinese language, we shall gratify the curiosity of our readers with a copy of an original poem, in praise of tea, composed by the reigning emperor of China, Kien-long, and published by authority.

THE CHINESE EMPEROR'S POEM.

Mei-hoa chéé pou yao	Fou fou teou lo ty,
Po-cheou hiang t'ic Kie,	Ho ho yun kiang t'che
Sauu-che ou ei fang ny;	Ou-t'ueu y ko-t'ian,
Sou pin tchou t'ing Koué;	Lin-fou chang ché pié.
Peng y t'ché kio tang,	Lau kou t'chao-t'cheou gan
Ou t'ché t'cheng koang hiné	Pó siao Yu-t'chouan Kiu,
Houé hean pien yu hié,	Han siao ting f'ing leou
Ting yen y cheng mié;	Kou yue kan hien fat,
Yué irgueu po sien jou,	Joan pao t'chin ki yu,
Tau lou ty t'chan yué,	T'fias king sing ou kie,
Ou yun king tai pan	Kien-loag ping yu
Kouou pou ko ch'oué.	Siao t'chun yu ty.

A modern writer observes, that the Chinese characters, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally irritative; they still partake so much of their

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OR'S POEM.

fou teou lo ty,
 ho yun kiang tche
 fsem y ko-fan,
 fou chang che pie.
 kou Tchao-tcheon ga
 ao Yu-tchouan Kiu,
 fiao ting sing leou
 yue kan huen fer,
 pao tchin ki yu,
 king sing ou kie,
 loag ping yu
 tchun yu ty.

their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not com-
 bine into words like letters or marks for sounds; but
 we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third
 for a dog, and in short a separate and distinct mark for
 each thing which hath a corporeal form. The Chinese
 do use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic
 nature, to impress on the eye the conceptions of the
 mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do
 not combine these last marks into words, like marks for
 sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to repre-
 sent or stand for each idea, and they use them in the
 same manner as they do their abridged picture-charac-
 ters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese do not write with a reed like the Ara-
 bians, or with a crayon like the Siamese, or with a
 pen like the Europeans; but with an hair-pencil. They
 make use of a piece of polished marble, hollowed at one
 end to hold water, wherein they dip their slick of ink,
 and then gently rubbing it, there is in a few moments
 produced a fluid ink. They do not hold their pencils
 obliquely as we do our pens, but perpendicular to the
 paper: they write from top to bottom in columns, and
 begin their books where ours end; that is, they begin
 at the right-hand side of the paper, and proceed to the
 left, like the Hebrews: but their paper being very thin,
 it will not bear writing on both sides of it. Sometimes
 the title is placed horizontally, and this is likewise read
 from the right-hand.

They lay claim to the invention of printing at least
 four hundred years before it was practised by the Euro-
 peans; but that can only be applied to block-printing;
 and their method is not at all like ours.

The genius and learning of the Chinese is peculiar
 to themselves. They have no conception of what is
 beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural
 in painting; and yet in their gardening, and planning
 their grounds, they hit upon the true sublime and beau-
 tiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic
 with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Euro-
 peans. Till the latter came among them, they were
 ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depend-
 ing arts. They had no proper apparatus for astron-
 omical observations; and the metaphysical learning,
 which existed among them, was confined to their phi-
 losophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits
 were of very short duration among them, and lasted
 very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was
 contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very prob-
 able they ever will be revived.

The progress of the Chinese erudition is greatly re-
 tard by the difficulty of mastering and retaining such
 a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are
 in what may be called their written language. But
 there is no part of the globe where learning is attended
 with such honours and rewards, and where there are
 more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it.
 The literati are revered as men of another species,
 and are the only nobility known in China. If their

birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins
 of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their
 learning. On the other hand, how exalted soever their
 birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obs-
 curity, if they neglect those studies which raised their
 fathers; since there is no nation in the world where the
 first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the
 people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness.

The Chinese range all their works of literature in
 four classes. The first is the class of Kings, or the sac-
 red books, which contains the principles of the Chi-
 nese religion, morality, and government, and several
 curious and obscure records, relative to these important
 subjects. History forms a class apart; yet, in the first
 class, there are placed some historical monuments on
 account of their relation to religion and government,
 and among others the Tekun-theou, a work of Con-
 fucius, 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 the Tsi, or
 Tse, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and
 contains the works of the Chinese literati, the produc-
 tions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chi-
 nese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions,
 and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, phys-
 ic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture,
 and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth class
 is called Tcie, or Miscellanies, and contains all the
 poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence,
 their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies.

The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their mo-
 narchy, have applied themselves less to the study of
 nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy,
 than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life,
 and internal polity and manners. It is said, that it
 was not before the dynasty of the Long, in the tenth
 and eleventh centuries after Christ, that the Chinese
 philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the natural
 system of the universe, and entered into discussions of
 a scholastic kind; and this was perhaps in consequence
 of the intercourse they had long maintained with the
 learned among the Arabians, who, studied assiduously
 the works of Aristotle; and the progress of the Chi-
 nese in natural philosophy has been much inferior to
 that of the Europeans, since they have begun to pay
 some attention to that science.

The Chinese have justly claimed the invention of
 gunpowder, which they made use of against Zinghis
 Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known
 nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been only
 acquainted with the cannon, which they call the
 fire-pan.

Their industry and ingenuity in the manufactures of
 porcelain, silks, stuffs, japanning, and the like fed-
 erary trades, is amazing, and can be equalled only by
 their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling
 mountains, raising gardens, &c.

The Chinese porcelain, which they call Tse-ki, is made of the Pe-tun-tse and Kao-lin, the former of which is a fine white earth, and the latter an earthy kind of stone with bright particles like those of silver. After they have washed and purged the stone from its stony and fossil matter, they break it into pieces with hammers in mortars, and with stone pestles reduce it to a fine powder. These pestles, which are capped with iron, are worked perpetually, either by man's labour, or by means of water, in the same manner as the hammers of paper-mills. The powder is put into a vessel, and briskly stirred about; when, after it has rested a few minutes, a thick cream rises on the surface, which they take off, and pour it into a second vessel of water; this cream is not less than four or five inches thick. The gross part of the powder that remains in the first vessel they take out and pound afresh. With regard to what is put into the second vessel, they wait till it has formed a kind of paste at the bottom; and when the water is clear, they pour it gently off, and call the paste into large moulds, in which it is dried. It is remarkable that neither the Pe-tun-tse nor Kao-lin are to be got in the neighbourhood of King-te-tching; they are obliged to fetch them from the province of Chan-si, twenty or thirty leagues off, where the inhabitants know not how to use them: of these are made cups and vases of various kinds, sizes, and colours; some red, some yellow, some grey, some blue, and others white, but none of a perfectly black ground: red and sky-blue are the most common colours.

The whole process of painting the porcelain is long and laborious, and employs a great number of hands; it is the business of one to make the coloured circle near the edge; another traces the flowers, which are painted by a third; a fourth is employed in the formation of birds and other animals; a fifth forms rivers, rocks, &c. and a sixth is engaged in the figures of men and women.

They use all colours in painting their china ware; some quite red with small spots, others entirely blue, others streaked or chequed with squares, like mosaic work, which is reckoned among the most beautiful. Some of their china is mixed with various colours, like jasper; and some is adorned with flowers, landscapes, dragons, and frequently human figures. These figures are often rilievo, which is thus effected: they first delineate the figure with a pencil, and then pare down the contiguous ground, so that it appears raised or embossed on the superficies. They make every kind of representation in this sort of ware, as idols, animals, &c. Many of these figures known in Europe by the name of Chinese baboons are images of the gods they worship.

The silks most esteemed either for richness or beauty, are the Nan-king damasks of various colours, satins, taffeties, brocades, gauzes, &c. These, when quite new, have a very fine and handsome ap-

pearance; but their beauty soon fades. A strong durable satin called Touan-tse is much esteemed: it is sometimes plain, and sometimes figured with representations of birds, trees, flowers, and particularly dragons; for the figure of a dragon is a very favourite representation with the Chinese, on account of the peculiar veneration they have for the memory of a celebrated dragon, which, agreeable to their fabulous antiquity, inspired their great legislator Fo-hi. These figures are not raised upon the silk after the European manner; the texture is even throughout, the figures being distinguishable by difference of colour, and not by their projecting from the ground of the silk; after the manner of basso-relievo, these colours consist of the juices of herbs and flowers, which so effectually penetrate the silk, that the stain always remains in it, and so admirable is the deception, that the figures appear as if actually projecting from the ground of the silk.

The Chinese, however, are ignorant of the art of wire-drawing, and consequently have no gold and silver thread; to supply this defect, they roll their silk in thin wire plates, to give it the tinge; and sometimes, instead of gilding the thread, they apply the leaf gold to the silk in the piece. This splendid finery soon tarnishes, and is worn only by mandarins of the first consequence, and their ladies. Having thus far treated of the silks, we shall now say something of the silk-worm.

The worm, when it leaves its egg, is no bigger than the head of a common pin; it feeds upon the mulberry leaf, and grows to the size of a caterpillar, after which it no longer eats, but prepares for its dissolution: it wraps itself in a kind of silken ball spun from its own bowels, and its head separating from its body, the insect now no way resembles its original form: it hath apparently neither life nor motion; however, after remaining in this state some time, it awakes to a new being, and appears a different kind of insect. It resembles a large moth or butterfly; and in this last stage the female propagates the species by laying a prodigious number of eggs, after which she dies. This valuable worm is composed of several elastic springs from one extremity to the other it has a kind of little nerve, which we will call the spine; this spine, placed in the centre of its body, and continued through its whole length, sustains two other nerves or strings; one of these is the heart, which is composed of many oval vessels; the other, which is the lungs, is double, and appears to be an assemblage of several rings extending towards the two sides of the insect, and between which are certain orifices that correspond with those distributed along the exterior sides. It is, through these apertures that the air flows to the lungs, and by its spring and expansion promotes the circulation of the chyle or humour which nourishes the insect.

It is necessary to add, that the worm is perfectly black when it first comes out of the egg. In a few days

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begins to assume a whitish hue; after this its coat silies, and becomes ragged; at which time the insect casts it off, and appears in a new habit. It increases in bulk, and becomes more white, though a little inclining to a bluish cast; then divesting itself of its skin, it appears in its third habit; when its colour, head, and whole form are so metamorphos'd, that it appears quite another insect. In a few days it becomes changed to a bright yellow; so that, from the time of its leaving the egg, it hath divested itself of three different coverings. It continues feeding a short time longer, and then renouncing all society, wraps itself in its little silken ball as already mentioned.

With respect to the natural curiosities in China, several of these have been already mentioned under the preceding articles; to which we shall add, under this head, the volcano of Linfung, which is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of their tales are said to petrify fishes when put into them. Their curiosities, effected by art and labour, are stupendous.

The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It was built by the emperor Xi-Hoam-ti, about 214 years before the Christian era; is carried over mountains and vallies, and reaches from the province of Xen-si to the Kang-sa, between the provinces of Peking and Ly-an-tong. In most places it is built of brick and mortar, both so well tempered and excellent in their kind, that though it has stood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone sited in the sea, in the province of Pe-chei, to the east of Peking, and almost in the same latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cas'd with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high, and paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease. The gates of this wall are fortified with towers, and large square towers are erected at proper distances through its whole extent. There are 3000 of these towers, which, before the Tartars became masters of China, used to be garrisoned with a million of soldiers.

Their triumphal arches are amongst the most famous buildings of the Chinese: they are called by the natives Pay-leou, and are in every city or large town in the empire. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vast labour and expence. They have commonly three gates, formed by columns, the bases of which are without moulding or embellishment; either have they capitals or cornices: the frieze is high on to an absurdity; to admit space for inscriptions, as well as borders of ornaments, consisting of birds, flowers, human figures, &c. They are usual in the

whole to be 100, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent.

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 vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high; though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous.

Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe under the name of Pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of this country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. The most remarkable of these is that at Nan-king, called the Porcelain Tower, from its being covered from top to bottom with porcelain tiles, finely painted: it is of an octangular figure, contains nine stories, is about 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter. It is raised on a very solid base of brick-work, the wall at the bottom being at least twelve feet thick. The structure lessens all the way to the top, which is terminated by a sort of spire or pyramid, having a large golden ball or pine-apple on its summit. Between every story there is a kind of penthouse or shed on the outside of the tower; at each corner whereof are hung little bells, which, being moved by the wind, make a pleasant jingling. The ceilings of the rooms are adorned with paintings, and the light is admitted through windows of lattice-work. There are also abundance of niches in the wall, filled with images of their deities; and the amazing variety of ornaments that embellish the whole, render it one of the most beautiful structures in the kingdom.

The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which has given name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000lb. but its sound is said to be disagreeable.

Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the disagreeable taste in which they are built, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. Their sepulchral monuments have a pompous appearance.

The last curiosity we shall mention, is the fireworks of the Chinese, which exceed those of all other nations, both in beauty and variety.

It would take a volume to describe all the buildings and other objects deserving attention in this empire, where every province is a scene of curiosities. Their structures, except those above-mentioned, are confined to no order; and being susceptible of all kind of ornaments, exhibit a wild variety of pleasing elegance, very agreeable to the eye and imagination, by presenting a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture; though none of these structures, singly considered, has the least claim to true beauty and just proportion.

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From the situation of China, and its producing such a variety of materials for TRADE and MANUFACTURES, it may with propriety be denominated the land of industry; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with a great degree of art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton; but not comparable to the European for records or printing. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. We have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they still perform by cutting their characters on blocks of wood.

The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of china, was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. The ancients knew and esteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal materials are prepared pulverized earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. The English in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received of late from several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture so elegant and generally useful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot. The Chinese silks (which, as well as the china-ware, have been noticed in a preceding article) are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks of a more durable kind; and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm wear. Their manufactures in amber, ivory, coral, ebony, shells, &c. are also extremely ingenious.

It is well known that the Chinese trade is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of these people, that they think no manufactures equal to their own; but it is certain, that the Chinese commerce has been on the decline since the discovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches.

The CONSTITUTION and GOVERNMENT of the Chinese, before the conquest of their empire by the Tartars, formed an instructive lesson to the rest of the world; and though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chinese, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient discipline in many respects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy.

The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous man-

ner; but, at the same time the emperor was considered as the parent of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple chain of obedience required great address, and knowledge of human nature, to render it effectual.

The Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins, or great lords, had modes of speaking and writing which differed from those of other subjects; they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached, as the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity.

But notwithstanding this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them to arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified, by saying that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their assistance; and it was thus that those barbarians, who had great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, which they availed themselves of, by invading the country, and reducing the whole of it to their obedience.

The Chinese, besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, had sumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of subjects, which were useful in preserving public order, and preventing the pernicious effects of ambition. By their institutions, likewise, the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government; and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects.

No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but, as in other countries, they are frequently rendered ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution.

The emperor is styled, "Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People," &c. He has an absolute power over the lives and fortunes of all his subjects, not even excepting the princes of the blood. His will is law, and his commands admit of no delay or neglect, under the severest penalties. But notwithstanding this arbitrary power of the emperor, his government is conducted in a very regular manner; tribunals and magistrates are established in the

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most exact and uniform system of justice, and the well-regulated government in the management of the two sovereigns. Besides these, six famous cities for civil government extends to every court annually, and is severe to punish any misdeeds of a shameful degree of crime, and of the blood, and of hereditary nobility.

As to religion, but they are said several inferior deities, and in their service of arts and sciences, as mountain sacrifice to vice, &c. There are, at present, followers of Li-Li-chou, lived about and taught that study of magic, &c. gives immortality, &c. Confucius, pure and perfect of all beings. The emperor Fohi, the founder of that nation, and

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most exact and uniform method, for the administration of justice, and the due performance of all the offices of a well-regulated government. The emperor is assisted, in the management of the great affairs of the kingdom, by two sovereign councils, which assemble at Peking. Besides these, six superior tribunals are held in the same city for civil and military affairs; and their authority extends to every part of the empire.

Every mandarin or governor is obliged to transmit to court annually a particular account of his government, and is severely punished if he endeavours to palliate any miscarriage; but as corruption prevails to a shameful degree in China, he that offers the highest bribe is sure of gaining his cause. Except the princes of the blood, and tributary kings, there are at present no hereditary nobility among the Chinese, nor is there any distinction but what flows from their offices, or their superior wealth or learning.

As to religion, the Chinese are, in fact, idolaters, but they are said to worship one supreme God, and several inferior deities, who appear to have been men eminent in their several ages, particularly the inventors of arts and sciences. They also worship things inanimate, as mountains, woods, and rivers; but never sacrifice to vice, as is customary with most Pagans. There are, at present, three sects in China: first, the followers of Li-Laokun, who, according to their account, lived above five hundred years before Christ, and taught that God was corporeal. They profess the study of magic, and pretend to make a drink which gives immortality. Secondly, the disciples of the celebrated Confucius, who taught that God was a most pure and perfect principle, and the fountain and essence of all beings. Thirdly, the worshippers of the idol Fo, or Fohi, the founder of the Chinese nation; and this sect is much more numerous than the other two. The emperor, being of the Tartar race, follows the idolatry of that nation, and worships the Dalay Lama.

In the accounts of China, transmitted to us by the Jesuits, we are told, that the doctrine of Confucius approximates nearly to Christianity, but very little dependence can be placed on their relations. About 100 years ago great numbers of these fathers resorted to China, and, being men of great abilities, soon made a prodigious number of converts; for, if they may be depended on, they had no less than two hundred churches and chapels; but the emperor finding that these restless ecclesiastics, under pretence of religion, were aspiring to the civil direction of the government, immediately banished them, levelled their churches with the ground, and forbade the exercise of the Christian religion, which since that time has made no figure in China. History informs us, that Christianity was planted in China by St. Thomas, or one of his disciples, and many of the Chinese records tend to confirm this opinion; but the Jesuits affirm that they did not perceive the least remains of it on their arrival in the country.

The revenues of this extensive empire are said by some to amount to twenty millions sterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of government in rice, and other commodities, may very possibly amount to that sum: these are certainly very great, and may be easily imposed, as an account of every man's family and substance is annually enrolled.

With regard to their military and marine strength, China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the Eastern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chou-tchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition which was so much in their favour. But this security of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present, is the dilute of arms.

The Chinese land army is said to consist of five millions of men; but in these are comprehended all who are employed in collecting the revenue, preserving the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. The marine force is composed chiefly of junks (vessels much in use here) and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents. In 1772, there was published at Paris a treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war; but caution, care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals: and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

For the better conducting all matters relative to the war department, the Chinese have placed the military government of the country under the direction of an order of mandarins, called the mandarins of war, of whom there are five classes, viz. the mandarins of the rear-guard, the mandarins of the left wing, those of the right wing, those of the main body, and those of the van-guard. These five classes are under the jurisdiction of so many courts or tribunals, which are all subject to a sixth, viz. the fourth sovereign court at Peking, which is intrusted with the care of the military of the empire. The president of the sixth tribunal of war is always a grandee of the realm; his authority extends to all military persons; to him belongs the supreme command of the army: but, should there be a war, the Chinese law prescribes, there shall in such case be joined with him in commission a mandarin of letters, bearing

the title of superintendent of arms; and there must be likewise appointed out of the same order two inspectors of his conduct. The generalissimo undertakes no enterprise without the consent of these three officers, who send a particular account of his operations to the fourth supreme court at Peking, that awful tribunal, to which even the general himself is accountable. These mandarins, or officers at war, are computed at no less than eighteen thousand.

PROVINCES and CHIEF CITIES in CHINA.

THE sixteen provinces, into which China is divided, are as follow: viz. Pe-ke-li, Kyang-nan, Kiang-si, Pö-kyen, Che-ky-ang, Hu-quang, Ho-nan, Shang-tong, Shan-si, Shen-si, Se-chuen, Quan-tong, Quang-li, Yun-nan, Quew-chew, Ly-au-tong (without the great wall.)

The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton.

Peking, the capital of the Chinese empire, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, in the province of Pe-tche-li, and twenty leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities; that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne, and they refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Peking are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city; and are so broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city, of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls; and in several places there are houses built for the guard. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues nor other carving, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length; but, from their not being paved, are remarkably dirty in the winter, and dusty in the summer. The houses are poorly built in front, and very low, most of them having only a ground-floor, and none exceeding one story above it.

The shops where they sell silks and china-ware generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written, in large characters, the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side

of the street, at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance.

Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill-contrived. F. Altiret, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the buildings shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe.

The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from twenty to sixty feet high, which form a number of small vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which, uniting, form lakes and meers. Beautiful and magnificent barks sail on these pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other, which diversity produces a very pleasing effect.

Every valley has its house of pleasure, large enough to lodge one of our greatest lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of these houses are built with cedar, brought at a vast expence the distance of 500 leagues. Of these palaces, or villa's, there are more than 200 in this vast enclosure.

In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art, as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature, which gives them a very pleasing appearance. The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants, though Nanking is said to exceed it both in extent and population.

Canton, the capital of the province of Quang-tong, is about as large as Paris: it is the greatest port in China, and the only one that has been much frequented by the Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins, and other great men, which are

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watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river Pa; on which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country; the city is entered by seven iron gates, and within side of each there is a guard-house. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images.

The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-stones: they are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any fashion is seldom to be seen, unless by chance when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market-places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses, which are little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. The shops of those who deal in silk are very neat, make a fine shew, and are all in one place; for tradesmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the same street. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in the house where they do business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 junks or trading vessels lying before it.

Nanking (a name signifying the court of the south, as Peking does the court of the north) is the capital of the province of Kiang-nan. This once splendid and extensive city was for many ages the metropolis of the Chinese empire, as well as the residence of the emperors; whence it took its name. It is the largest city in China, and was originally surrounded with a triple wall, measuring about sixteen leagues in circumference: but the palace, once famous for its splendor and magnificence, hath been destroyed, as well as many grand monuments. The streets of this city are narrow, but well paved; the houses low, but handsome; the shops spacious, and most richly furnished with goods.

Nanking is celebrated for its great number of libraries: it excels likewise in printing, and in artificers of most kinds: here too reside the most eminent doctors of the empire, as well as the greater part of such mandarins as have been discharged from their governments. The number of people resident in this ancient city is estimated at about four millions, including those who live in barks upon the water; and, indeed whenever a city is situated on the banks of a canal or river; there is seen another large floating city of barks. If we except a few temples, the city gates, and a tower about 200 feet high, the present public buildings of Nanking have rather a mean appearance.

Sou-tcheou, the second city of the province of Kiang-nan, is celebrated for its commerce and beautiful appearance. In point of situation, it may be compared to

Venice, though far superior in extent and populousness. It is four leagues in circumference, exclusive of the suburbs, which are very extensive: it abounds with canals of pure water, capable of bearing ships of heavy burthen; and here people are conveyed to almost any part of the city in gondolas elegantly painted. The trade and riches of this city, the beauty of its situation, the fruitfulness of the circumjacent country, the continued appearance of the gondolas, the concourse of visitants, and the natural politeness of the inhabitants, render it the paradise of China, in the fullest sense of the term.

HISTORY OF THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

THE antiquity of the Chinese is universally admitted; but it is difficult to ascertain the first period of their true chronology. A French writer allows the Chinese nation to be near as old as the deluge; nor does Maigret, in his remarks on the obscurity of the reign of Fo-hi, deny the reality of it; others of the learned give it as their opinion, that the Chinese have been a nation near four thousand years. Even such as have treated with ridicule the pretensions of these people to antiquity, allow their monarchy to be at least as ancient as that of the Egyptians, Assyrians, or any other country recorded in history.

The first inhabitants of China settled in the province of Chen-si, from whence they spread themselves over the adjacent countries, Honan, Pe-tche-li, and Chantong, which four provinces together formed a considerable kingdom, containing that large tract of country lying north of the river Yang-tse-kiang. The fame of the first princes of this infant monarchy brought together great numbers of foreigners; therefore, to extend the bounds of their kingdom, they drained a large tract of low country that lay under water, fencing the land against the encroachments of the sea with high banks, and by the same means confining the course of the rivers within deep and narrow channels: thus two fine provinces, Tche-kiang and Kiang-nan, were added to the kingdom.

We are told, "that under the reign of the emperor Yu, which they place above two thousand years before Christ, they discovered a large tract of territory to the south, partly destitute of inhabitants: this large extent of country, Yu and his successors peopled with colonies, at different periods, under the control of princes of the blood, to whom they portioned out this new country, reserving to themselves only some acknowledgment. Thus were formed several little tributary kingdoms, which being afterwards united to the empire, rendered it very considerable. During the reign of Yu, the monarchy was divided into nine provinces, a particular delineation of which this emperor caused to be engraved on nine brazen vessels. In the year 2037 before Christ, several nations sent ambassadors to China, and

and submitted voluntarily to a yearly tribute. Towards the end of the second dynasty, about 1,200 years before Christ, certain Chinese colonies extended themselves to the eastern coast, and also took possession of several islands.

Under the fifth race, or dynasty, which commenced about the year 200 before Christ, the Chinese not only enlarged their borders to the north, after many signal victories obtained over the Tartars, but pushed their conquests even to the confines of India, viz. to Pegu, Siam, Camboya, and Bengal.

About 600 years after Christ, Kao-tsou-venti, founder of the twelfth race, added to the empire several of the northern provinces, situated beyond the river Yang-tso-kiang, and which at that time composed a particular kingdom subject to the Tartars: this went by the name of the northern empire for several ages.

The revolution which happened in 1644, when China was conquered by the Tartars, only served to increase the power and extent of this great empire, by joining to its former possessions a considerable part of Great Tartary. Thus this vast monarchy attained to the summit of its greatness, by a gradual progress, not so much in the way of conquest like other empires, as by the wisdom of its laws, the reputation of its government, and at last by its disgrace.

The family of Yu ended with the reign of Kié, a wretch of infamous memory, who is said to have drowned, in the space of one day, three thousand of his subjects, in a pit which he caused to be filled with wine. This and other enormities occasioned a revolt of his subjects, who placed upon the throne Tchou-tang, a tributary prince of China.

Tcheou rendered himself abhorred by his subjects on account of his wicked and debauched life: his people therefore applied to Vou-vang, a prince of a small neighbouring state, and placed him on the throne. Vou-vang, however, in the beginning of his reign, committed a very capital fault, which in time was productive of great revolutions. In order to gratify certain families, and the princes of the blood royal in particular, he erected for them several petty kingdoms, which were at first feudatory to the empire, but soon after declared for independence.

Under the thirteenth emperor of this family, all these petty princes were engaged in intestine wars, and distracted the whole empire. China became a scene of rapine for many ages; its authority was held in contempt, and the tributary princes controlled the emperors, enthroning and deposing them, as their inclination or caprice dictated.

Tcheou-kiun, the thirty-fifth and last emperor of this race, found a very powerful rival in Tchao-siang, his vassal, the King of Tsin, to whom he was forced to give up his crown; this rebel, however, happened to die suddenly, and his son, who succeeded him, also died soon after; so that his grandson was the first who

enjoyed the advantages of this usurpation. This grandson was named Tchuang-siang-vang, and was the founder of the fourth succession, which gave four emperors to China, and lasted forty-three years only.

The fifth dynasty began with the reign of Lieou-pan, who was first a common soldier, and at the head of a gang of robbers: he obtained the imperial throne by dint of violence, and yet proved himself capable of governing with a becoming dignity, judgment, penetration, and justice. This race lasted 426 years, and produced a great many very respectable characters; but the last monarchs of this race suffering themselves to be ruled by the court eunuchs, fell into disgrace, and became as odious as the eunuchs themselves. The people took up arms, and wars ensued, which terminated in a division of the empire into four parts, under four distinct sovereigns; these however were reunited by Tchao-lie-vang, founder of the sixth dynasty. This monarch, after the short reign of three years, died, and left Heou-ti, his son, who filled the throne forty-one years, and then most shamefully abdicated it in favour of the usurper, Chi-tsou-youti, founder of the seventh dynasty.

The seventh race subsisted 155 years, giving fifteen emperors to China, most of whom, through their want of capacity to govern, discredited the elevated station of life in which fate had placed them. The last of these monarchs was put to death in the second year of his reign, by one Lieo-you, who, quitting the trade of a shoe-maker, commenced soldier, rose to the rank of general, and afterwards ascended the throne of the empire.

This eighth race, with the ninth, tenth, and two following, only comprehend 198 years; in which space of time there were no less than twenty-four reigns. The Chinese annals of this period present us with scarce any thing but revolution, rapine, and destruction; weak, spiritless, and superstitious princes, controlled by their ministers, and some of them betrayed, and even murdered by the very men in whom they had confided.

Under the first emperor of the thirteenth family, the people enjoyed the blessings of peace, the happy effects of the prudent and constitutional administration of those emperors. The tranquillity which was in a more particular manner enjoyed during the reign of Tai-siong, the second emperor of this race, is recorded to the immortal honour of that sovereign. Under Hiven, the sixth emperor, the tranquil state of the nation was disturbed with new commotions and seditions, which lasted in continual succession from his reign down to that of Tchao-suen, the twentieth and last emperor of this race. These disturbances were occasioned by the arbitrary and oppressive conduct of the eunuchs, to whom the monarchs of this dynasty committed an unlimited exercise of regal jurisdiction. Tchou-ven, the captain of a gang of banditti, taking advantage of their unhappy broils, deposed Tchao-suen, murdered him, and founded him-

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of the fourteenth family, which, with the four follow-
ing, subsisted about fifty years; in which short inter-
val, no less than thirteen monarchs swayed the
imperial sceptre, most of whom suffered a violent
death.
During their last reigns; the Tartars, who in-
habited Leao-tong, one of the most northern pro-
vinces of China, began to render themselves powerful.
This province was bequeathed to them by the last emperors of
the thirteenth race; and Kao-tsou, head of the sixteenth,
who was indebted to them for his advancement to the
throne; gave up to them sixteen more towns in the pro-
vince of Pe-tche-li, exclusive of a tribute of 300,000
pieces of silk. These shameful compliances increased
their power and pride; and were productive of
wars for 400 years, which nearly desolated the
empire.
The Chinese, at length, called to their assistance the
Niu-tche, or Eastern Tartars, in conjunction with
whom they drove the Northern Tartars from a country
which they had possessed upwards of two centuries: the
Chinese, however, were obliged to pay dearly for the
aid of their allies, who not only constrained them to
cede Leao-tong by way of compensation, but also took
possession of Pe-tche-li, Chen-li, and Ho-nan; and
they some years afterwards invaded the very heart of
the empire, took Peking, the capital, burned the
royal palace to the ground, and forced the Chi-
nese to accept of the most dishonourable terms of pa-
cification.
Under this family, another race of Tartars, called
the Tan-yu Tartars, settled westward of China, en-
tered into an alliance with the Chinese against their con-
querors, the Niu-tche Tartars, and after several engage-
ments, the Niu-tche victors were themselves conquered
and driven from their possessions in Leao-tong and the
other provinces, after an usurpation of 117 years. The
Tan-yu heroes, however, in requital of their services,
demanded a settlement in those provinces from whence
they had exterminated the Niu-tche barbarians; these
were accordingly ceded to them; but not contented
with such cession, they took possession of Yun-nan, Se-
tchuen, and Hou-gang; and in less than half a cen-
tury were masters of the whole empire.
The twentieth race took the name of Yven,
and had for its founder Chi-tou, fourth son of
Tai-tou, in whom commenced the third Tartarian
usurpation. The Yven family gave to China nine
emperors, the former of whom, by their prudent ad-
ministration, won the hearts of their subjects; but the
succeeding monarchs, indulging in a life of indolence,
luxury, and dissipation, perceived themselves excelled in
the use of arms and natural courage by the very people
whom they had conquered, who, possessing the liveliest
sentiments of freedom, and despising their dissipated
victors, wrested conquest from their hands, and drove
them back to their native country. This family, which
lasted only eighty-nine years, became extinct in the

person of Chun-ti, a very worthless monarch, who was
addicted to a variety of vices; which made way for the
twenty-first race; of which Tai-tou was founder; and
subsisted 276 years. The commotions that happened
under this family, produced gradually that grand revo-
lution; which a second time placed a Tartarian family
on the throne of China. The progress of which was
as follows:
The Niu-tche or Eastern Tartars, being expelled
from Leao-tong and the empire, retreated into the
ancient country bordering upon Leao-tong, separating
themselves into seven distinct cantons, and fighting
against each other, till at length they were united in
subjection to one sovereign. It happened that their
merchants, trading in Leao-tong, having received some
indignity from the merchants of China, exhibited a
complaint to the mandarins, who, instead of attending
to their complaint, augmented considerably the grievance,
by craftily drawing their prince into an ambus-
cade, and severing his head from his shoulders.
The Tartars, enraged at this cruel and iniquitous act,
marched a numerous army into the very heart of Leao-
tong, commanded by Tien-ming, son of their murdered
prince, who subdued Leao-tong and Pe-tche-li, but was
soon obliged to abandon those provinces, which were,
however, with the rest of the Chinese empire, reserved
for his grandson T'iong-te, but who was cut off by
sudden death, in the moment of his great view of sove-
reignty. He had been brought up and educated in
China; was master of the Chinese tongue, and per-
fectly acquainted with the disposition and genius of the
people.
At this period the empire was very critically situated:
the war with the Niu-tche Tartars continued, and as
an addition to this national calamity, there was a great
famine in the land. The then reigning monarch,
too, Hoai-tsong, was a man of mean abilities, suffer-
ing himself to be directed in every thing by his ministers
and eunuchs, who greatly oppressed the people. A re-
volt was the consequence, and in a short space of time
there were eight different factions under the same num-
ber of chiefs; these were, however, reduced afterwards
to two, and at length to one, headed by a commander
named Li, who invading and possessing himself of the
provinces of Ho-nan and Chen-si, styled himself emper-
or of China. In Ho-nan he committed the most dread-
ful ravages; in his attack of Cuif-ong, its capital, that
town was laid under water by a sudden breaking down
of the dykes of the Yellow-River, and 300,000 persons
perished in the inundation. He afterwards marched to
Peking, at the head of 300,000 troops, and entered
the city without the least opposition; for he had pri-
vately conveyed into the city a number of his people in
disguise, who threw open the gates to him; and such
was the supineness of Hoai-tsong, the emperor, that
he knew nothing of this circumstance, till the usurper
had laid the whole city under his subjection.
As soon as the emperor heard the news, he marched

from his palace at the head of 600 of his guards, who treacherously abandoned him. Thus situated, he flew into the gardens of his palace with his daughter, whose head he cut off, and then hung himself upon a tree: his wives, his prime-minister, and some of his eunuchs, also destroyed themselves. The news of this melancholy event soon reached the army, then making war in Tartary, under the command of a general named Ou-fang-guey, who refused to acknowledge Li as his sovereign; whereupon the latter put himself at the head of his numerous army, for the purpose of giving him battle.

Ou-fang-guey shut himself up in a strong fortified town; thither Li marched his troops, and having taken captive the father of Ou-fang-guey, ordered him to be loaded with irons, and placed at the foot of the town wall, sending word to his son at the same time, that if he did not immediately surrender, his father's throat should be cut from ear to ear. The father found means to send a message to the son, begging him not to surrender; the son sacrificed his filial esteem to the interests of his country, and the old man was most cruelly put to death. The patriotic soul of Ou-fang-guey, now inflamed with rage, concluded a peace with the Niu-tche Tartars, and engaged them to enter into an alliance with him against Li, whose superior force it was impossible for him to resist.

Tsong-te, the Tartarian king, came to his assistance at the head of 80,000 warriors, forced the tyrant to raise the siege, pursued him even to Peking, and so totally routed his army, that he was forced to fly into the province of Chen-si, where he spent the remainder of his days in obscurity. Tsong-te being thus successful, the people idolized him as their deliverer, and he bestowed several distinguished honours upon the faithful Ou-fang-guey: the latter, however, soon had cause to repent his having leagued himself with so great and powerful a prince, for Tsong-te was no sooner arrived at Peking, than he began to think of improving the success of his arms, and the favourable disposition of the people (with whom, history informs us, he had been brought up and educated) into the means of his advancement to the throne of China; but being seized with an illness that speedily brought on his dissolution, all that he could do was to declare his son emperor, who was only about six years of age. This election was confirmed by the grandees and people, who in consideration of the signal services done by the father, connived at the tender age of the child, who took the name of Chun-si, and is considered as the founder of the twenty-second dynasty, which now fills the imperial throne of China.

By this revolution, which happened in the year 1644, a considerable part of Great Tartary was united to the Chinese empire; and since the union, the Tartars seem rather to have submitted to the laws of the Chinese, than to have imposed any upon them; in fact, the latter may be said to be as great gainers by it, as the Tar-

tars themselves. China still holds the seat of empire, and has the supreme courts of justice: thither flows all the opulence of the united kingdoms, and all honours are conferred there. Both nations, so opposite in genius and character, have each been considerably advantaged by the incorporation; the fierce spirit of the Tartar has given a spark of martial fire to the peaceful temper of the Chinese, while the arts and commerce of the latter have humanized and softened the savage roughness of the former.

China having acquired great additional strength by her union with Tartary, has now no enemy to dread; nor were ever the opulence, power, grandeur, and glory of the Chinese empire greater than at present: at home it hath all the blessings of peace, and abroad it is respected: it hath enjoyed a perfect tranquillity for upwards of eighty years, and is unrivalled by all other nations for its public works of art; having thirty-two royal palaces, 272 grand libraries, 709 halls, 1,159 triumphal arches, 331 beautiful bridges, and 680 curious tombs.

A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of the Twenty-Two DYNASTIES of CHINA.

Dynasties, or Families.	Years before and after Christ.	Duration of each Dynasty.	Emperors
I Hia	2207	458	17
II Chang	1766	644	28
III Tchcou	1122	874	35
IV Tsin	248	42	4
V Han	206	426	25
	After Christ.		
VI Heou-han	220	45	2
VII Tsin	265	155	15
VIII Song	440	59	8
IX Tsi	479	23	5
X Leang	502	54	4
XI Tch'in	557	34	5
XII Souy	590	29	3
XIII Tang	618	289	20
XIV Heou-leang	907	16	2
XV Heou-tang	923	13	4
XVI Heou-tsin	936	11	2
XVII Heou-han	947	4	2
XVIII Heou-tcheou	961	9	1
XIX Song	960	320	18
XX Yven	1280	89	9
XXI Ming	1368	277	16
XXII T'ing	1645	127	3

It appears by the above table, that the Chinese empire hath been established 4000 years, for by adding 2207 (the years before Christ) to 1793 (the present Christian era) we have 4000 years, during which space 220 emperors

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Duration of each Dynasty.	Emperors
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23	5
54	4
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CHAP. XI.

INDIA, OR INDOSTAN.

General Description, with a particular Account of its Boundaries, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Inhabitants, Government, Religion, Produce, &c.

INDIA is bounded by Ubeck-Tartary and Thibet on the north; by Acham, Ava, and the Bay of Bengal, on the east; by the Indian-Ocean, on the south; and by the same sea, and Persia, on the west. It is situated between the equator and the parallel of 40 deg. north latitude, and between the 66th and 109th deg. of east longitude; being 2048 miles long, from north to south, and upward of 1400 broad from east to west.

This vast country at large may be divided into three great parts: first, the peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Further Peninsula; secondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the peninsula within, or on this side the Ganges; all of them vast, populous, and extensive empires. But before they are considered separately, it will be necessary to premise some particulars which are common to them all, as this method will at once save many repetitions, and convey a more adequate idea to the reader of every material circumstance relative to this large country.

We shall begin with an account of their population; inhabitants, religion, and government.

The two latter divisions are comprehended, by an excellent and authentic historian, under the title of Indostan. This writer says, the Mahometans (who are called Moors) of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions. Above half of the empire is subject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all right of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognized his superiority. In other respects, the government of Indostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrowing greatness of any subject; but as precautions of that kind depend upon the administration; the indolence and barbarity of the moguls and emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The Indians, or original inhabitants of the country, are called Gentoos; or, as others style them, Hindoos; and the country Hindooostan, or Hindostan. They pretend that Bramma, their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Bramma probably was some great and good genius, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine

honours. The Bramins (for so the Gento priests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a sacred commentary upon it, called the Shahitah, which is written in the Shan'scrita, now a dead language, understood only by the Bramins, who study it, even as our sacred scriptures, written in the Greek and Hebrew, are. But it is not well known, whether that language was originally different from that of the country, or whether it has only now become unintelligible to the people, through that change to which all living languages are incident.

The foundation of Bramma's doctrine, uncorrupted by the arts and glosses of the Bramins, consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who originally created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man; in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. But in order to accommodate this sublime, but otherwise complicated doctrine, to the capacities of the lower ranks of people, the Bramins have had recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; by which means, the original doctrines of Bramma have degenerated into rank, ridiculous idolatry, in the worship of the most hideous figures, either delineated or carved; and the belief of an Omnipotent Being is now almost confined to the Gentoos. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and on certain festivals are exhibited in the high roads, and in the streets of towns. The human figures with elephants' heads, which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands, and are enormously corpulent. Yet amidst all their errors, they agree in those truths which form the harmony of the universe, that "there is one supreme God, and that he is best pleased by charity and good works."

From time immemorial, the Hindoos have been divided into four great tribes.

1. The first and most noble are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Jewish tribe of Levi. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws.

2. 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.

3. The third is the tribe of Beise, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banjas, or shopkeepers.

4. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants, and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank.

If any one of them should be excommunicated from any



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THE
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J. WOOD N.

any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders communication so dreadful, that an Hindoo, rather than deviate from one article of his faith, will suffer the torture, and even death itself.

The Gentoos are also subdivided into casts, or smaller classes and tribes; and it has been computed, that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast; but this last would give battle, sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives with respect the victuals prepared by a superior cast, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast.

There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their ugliness. The most striking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their superstition, and veneration for the institutions and tenets of their forefathers. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourse; and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another.

The division of the Gentoos into tribes or classes, discovers a striking peculiarity in their government and religion. The tribes are headed by a chief, who is in some degree responsible for the conduct of those under him; and individuals, on proper occasions, are sometimes summoned to assemble together, in conformity to the requisitions of government.

Among the Gentoos, the principal deity or divinity itself is represented as having an infinite number of heads, hands, and eyes, which are emblematical of his knowledge, power, and penetration; and the inferior attributes are figured by almost every animal or visible object in the creation: in particular, wisdom is represented by a snake. But the ignorant, not content with one deity, have split their principal divinity into many thousand parts, and changed each attribute into a separate god.

There are upwards of eighty sects who support the religious tenets of Bramma; in some fundamental points they concur, and never dispute upon any. They live in friendship with persons of all persuasions, and admit of no proselytes; they say heaven has many gates, and every one may enter at which he pleases.

In this country, the dominion of religion extends to a thousand particulars, which in others are governed either by the civil laws, or by taste, custom, or fashion. Dress, food, the common intercourses of life, marriages, professions, are all under the jurisdiction of religion.

There is scarcely any thing which is not regulated by superstition. It prescribes rules of conduct in all circumstances and situations; nor is there any thing so most trifling or minute, as to be considered a matter of indifference.

As to the religion of the Mahomedans here, it is the same as in Persia, and is the religion of the court; the Mahomedan fanaticism, however, having subsided to a degree of rationality and candour, all professions or religions here, through this means, are practised with freedom and tranquillity.

The original government of the Hindoos was in reality an hierarchy; for among that religious people, the highest authority was possessed by the priesthood, or the Bramin cast.

The governments of both nations were not only hierarchical, but there was in both a vast variety of religious observances and ceremonies, extending to many particulars, which in other countries are matters of choice or indifference; and both entertained the most profound respect and veneration for their ancestors. All the casts acknowledge the Bramins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration, which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, though very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. To beef they have a particular objection.

The food of the Hindoos is simple, consisting chiefly of rice, ghee, which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental spices of different kinds; but chiefly what is called in the east, chilly; and in the west, green or Cayen pepper. The warrior cast make eat of the flesh of goats, mutton, and poultry. Other superior casts may eat poultry and fish; but the inferior casts are prohibited from eating flesh or fish of any kind. Their greatest luxury consists in the use of the richest spices and perfumes, of which the great people are very lavish, and which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they almost ascribe divinity to the cow itself.

Penal laws are scarce known among the Gentoos, as their motives to bad actions are few. Temperance in their living, and delicate in their constitutions, their passions are calm, and their manners gentle: they have no object but that of living with comfort and ease, their happiness principally consisting in the solaces of a domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that marriage is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world thro' a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows,

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The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion seems to forbid them to quit their own shores, nor do they want any thing from abroad. If others therefore had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world, they might have continued to live in much tranquillity and happiness.

The Gentoo soldiers are called rajah-poots, or persons descended from the rajahs. They reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah-poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without incurring the charge of cowardice.

The abominable custom of women burning themselves upon the death of their husbands, still continues to be practised in India among some of high cast and condition; though since the Moguls have become masters of Indostan, these shocking spectacles have been much less frequent than formerly, nor do the Bramins encourage them.

The following recent instance we have been lately favoured with, will sufficiently prove, that the custom above alluded to is still observed; and may serve to invalidate the modern opinion, that the Bramin women have discontinued it: "Signor Nicola Fontana de Cremona, a doctor of physic, at Calcutta, was witness, on Nov. 24, 1784, to the shocking sight of a woman, the wife of a Bramin, burning herself on the same pile with her husband. The sight was more affecting, as the wife was both young and handsome. The ceremony commenced about sun-set. During the preparation of the funeral pile, the females were employed in preparing the widow for the voluntary sacrifice: they administered opium to her with a view to annihilate those feelings which so painful a death must naturally excite. After taking the opium, she was stripped and plunged into the river, in order to purify her for that state which they were taught to believe the most enjoy, viz. that she would live happy with her husband 3500 years in the Elysian-Fields. Having been washed, and for her clothes thrown about her, she resolutely walked towards the wood, and boldly placed herself at the feet of her deceased husband; there the undressed herself, and distributed her clothes to those around her: she said a few words, was set fast to the dead body, and the pile was instantly set on fire. As the flames reached her, she began to scream; the whole company instantly struck up a doleful kind of hymn; and the more her screams increased, the louder they raised their voices. When the wood

and bodies were reduced to ashes, each departed home; and thus ended the process of this horrid, superstitious, and most unnatural ceremony."

It may not be amiss to remark, that the institution of the above horrible sacrifice is not to be ascribed to Bramma, but seems rather to be the invention of some Bramin, who carried his jealousy beyond the grave. It is a piece of refinement dictated by a barbarous and over-strained affection, and suitable to the character of those superstitious beings who think there is a particular merit in rigid morality, or what they style a transcendent purity of manners, how incompatible soever their general conduct is to the principles of right reason and true religion.

The famous dancing-girls are a particular class of women, who are allowed to be openly prostituted. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they acquire, as they grow warm in the dance, a frantic lasciviousness themselves, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the most voluptuous desires to the beholders. Their attitudes and movements are very easy, and not ungraceful. Their persons are delicately formed, gaudily decorated, and highly perfumed.

The Gentooes apply themselves to the cultivation of their lands, and to public and necessary works, with the same assiduity as the Chinese; and are also remarkably honest and humane. There is scarcely an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond-merchants travel without defensive weapons. A late writer observes, that the Hindoos, as well as the Persians, Tartars, and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indostan since it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different nations, religions, laws, and customs, possess, nevertheless, in equal degrees, hospitality, politeness, and address. In refinement and ease, they are superior to any people to the westward of them. In politeness and address, in gracefulness of deportment, and speech, an Indian is as much superior to a Frenchman of fashion, as a French courtier is to a Dutch burgomaster of Dort. The Hindoos, especially those of the higher casts, are in their demeanour easy and unconstrained, still more than even a French courtier, and their ease and freedom is reserved, modest, and respectful; whereas, on the contrary, a Frenchman's ease is mixed with forward familiarity, confidence, and self-conceit.

The Indians are of a middle stature, their persons straight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness. Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the highest degree graceful. The inhabitants of the northern part are of a deep olive colour; and those of the south, black. The natives, who dwell on the mountains in the centre of the peninsula, are exceedingly black: all have black eyes, and long black hair.

The dress of the men is a kind of close-bodied gown, and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats; reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and tight drawers, which come down to their ancles. Hence the dress of the men gives them, in the eyes of Europeans, the appearance of effeminacy; whereas that of the women will appear rather masculine: but these ideas are chiefly owing to the influence of habit and custom on human sentiments. The men tie their hair up in a roll, over which they have a small turban. The women's hair is also tied up in a roll, like the men's, and is adorned with jewels, or toys in imitation of them; they have pendants in their ears and noses, and several strings of beads round their necks; they wear bracelets on their wrists and ancles, and rings on their fingers and toes: they put their bare feet into slippers, as the men do; though indeed, in the southern parts, some of the women wear no slippers or shoes at all.

The Moors, or Mahometans, appear in a very handsome and becoming dress: they have grand turbans of rich muslin, and their garments reach down to their feet. Their fashes are embroidered in great taste, the ends being decorated with gold and silver tissue, and in their fashes they stick their daggers; they wear embroidered slippers, which they take off, and leave at the foot of a *sopha* when on a visit. They are remarkably fond of smoking tobacco, and use the callaan.

In manners, the inhabitants of Indostan resemble the other natives of southern Asia: they are effeminate and luxurious, and are by education taught to affect a grave deportment, which initiates them early in the arts of dissimulation, and they are very apt to gratify a private revenge without having had any public quarrel.

Their houses are of two kinds, those built by the Moguls, and those by the original Indians. The houses of the Moguls are all in the Persian taste; in short, they seem to imitate the Persians in every thing. The Indian houses cover much ground, and have spacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of their palaces consists in baths, perfumes, temples, gods, and harems. The harems, or zenanas, that is, the residences of the women, are removed from the front of the house, and lighted only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apartments in the houses of the wealthy are ornamented chiefly with looking-glasses, which are purchased of the Europeans, and many of their ceilings are inlaid with mother-of-pearl and ivory.

The Bramins superintend and have the immediate direction of all the temples and pagodas erected in every capital, which are stupendous, but disgusting stone buildings. If these Indian priests 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 the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage those superstitions, and appropriate to themselves the fruits of the Gentoo industry.

Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and, by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of those disagreeable qualities in their nature that animates the generality of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money; many of them, rather than discover it, have put themselves to death by poison, or otherwise. The vast scarcity of silver, that till of late prevailed in Indostan, has been ascribed to this practice.

The Indians are supposed, for the reasons above-mentioned, to be less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the male before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and their beauty is on the decay at eighteen: at twenty-five, they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind; and whatever may be the cause, a person who has lately travelled into this country observes, that death is regarded with less horror in India than in any other country in the world. "The origin and the end of all things, says the Indian philosopher of the present times, is a vacuum. A state of repose is the state of greatest perfection; and this is the state after which a wise man aspires." "It is better, say the Hindoos, to sit than to walk, and to sleep than to wake; but death is the best of all."

At certain times, a court of justice is held for determining disputes relative to property, and other controversies among the people. Law-suits are here very quickly adjusted, as the whole power of deciding is vested in the judge, whose principle is avarice, and whose soul is consequently a stranger to tender or equitable sentiments.

In every town and village, courts are likewise held for the administration of justice: the principal person of the place acts as judge, and determines all disputes within his district; the determination, however, is generally made in favour of him who displays the greatest liberality, and can give the highest bribe.

The emperor himself decides in all capital cases, and his viceroys do in their different governments. Though there are no written laws, particular punishments are inflicted for particular offences. Murder and robbery are punished with death; but the mode of executing is entirely in the will of the mogul or his viceroy. Some offenders are beheaded, some hanged, some impaled upon sharp-pointed stakes, and others trampled to death by

elephants. The excessive torture, broken by the elephant with his heavy fapire. They have torn to pieces his According to the death are not to but to be cut off effusion of blood, all their sins upon it is thought their

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elephants. The poor criminal who is doomed to suffer excessive torture, has the bones of his legs and arms broken by the elephant, who kicks him in those parts with his heavy foot, and then leaves the victim to expire. There have been instances of delinquents being torn to pieces by dogs, in the empire of Indostan. According to the Gentoo laws, criminals sentenced to death are not to be strangled, suffocated, or poisoned, but to be cut off by the sword; because, without an effusion of blood, malefactors are supposed to die with all their sins upon them; but by the shedding of blood, it is thought their crimes against the Deity are expiated.

In India, the Mahometans are called Moors, and are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They invaded Indostan soon after the caliphs of Bagdad began to reign. Afterwards penetrating to Dehli, they made that city their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Their princes, being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and who, being a brave, enterprising people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahometan government; but it is observable, that in two or three generations the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and swords, degenerated into all the indolence and sensuality of the east.

The Moors are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships; each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who in process of time became almost independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute.

The Marattas at present make the greatest figure of all the Tartar tribes: Malwa, Berar, Orissa, Candeish, and Visipour, the principal part of Amednagur or Dowatabad, half of Guzarat, and a small part of Agimere, Agra, and Allahabad, are comprised within their extensive empire, which reaches from sea to sea across the widest part of the peninsula, and from the confines of Agra northward to the Kistna southward, forming a tract of about 1000 miles long, and 700 wide. This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs, whose obedience to the Paiswah, or head, is merely nominal, and they are often at war among themselves, and with their head. For the last twenty years, their power has been on the decline. They are now a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indostan and Persia. They commonly serve on horseback, and, when well commanded, have been known to prevail even to the court of Dehli. Though they are originally Gentooes, yet they are of bold active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion.

A modern writer says, that the Mahometans or Moor are of so detestable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and those were among the Tartar and Persian officers of the army. We are indeed told, that they are void of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have any virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart. But, according to others, the Marattas, who have been unjustly represented as barbarians, are a great and rising people, subject to a regular government, the principles of which are founded in virtue. These people are at this time in friendship with the English; but a rupture taking place between them and Tippoo Saib, a formidable neighbouring potentate, the country of the latter was conquered by the English, their allies, in 1792.

The Gentooes have a remarkable manner of drinking. They religiously avoid touching with their lips the vessel that contains the liquor, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other vessel, at least at a foot distance. They will drink from a pump, or any running stream, but not out of a standing pool; for their idea is, that stagnated water has a polluting quality.

The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands; and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the sub-tenants, even of those lands, are indefeasible. All other lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the sub-tenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The Mahometan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood.

According to the Gentoo constitution, land is not private property, but belongs to the community in the several villages, but this does not extend to houses and gardens: these villages are supplied with their respective public officers, as the head-man, to execute justice; the conicoply, to keep the accounts of the village; the corn-meter, smith, barber, doctor, astrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the community, and the produce shared out in certain proportions to all. One is allotted to the Pagodas and Bramins, one to the government, another to the public officers, one to the repair of tanks or reservoirs of water, and the rest is distributed among the community: but the Mahometan government, and the intrusion of Europeans, have introduced some innovations in this ancient constitution, among which the farming the circar, or government shares, are particularly instanced.

The government of this great empire, the outlines of which we have now given, long subsisted without almost the semblance of virtue or probity among its great officers,

officers, either civil or military; till it was shaken after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they framed new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power: so that many of the people, within these few years past, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Bramins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties.

Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well regulated government, is become a scene of mere anarchy or aristocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are now committed here with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Indostan. The reader, from this representation, may perceive, that all the English have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from usurpers and robbers; and their possession of it being guaranteed by the present lawful emperor, is said to be founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country. But notwithstanding this, we are sorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the servants of the East-India company towards the natives, not being properly checked or punished, either by the directors, or the British legislature, has in too many instances been highly dishonourable to the English name, and totally inconsistent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteristic. But we hope the wisdom and justice of the British parliament will prompt them to punish the delinquents for past offences, find expedients for removing the present evils, and for preventing the like in future.

CHAP. XII.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES, CALLED THE FURTHER PENINSULA.

Situation, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Trade, &c.

THIS peninsula is situated between the 9^d and 10th deg. of east longitude, and between the 1st and 20th of north latitude; being about 2000 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth. It is bounded by Thibet and China, on the north; by China and the Chinese

sea, on the east; by the same sea and the Straights of Malacca, on the south; and by the bay of Bengal, and the Hindur India, on the west. The province of Meckler, and other districts, are subject to the king of Ava or Burmah, and lie between Bengal and China.

On the north-west, are the kingdoms of Acham, Ava, and Arracan, whose chief towns are Candara, Ava, Arracan; containing 180,000 square miles.

On the south-west, are the kingdoms of Pegu, Mataban, Siam, Malacca. Their chief towns are, Pegu, east long. 97 deg. north lat. 17 deg. 30 min. containing 50,000 square miles. Mataban; Siam, east long. 100 deg. 55 min. north lat. 14 deg. 18 min. containing 170,000 sq. miles. Malacca, east long. 101 deg. north lat. 2 deg. 12 min. containing 48,000 square miles.

On the north-east are the kingdoms of Tonquin and Laos. Their chief towns are, Cachao, or Keccio, east long. 105 deg. north lat. 21 deg. 30 min. containing 122,000 square miles; Lanchang, containing 59,400 square miles.

On the south-east, lie Cochin-China, Cambodia, and Chiampa; whose chief towns are Thoanoa, containing 61,900 square miles; Cambodia and Padram, containing 60,200 square miles.

The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns. The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was best known to the Persians.

The air of this peninsula is very dry and healthy in the northern parts, but the southern provinces are very hot and moist, especially in the vallies, and low-lands near the sea and rivers, and therefore not so healthy notwithstanding which, the natives build most of their towns in these parts. They are obliged to erect their houses upon high pillars to secure them from the floods during the rainy season, at which time they have no communication with each other but by boats; and such storms of wind, thunder, and lightning happen, about the equinoxes on the shifting of the monsoons, as are seldom seen in Europe. The year is not divided into winter and summer, as with us, but into the dry and wet seasons, or into the easterly and westerly monsoons; a term sometimes applied to those periodical winds, and sometimes to the wet and dry weather. When the storms cease, there are sea and land breezes near the coast, which shift every twelve hours.

The mountains of this part of India run from north to south almost the whole length of the country. The mines of it yield gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, beryls, asterias or cat's-eyes, and other precious stones, in which the natives drive a great trade.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Domca, in Tonquin, which runs from north to south, and, passing by Cachao the capital, falls into the Chinese sea. 2. The Mecon, which running from north to south, through Laos and Cambodia, falls by two channels into the same sea. 3. The Menan, which runs from north to south through Siam, and falls into the bay of Siam. 4. The

or the great river Pegu, the bay of Bengal, adjoining to the sea, Ronaana, and Cochin-China, and Capore.

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which forms a kind of apricots, and in some months after the fruit becomes red, and the fruit appears to be a whitish and compact, and red brown cast, bordering on the taste.

The betle is a kind of peas or hops, and is planted like ivy. It becomes red in watery places, but bears no cold; in which the leaves prepare for it.

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Their other produce is a variety of gum-trees are the mango, plantain, pine-apples and great plenty and

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ry dry and healthy in provinces are very vallies, and low-lands before not so healthy es build most of their obliged to erect their them from the floods h time they have no ut by boats; and such lightning happen, about the monsoons, as are ear is not divided into but into the dry and nd westerly monsoons, periodical winds, and her. When the storm is near the coast, which

India run from north of the country. The rubies, topazes, ames, and other precious a great trade.

The Domes, in Ton south, and, passing by Chinesean sea. 2. The north to south, through channels into the same as from north to south bay of Siam. 4. The

va, or the great river Nou Kian, which joining the river Pegu, they both fall through one mouth into the bay of Bengal. 5. The Sanpoo, or Burrumpooter. Adjoining to this country are the promontories of Am, Ronana, and Branfac; the bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochinchina; and the Streights of Malacca and Singapore.

The soil is in general fertile, but more so in some places than others. Those are remarkably so which are overflowed by the torrents from the mountains, and the mud and slime left on the surface when the floods retire. There are produced all the delicious fruits found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables. Areca and betle claim particular mention, from the unbounded use made of them by the Indians. The areca-tree nearly resembles the cocoa in its height and shape; but the trunk is smaller, and the leaves shorter. Under the leaves grows a long mass, which forms a bunch or cluster of fruit, resembling nuts or apricots, intermixed with flowers. About two months after the flowers are gone, the husk which covers the fruit begins to open and fall off, when an oblong fruit appears of the size of a middling plum, and of a whitish and shining colour; its shell becomes firm, compact, and reddish; the pulp contained in it is of a brown cast, bordering on red, and soft and astringent to the taste.

The betle is a plant which creeps along the ground like peas or hops, so that its stalk must be supported by props, or planted near the areca-tree, to which it fixes itself like ivy. Its leaf resembles that of the citron-tree, and becomes reddish when dried. When it is planted in watery places it produces a fruit shaped like a rat's tail, but bears none in climates which are too hot or too cold; in which places the inhabitants make use of the leaves prepared with lime of oyster-shells, instead of it.

An Indian is seldom seen without betle in his mouth, which they say strengthens the gums, preserves the breath, makes the breath sweet, is good for the stomach, promotes digestion, prevents wind and vomiting, to which they are very subject, and is an antidote against the scurvy. When they chew the areca, they mix the kernel with the leaves of the betle, dividing a nut into eight or ten parts.

Their other productions are corn, rice, pepper, and a variety of garden-stuff and drugs. The principal fruit-trees are the palm, cocoa-nut, tamarind, quava, mango, plantains, orange, lemon, and pomegranate. Fine-apples and melons are likewise found here in the greatest plenty and perfection.

The trade and manufactures of this peninsula vary in the different kingdoms of it; but they principally consist in muslins, chints, dimities, calicoes, and silks. The natives are very ingenious in weaving, embroidering, and daming, especially the last; so that if a piece of muslin is torn, they join it with such neatness, as not to be discovered by the most curious inspection. Their

painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. No nation exceeds them for inlaying in ivory; nor can they be equalled for cabinets, ecrutoires, and other curious works in wood, very finely lacquered. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and silver, far exceed those in any other part of the world. They have a method of covering canes with cases of beautiful tortoiseshell; and of making beads, little idols, bracelets, necklaces, and various toys, of a very transparent crystal, found in the mountains. In short, the commerce of India is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The English, Dutch, French, Danish, and Swedish vessels resort thither annually. The greatest part of it, however, now centres in England, though that of the Dutch is very considerable. The French trade thither has been long on the decline, and that of the Swedes and Danes is very inconsiderable. The natives have some merchant ships of their own, in which they traffic with the countries bordering upon India; but their principal trade is with the Europeans.

Of the different Kingdoms on this Peninsula, and the Religion, Customs, Government, Constitution, &c. of their respective Inhabitants.

THE kingdom of Acham, or Azem, has China to the east, Indostan to the west, Tipra to the south, and Boutan, with part of Independent Tartary, to the north. It is one of the most fertile kingdoms in Asia, producing every thing necessary for the support of human life. It contains mines of gold, silver, steel, iron, and lead, the property of which the king has reserved to himself, on condition of not levying any taxes on the people. Great quantities of coarse silk are also produced here, especially a particular sort spun by a little insect resembling a silk-worm, which, when manufactured, bears a prodigious fine gloss, but it is not lasting. Two sorts of gum-lack are found in this kingdom, the best is of a red colour, and used by the natives in painting their linen; the other is made use of to varnish cabinets and make sealing-wax. Their gold is current in ingots, but they have pieces of silver coin of two shillings each in value.

The inhabitants towards the north have good complexions and indifferent features, but are subject to prodigious wens or swellings in their throats, owing to the bad quality of the water. Those in the southern extremity are swarthy and flat-nosed, but have no disagreeable swellings in their throats. The only covering they wear is a piece of cloth girt round their middle, and on their heads a cap or bonnet, hung round with bears' teeth. They bore very large holes in their ears, in

3 L which

which they hang pieces of gold and silver. The legs and arms of the most affluent among them are adorned with bracelets of coral and amber, while the poorer sort make use of tortoise and other large shells, formed into rings for this purpose. There is scarce a man in Azem but has a horse for himself, and an elephant to carry his wives, which are usually four; to every one of whom he assigns her particular domestic offices. They pay no taxes, they do not even work in the mines, slaves being purchased for that purpose. The favourite food of this people is dog's flesh, though all kinds of game, and other provisions, abound here. They have prodigious quantities of fine large grapes, from which they extract brandy instead of wine. The Azemites dispute the invention of gunpowder with the Chinese; and many circumstances conspire to decide this contested point in their favour.

These Indians, as well as the Chinese, had unquestionably the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemites.

The metropolis of this kingdom, and the residence of the king, which lies in 25 deg. 33 min. north latitude, is named Camdaras, Kemmeroofs, or Guergen: and the city of Azoo is the royal burial place. When any king is buried in the grand temple, his favourite idol is buried; this always being either of gold or silver, the vaults are filled with immense treasures. The people imagine that the righteous have, in the other world, plenty of what they desire, but that the wicked suffer all the miseries of hunger and thirst. Full of this notion, and not entertaining any very high idea of the morality or piety of their monarchs, they bury with them all kinds of edibles, great riches, several of their wives, officers, elephants, slaves, &c. lest they should fare worse in the other world than they did in this.

AVA; according to some accounts, is about 765 English miles in length, and 575 in breadth; but, according to others, it is about 800 miles long, and 250 broad. It is situated between 15 and 28 deg. north latitude: and is bounded, on the east, by Laos and Siam; on the west, by Bengal; on the south, by the Indian sea; and on the north by Thibet. It is said to be larger than the whole empire of Germany. It is in general a flat country and very fertile, yielding rice, fruits, garden-stuff, and a variety of wild and tame animals. It also contains mines of silver, lead, and copper.

The king assumes next to divine honours: his subjects approach him with the most abject reverence; and the highest title they aspire to, is that of his first slave. When they speak or write to him, they term him their kiak, or God; and in his letters to foreign princes, he arrogates to himself the title of King of kings, to whom all other kings ought to be subject. He is accounted near kinsman to all the gods in heaven and on earth; allied to all the planets; having the sun for his brother, and the moon and stars for his cousins.

Ava, the capital, carries on a great trade in musk and jewels; the latter are principally rubies and sapphires. Every town in the dominions of the king of Ava has a kind of aristocratical government. The subjects trade chiefly in musk and jewels, and in most particulars resemble those of Pegu.

ARRACAN, which is called by some the empire of Mogo, is bounded, on the east, by Ava; on the west, by the bay and country of Bengal; and, on the north, by Tipra: it extends about 400 miles in length; and contains a great number of places, many of which are uninhabited, from the numerous wild beasts that infest the whole country.

This kingdom enjoys a very salutary air, and is prodigiously fertile and pleasant; but, though situated in a warm latitude, it freezes very intensely when the winds blow from the north-east.

The inhabitants are in general very robust, and have broad flat foreheads, which is esteemed a beauty among them, large open nostrils, small quick eyes, and ears which hang down to their shoulders; the women are tolerably fair. Men of rank wear a vest, or shirt, of fine white calico, which fits close to the body and arms. Over it they have a long gown of the same species of linen, which buttons round the arms, and is tied close upon the breast with ribbons. They wear an apron which covers the belly and thighs before, with another piece of white calico, resembling a bag, which, being gathered in several folds, is fastened round the middle and falls down behind, so that they look as if they carried a large bundle of cloth about them. Their hair, which they suffer to grow to a prodigious length, is tied in tresses behind the head.

The women wear a kind of transparent flowered gauze, which, covering the bosom, passes over the shoulders. About their waists they fasten a quantity of very fine calico, which goes three or four times round them, and reaches down to their feet. Those who can afford it wear a silk scarf over one of their arms, and their hair is curled in a very becoming manner. They put rings of glass, silver, &c. in their ears; and sometimes they wear bracelets all the way up their arms to the elbows, and from the ancles to the calves of their legs; but the genteeler sort content themselves with a few, curiously japanned. They are, however, in general, very ostentatious, and usually make an appearance beyond their abilities.

A man may marry several wives, besides which, he is allowed as many concubines as he can maintain; but they are very indelicate in their amours, always preferring such women as have been openly connected with the Dutch and other foreigners; and, it is said, that those who marry a virgin even hire these people to consummate the nuptials.

Their conduct towards their sick is equally ridiculous, being always attended by a number of superstitious ceremonies, performed by the priests and the relations of the patient: but when a person is seized with

a disease, judges the banks of a river favoured by birds. These idolaters which they bake and, it is said, built in form of thousand of them have their domes which they wear shoulders. Their heads shag called Pungri, a yellow nitre. There are very little c. There are Lapins, who u: selves, and are t by the people.

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a disease, judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the banks of a river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beasts of prey.

These idolatrous people make their images of clay, which they bake in the sun, and then worship them; and, it is said, that some of their temples, which are built in form of a pyramid, contain no less than twenty thousand of these idols. Besides the temple idols, they have their domestic, or household gods, the marks of which they wear branded on their arms, sides, and shoulders. The priests are clothed in yellow, have their heads shaved, and all go uncovered, except those called Pungriui, who, being superior to the rest, wear a yellow mitre. They are all obliged to live single, and have very little communication with the rest of the world. There are a number of hermits among them, called Talapains, who inflict very rigorous penances on themselves, and are for that reason held in very high esteem by the people.

The navigation of Arracan extends no further than Bengal and Pegu, so that the inhabitants trade very little by sea. Few of the natives attend at all to the foreign commerce which is carried on, it being chiefly conducted by the Mahometans, who are settled there in great numbers. Of these some trade in elephants, which they send to Orixá, the coast of Coromandel, Golconda, and Persia, which they barter for calicoes, silks, and spices. They likewise carry on a traffic with the dominions of the Great Mogul, in timber for building, lead, tin, stick-lack, elephants teeth, diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones.

Arracan, the capital of this kingdom, is large and well fortified: it is situated in a valley, and is fifteen miles in circumference. It is enclosed by very high stone walls, and surrounded by a ridge of steep craggy mountains, so artificially formed as to render a penetration almost impracticable; besides which, there is a castle within strongly fortified. The city is well watered by a fine river that passes through it in different streams, and at length forms two channels, which empty themselves into the bay of Bengal. The number of inhabitants in this city are estimated at 160,000, exclusive of foreigners. The houses in general are small, and built of bamboos; but those of the better sort are spacious and handsome: in it are upwards of 600 idol temples, most of which are spacious buildings, elegantly ornamented. The palace is exceeding magnificent, being decorated with the most costly ornaments. The apartments are lined with various kinds of wood that discharge the most agreeable fragrance; and the roofs of those belonging to the king are covered with plates of gold. In the centre of the palace is the grand hall, which contains a canopy ornamented with wedges of solid gold, resembling sugar-loaves.

The province of Pegu is situated between the 110th and 116th degrees of longitude, and between the 17th and 30th degrees of north latitude, being about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth.

This kingdom is very salutary and fertile, the soil being enriched by the inundations of the river Ava; and it also abounds in elephants, buffaloes, goats; hogs, all sorts of game, particularly stags, and exceeding fine poultry.

The inhabitants are of a tawny complexion; and the women, according to the character given of them by all travellers, strangers to modesty. This, however, renders them the more agreeable to their own countrymen, for, it is asserted, that no Peguan, from the king to the peasant, will marry a woman who has not previously lived with an European. Fathers offer their daughters to strangers for a certain term, and most of the foreigners who trade with them, marry a wife for the time of their stay. Their common drink is water, or a liquor distilled from the milk of the cocoa-nut; and rice, made into cakes, serves them instead of bread.

The priests of this country are called talapains, who recommend charity and humanity as the greatest of all virtues; and indeed these men do honour to human nature, if the accounts given of them be literally authentic. When the master of a vessel happens to be shipwrecked on the coast, and he, by this calamity, becomes the slave of the sovereign, the talapains humanely intercede for him, and get him into their pious care and protection. In their temples these good men supply a distressed stranger with every thing he wants; and as they are physicians as well as priests, they tenderly take care of sick persons; and, after their recovery, give them letters of recommendation to some other convent on the road they travel.

The riches of the king, when an independent state, were almost incredible; some of his idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. His revenues arose from the rents of lands, of which he was sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandize; so that some thought him to be the richest monarch in the world, except the Chinese emperor. He was said to be able to bring a million, and, on occasion, a million and a half of soldiers, to the field, well clothed and armed; and to be master of 800 trained elephants, each with a castle on his back holding four soldiers.

The constitution of this empire is of the feudal kind, for the king assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the state of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade here.

MARTABAN, or Martavan, in the bay of Bengal, was once a kingdom, but is now only a Siamese province. It is 300 miles long, 115 broad; and is so fertile as to have annually three harvests, and is blessed with such a pure air, that the inhabitants never are afflicted with the head-ach. It produces, besides corn, oranges, lemons, figs, pears, chestnuts, medicinal plants, oil of jessamy, gold, silver, steel, iron, lead, copper, rubies, lacque, benzoin, &c. The people make a kind of black porcelain, with which they trade to Malacca.

The

The kingdom of SIAM is about 834 English miles in length, and 400 in breadth where widest, but in some places it is not above half so much. It is surrounded by high mountains, which on the east side separate it from the kingdoms of Cambaja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and has the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part whereof is under its dominion.

By the overflowing of the river Menan, in the month of March, annually, the country is entirely under water for 120 miles round. These inundations leave a mud and slime behind them, which, together with the earth washed down from the mountains, render the land very fertile. The vegetable and animal productions, together with the minerals in this kingdom, are the same with those already mentioned in Azem or Pegu, &c.

The inhabitants of both sexes are more modest than any found in the rest of this peninsula. They are of a good stature, seldom corpulent, and have tawny complexions. The faces of both men and women are broad, with high cheek bones, but their fore-heads and chins suddenly contract and terminate in a point. They have dark small eyes, hollow jaws, large mouths, thick pale lips, short noses, large ears, and thick lank hair, which both men and women cut so short, that it reaches no lower than their ears. The dress of the better sort is much the same as that of the other kingdoms in this peninsula; but as to the common people, they go almost naked. The king wears a cap in the form of a sugar-loaf, ending in a circle of precious stones; and those of his officers have circles of gold, silver, or vermilion gilt, to distinguish their quality, which entirely depends upon the possession of places, for there is no such thing as nobility among them. The Siamese, in their manners, are civil, courteous, and timorous; they have a ready and clear conception, and soon attain any art that is taught them; their rural sports are fishing and hunting; they also act comedies by torch light, from evening till morning, and observe a great number of festivals.

As to religion, every Siamese temple has its convent of friars annexed to it, and they are said to have a proportionable number of nunneries. Besides the images in their temples, whereof the elephant and the horse are the chief, they worship almost every thing animate and inanimate; beasts, birds, fishes, woods, mountains, rivers, &c. and like all the inhabitants of this peninsula, and many other parts of Asia, &c. believe in the doctrine of transmigration. They have two languages, one termed Balli, which is the learned or sacred language; the other which is spoke in common, is, in some respects, similar to the Chinese, but in others very different.

The king is the most haughty and despotic monarch upon earth, and the respect he demands from his subjects borders upon adoration. Even in council, which lasts sometimes four hours, the ministers of

state, and the mandarins, are continually prostrated before him; they never speak to him but on their knees, with their hands raised to their heads, making every moment profound reverences, and accompanying their discourse with pompous phrases, celebrating his power and his goodness. When he goes abroad, all are obliged to keep within doors: in short, all his subjects are his slaves, who possess nothing but what belongs to him, and he commands their service both in peace and war. His revenues arise from the lands of the crown, and a rent paid him in kind out of all the lands in his dominions, also by monopolies of almost every branch of trade; but he does not receive above six hundred thousand pounds per annum in money.

They have a silver coin in Siam called a tyeal, worth about three shillings and three halfpence, but they have neither gold nor copper money. Those shells, called cowries, serve to buy trifles: they are current in all those countries; and differ in value according to the plenty or scarcity of them: in Siam, 800 of them are equal to one penny.

The city of Siam is ten miles in circumference; and many navigable canals, whose sources are in the river Menan, pass through it. The walls are thick and high; built of stone and bricks, of both which materials some of the bridges are erected, though most are built of wood. The only public structures worth notice are the palaces; and the temples, which are gilded on the outside that the effulgence of the sunbeams reflect from them, and dazzle the eyes of the beholders. One of the latter, which is a square building, contains 100 idols, placed in niches four feet from the ground: they are as big as life, sit cross-legged and are all gilt.

The streets are narrow, but regular; the houses are built on raised ground, by reason of the frequent inundations; and the inhabitants in the rainy seasons go about their business in boats. All the houses are built of timber or cane, except one street, which contains 200 brick dwellings of only one story.

The river will contain vessels of 400 tons burthen, and divides the city into eight parts. The markets here are well stocked with cattle, wild and tame; rice, fruits, pulse, roots, &c. and the trade consists of the admirable gems of Pegu, silver bullion, manufactured iron, broad flannel cloth, looking-glasses, &c. China-wares are cheaper than at Bantam.

Bankok, which stands about eighteen leagues to the south of Siam, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon.

MALACCA is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces: but the Dutch are said to be real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital city. The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper,

elephants

elephants teeth, and pretend it is the most ancient, and their riches by an excellent situation in China; so that the Portuguese, who Dutch, Malacca, Goa and Orissa, Moluccas, &c. The city of Malacca, surrounded by the streets are full of trees on both sides of each other, and some of them are handsome and comely, adorned by 2000 of the best and safest vessels from most parts of the Portuguese being a grand market before the Dutch commerce, it has a command, Siam, respect its commerce as well as the degenerate formerly an industry the tyranny of they should never slavery and ignorance. Here is a kind of English in their command, and the commerce is conducted by a council, who little provided they caniling by it. The Malays are in manner of beasts, desirous of having that, as soon after them their means they shall be content, that there country, who in the European hair, which reach towards, and they are always sleep. The inland people much in mischief ground but we and burn it. Rice little cultivated; submit chiefly on. The articles of wants-teeth, rose

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elephants teeth, canes, and gums. Some missionaries pretend it is the Golden Chersonesus, or peninsula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with China; 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 Ormur, being the key of the China, Japan, Moluccas, and Sunda trade.

The city of Malacca is an extensive and populous place, surrounded with a stone wall and bastions: many of the streets are spacious and handsome, and are shaded with trees on both sides: the houses stand pretty close to each other, and are built chiefly of bamboos, though some of them are of stone. The governor's house is handsome and commodious, and is situated in the fort, surrounded by 200 Europeans. The harbour is one of the best and safest in that part of the globe, and receives vessels from most parts of the Indies. When possessed by the Portuguese, the city was remarkably opulent, being a grand mart for precious stones and gold; and before the Dutch made Batavia the chief place of their commerce, it had all the rich commodities of Pegu, Coromandel, Siam, Banda, and other countries: but at present its commerce is not very considerable, which, as well as the degeneracy of the Malaysans, who were formerly an industrious people, is easily accounted for by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of slavery and ignorance.

Here is a kind of smuggling trade carried on by the English in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel, and the bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves from the profits arising by it.

The Malays are in general savages, and live after the manner of beasts. They are extremely swarthy, and so desirous of having children as white as the Europeans, that, as soon as they arrive on their coast, they offer them their wives and daughters, thinking by that means they shall obtain their wishes. It is however asserted, that there are another sort of people in this country, who in shape, as well as complexion, resemble the Europeans, having grey eyes, and yellowish hair, which reach to the women's hips; their feet turn upwards, and they can see only in the night, and therefore always sleep till sun-set.

The inland people, called Morakabos, delight so much in mischief, that if the Malaysans sow grain in any ground but what is well fenced, they come down and burn it. Rice, or any other kind of grain, is very little cultivated; and in some of these parts the people subsist chiefly on sago.

The articles for trade are gold, tin, pepper, elephants-teeth, rose-wood, cinnamon, eagle and kalam-

bak-woods, sapan-wood, diamonds, gum-benjamin, rattans, and canes.

TONQUIN.

THE kingdom of TONQUIN is bounded on the east and north by the empire of China; on the west, by the two small kingdoms of Laos and Bowes, bordering on Siam; and on the south and south-east by Cochinchina. It is about 400 miles in length, and 300 in the broadest part.

As to the climate of Tonquin, this country being situated under the tropic, the weather is extremely variable; however, their two chief distinctions with respect to this, are those of the dry and rainy seasons; the former of which is the more agreeable, and continues from September to March; during which time, the north-wind blows without intermission, and the air is healthful, except in January and February, when the weather is frequently very severe. The rainy season begins in April, and ends in August, the south-wind blowing all the time; the three first months of this season are very unhealthy. During the months of June, July, and August, the heat is very intense; nevertheless, the country, at this time, has a most pleasing and beautiful appearance; the trees are loaded with fruit, and the plains covered with a rich harvest. However, as the land mostly lies low, particularly near the sea, it is subject to frequent inundations; and when these are greater than usual, the natives are considerable sufferers.

The inhabitants are of a tawny colour, though not so deep as most other Indians. Their faces are oval, and generally flattish, notwithstanding which they have a graceful appearance. Their hair is black, long, and lank, and both sexes affect to have their teeth as black as ebony, white ones being esteemed a great defect. The men are of a strong, hardy constitution; and the higher class of women very modest and reserved. They are dressed much in the same manner, wearing a straight, long robe, close at the neck, and reaching down to the heels, which is kept close to the waist by a girdle of silk, or gold and silver tiffue. The ladies cover their heads with a sort of very broad hat, made of the leaves of a tree, and adorned with a net-work of thread curiously wrought: it is the custom of the country to go barefooted all the year.

The Tonquinese are indefatigable in whatever business they apply themselves to: their judgment is just, their memory retentive, and they are capable of long application; but on the other hand, they are said to possess a most unbounded love for gaming, and that the lower class are insufferably indolent. They are, however, excellent mechanics, and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese

are fond of lacker-houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold earrings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets.

Silks, cottons, and lackered ware, are the principal manufactures of Tonquin. The trade of it is carried on almost entirely in foreign bottoms, and the articles exported from thence are aloes, turpentine, musk, rhubarb, and several other drugs, saltpetre, sulphur, spices, &c.

In Cachao, the capital of this kingdom, the English have a very flourishing house, conveniently fitted up, with storehouses, offices, and noble apartments for the merchants, factors, and other officers belonging to the company. The chonah, or chief governor, generally resides in this city, which is situated in the centre of the country. The bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal.

The natives are all Pagans, and, among other animals, worship the elephant and horse. They are exceedingly superstitious, great pretenders to astrology and the black-art, and strict observers of times and seasons.

Tonquin was originally under the Chinese government; but having revolted, a civil war ensued, which continued some centuries: at last a compromise was effected between the contending parties, wherein it was agreed, that the representative of Din, the first revolter, should enjoy all the executive powers of the government, under the appellation of Chouah; and that the heir of the ancient kings should retain the royal titles, with some other inconsiderable prerogatives, exercised within the limits of his own palace, from whence neither he, nor any of his family, stir but four times in a year, when they are allowed to stay out six days each time, being always attended by officers, or spies, appointed by the chonah. In the mean time, this bua, or real monarch, reigns with the utmost despotism: every subject is obliged to pay him a land-tax, according to his circumstances, and the fertility of his lands; besides which, they are bound to pay him a personal service of six months in every year, for which he only allows them a bare subsistence, and even that is in his power to refuse.

THE KINGDOM OF LAOS.

Boundaries, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS is a rich plentiful country, but is little visited by Europeans. It is bounded on the east by Cochinchina and Tonquin; on the west, by Brama; on the north, by the lake Chamay; and on the south, by Cambodia and Siam. Its extent cannot with certainty be ascertained; but the general opinion is, that it reaches from the 15th to the 25th degree of north latitude.

The most valuable article produced in this country is gum benjamin, which is esteemed the best in quality of any throughout the Indies; it grows in great abundance, and brings so considerable a revenue to the king, that the exportation of it is severely prohibited. The gardens abound with a great variety of fruit, and they have rice in abundance, which, though different in taste from that of any other country, is esteemed the best in the east. They have a great plenty of honey, wax, cotton, amber, and musk; and ivory is so highly valued, from the great number of elephants with which the country abounds, that the teeth are used for fences to their fields and gardens. They have prodigious herds of beeves and buffaloes, and the rivers abound with all kinds of fish, some of which are of an immense size. In these rivers are found gold and silver dust; and in several parts of the country are mines of iron, lead, and tin. Salt is also produced here in great abundance, and prodigious quantities of it are exported to foreign parts. It is formed by a white froth left on the rice-fields after harvest, which afterwards becomes condensed by the heat of the sun.

The inhabitants of Laos, called Langians, are naturally very affable in their disposition; and though they envy such as are in a more eligible situation than themselves, yet they are strictly honest, and appear to be unstrangers to avaricious sentiments. They are in general well-shaped, and though their complexion is of an olive cast, yet they are much fairer than their neighbours: the women are very modest in their carriage, and in other respects little inferior to the women of Portugal.

Their food principally consists of rice, the flesh of the buffalo, and several kinds of pulse: they eat four meals a day, and have very great appetites, notwithstanding which, they are seldom afflicted with any distempers. They sometimes eat fowls, which they dress without plucking off the feathers; and they kill them by striking them on the head with a stick, the shedding of blood being considered as one of the greatest crimes.

Their employment principally consists in husbandry and fishing; but they are naturally of an indolent disposition, nor will they attend business till they are reduced to it from absolute necessity.

A robbery is here seldom heard of, but when such circumstances do happen, if the criminal cannot be found, the neighbours must make restitution to the parties injured.

Their marriage ceremonies consist only in the parties promising before two who have been some years joined in wedlock, that they will be true to each other so long as they shall live; but they often part from the most trifling circumstances, and this may be attributed to the insignificance of the mode by which they are joined together.

If a woman is found guilty of adultery, she is deprived of her liberty, and for the rest of her life is con-

sidered as an abject, and severe treatment inflicted.

Fornication in the talapoins, under severe punishment.

The talapoins in their childhood, when they are improved of, are in a general very indolent, and the most humble and sufferable arrogant.

The Langians who deny the truth, after death, the good assurance, and that a heaven, where they return to the consummate felicity.

The king prevails whether civil or employment are for the purpose of individual purposes as he can be said to exact homage is paid to a foreign, who can monarchs. This his superiority of years, which are his shoulders.

In order to respect for him, and his subjects testify their rejoicings. Several to pay the they acknowledge present.

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severe treatment as her husband shall think proper to
inflict.

Fornication is permitted among the laity, but
the talapoins, or priests, are prohibited from it
under severe punishments. Polygamy is also al
lowed.

The talapoins, or priests, are under tuition from
their childhood till they are twenty-three years of
age, when they undergo an examination, and, if ap
proved of, are immediately appointed to the order of
priesthood. In the exercise of their office, they are in
general very indolent; and though they originate from
the most humble stations, they afterwards assume an in
sufferable arrogance.

The Langians profess the pagan religion. Those
who deny the transmigration of souls, affirm, that the
wicked, after death, are irredeemably lost; but that
the good assume a body of air, as light and pure as the
sun, and that after insensibly passing through sixteen
heavens, where they enjoy the most perfect felicity,
they return to their natural shape, and enjoy a state of
consummate felicity.

The king preserves an unlimited power in all cases,
whether civil or ecclesiastical; and all honours and em
ployments are solely at his disposal: the private prop
erty of individuals is liable to be converted to such
purposes as he shall think proper; so that no family
can be said to enjoy their own possessions. The great
est homage is paid by all ranks of people to the sove
reign, who considers himself as superior to all other
monarchs. The characteristic by which he denotes
his superiority over them, is from the length of his
ears, which are so distended by weights as to hang upon
his shoulders.

In order to impress his people with a due sense of
respect for him, he appears in public twice every year;
and his subjects are so elated on this occasion, that they
testify their gladness by the most distinguished re
joicings. Several tributary kings come to court, in or
der to pay their homage to the king of Laos, and
they acknowledge their submission to him by magnifi
cent presents.

The metropolis of this kingdom is by some called
Lanchang, and by others Lanjeng. It is situated in
the interior part of the kingdom, in 18 deg. north lat.
it is defended on one side by the great river Lao, and
on the other by high walls, and broad ditches. The
palace is very lofty and magnificent, and, with the of
fices and other buildings, extends more than two miles
in circumference. The architecture is exceeding grand,
and the apartments within are furnished in the most
sumptuous manner; the basso-relievo's in particular
are so richly gilt, that they appear as if covered with
panes instead of leaves of gold.

The houses of the better sort are built of wood, are
very lofty and handsome, and elegantly furnished; but
those of the common sort are very low and mean. The

talapoins or priests only have liberty to build their houses
of brick or stone.

COCHIN, OR WESTERN CHINA.

Extent, Boundaries, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS country is about 500 miles in length, but
much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. It
is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, accord
ing to some, from the 8th to the 17th, and, according
to others, from the 12th to the 18th deg. of north lat.
being bounded on the east by the Chinese Sea; on the
west, by Laos and Cambodia; and on the north, by
Tonquin. It was originally a province of Tonquin,
but has for upwards of 300 years formed a distinct
kingdom, and is, like Tonquin, tributary to the Chi
nese emperor.

The houses are built of canes entwined together, so
that the walls resemble the sides of a wicker basket,
and these they plaster over with a kind of mortar made
of dirt or lime.

The inhabitants of this kingdom resemble the Sia
mese in their stature and complexion, and the sexes are
scarce distinguishable by their dress, which consists of
a long gown, bound round them with a sash: people of
distinction usually wear silk, but they prefer English
broad-cloth, when it is to be purchased: the inferior
sort wear cotton cloth, dyed of a dark colour. They
are excellent mechanics, and very fair dealers. Their
chief food is rice, pulse, and fish variously dressed and
seasoned. Their common drink is tea, and they
have also some strong liquors, brewed or distilled
from rice. Their government is nearly the same as
that of China.

The king has an absolute power over the lives and
fortunes of his subjects, and conducts all the affairs of
his dominions in the most despotic manner, without
consulting his ministers. His revenues, which are im
mense, arise from the sale of odoriferous woods, gold
dust, and elephants teeth. One third of all the rice
produced in the kingdom is his, and he receives yearly
tributes of considerable value from all the provinces
subject to him, besides other prodigious taxes and ad
vantages.

The religion, marriages, funeral ceremonies, &c. of
the Cochinchinese, are the same as those of the Ton
quinefe.

CAMBODIA, OR CAMBOYA, is situated on the east
side of the Gulf of Siam. Its greatest length, from
north to south, is about 520 English miles; and its
greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398 miles;
being bounded, on the west, by Cochinchina; by the
Indian-Ocean, on the south; and by the kingdom of
Laos, and the Keinois mountains, on the north. The
river

river Mecon, which is very spacious, runs through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other noxious animals bred in the woods.

The soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by sea and land, are much the same with those of the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula.

The betle (already noticed in the general account of this peninsula) is a plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East-Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but it is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans.

The same barbarous magnificence, despotism, ignorance, and idolatry, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula.

Their capital, Cambodia, which is the only city here worth notice, is situated on the river Mecon, about 100 miles from the bar. It is built on a rising ground, in order to avoid the annual overflowings of the river, and principally consists of one large street. About the centre of it is a palace for the residence of the prince; it is a very insignificant edifice, surrounded by a kind of wall, with ramparts, on which are several pieces of artillery.

Between Cambodia and Cochlin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

We shall close our description of this peninsula, with some account of the kingdom of Tipra, or Tipoura, which is bounded by the empire of Ava, and part of China, to the south and east; by Independent Tartary, to the north; by Arracan, to the south-west; and by Indostan, to the west. Lying under the tropic of Cancer, it is exceedingly hot, the air is nevertheless pure and salubrious; but the water is so bad, that it occasions the throats of the inhabitants to swell to a prodigious size.

The sovereign of this country is tributary to the king of Arracan: he exports gold and silver to China in ingots, and in return receives silver, which is coined into two species of currency, at 20d. and 22d. value each: gold is coined into aspers, which are worth about 5s. apiece.

CHAP. XIII.

INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Seas, Bays, Inhabitants, Produce, &c.

THIS extensive empire (including the peninsula west of the Ganges) is 2000 miles in length, and 1500 in breadth; situated between 7 and 40 deg. north lat.

and 66 and 92 deg. east long. and occupies a space of 870,910 square miles. Its boundaries are Utbeck Tartary, and Thibet, on the north; Thibet and the Bay of Bengal on the east; the Indian Ocean, on the south; and the same sea, with Persia, on the west: the Mogul empire, or Indostan, properly so called, being the main land.

The north-east division of India contains the provinces of Bengal Proper, Naugracut, Jessat, Patna, Necbal, Gore, Rotas; whose chief towns and places are Calcutta, Fort William, Hugly, Decca, belonging to the English; Malda, English and Dutch; Chaugan, Cassumbazar, Naugracut, Rajapour, Patna, Necbal, Gore, Rotas.

The north-west division on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river Indus, contains the provinces of Saret, Jesselmere, Tata, or Sinda, Bucknor, Moultan, Haican, Cabul; the chief towns of which are Jagual, Jesselmere, Tata, Buc. nor, Moultan, Haican, Cabul.

The middle division contains the provinces of Candish, Berar, Chitor, Ratipor, Navar, Gualee, Jaggapour, Asmer, or Bando; their chief towns are Madipour, Berar, Chitor, Ratipor, Navar, Gualee, Agra, Delhi, Lahor, Hendowns, Cassimere, Jaggapour, Asmer.

In this climate, the winds generally blow from the south months from the south, and six from the north. In April, May, and the beginning of June, the weather is excessively hot, but there are refreshing sea-breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy, especially if the patients are abstemious.

Indostan is surrounded on three sides by mountains. The most remarkable are those of Caucasus and Naugracut, which divide India from Persia, Utbeck Tartary, and Thibet, and are inhabited by Marattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. The mountains of Balegaut, which run almost the whole length of India from north to south, and cut the peninsula of India in two, are so high, that they stop the western monsoon, the rains beginning sooner on the Malabar coast, than on the coast of Coromandel. These mountains are only passable in certain places, through which roads have been made for the sake of commerce.

The most remarkable rivers are the Indus and the Ganges. The Indus is by the natives called Sindh, or Sindh, and is formed of about ten principal streams, which descend from the Persian and Tartarian mountains on the north-east and north-west.

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commonly styled the River Attock; below Moultan,
is often named the Soor, until it divides itself into
many channels near Tatta, where the principal branch
takes the name of Mehran. Besides these famous ri-
vers, many others water this country, as the Behat, or
Belum, the Hydaspes of Alexander, the Jenau, or
the ancient Acelines, or Beah, Batege, Jumna, and
the Rauvee, formerly the Hydaspes, on the south bank
of which stands the city of Lahore.

The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the
three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have
the sacred virtue of purifying from all pollutions and
sins, those who bathe in them. This religious idea
seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and in-
tended to restrain the natives from emigrating into dif-
ferent countries; for it is remarkable, that the sacred
rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India
where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of
washing away their sins, as they suppose.

The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thi-
bet, with its different branches, runs through the king-
doms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixia, and the upper
provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and La-
hore, being a course of about 3000 miles. The Kist-
na divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs
through the Villapore into the interior parts of the De-
ccan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzarat provinces,
separates Indostan from the Persian dominions.

The seas, bays, and capes, are as follow: the In-
dian-Ocean, the Bay of Bengal, Capes Comorin and
Diu, the Gulf of Cambaya, the Streights of Ra-
manakael.

With respect to the inhabitants, as we have already
made a general review of this great empire, it is there-
fore necessary only to add, to what was said of their
religion and sects, that the fakirs are a kind of Maho-
medan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, prac-
tising the greatest austerities; but many of them are
impostors. Their number is said to be 800,000.
Another set of mendicants are the joghis, who are
fiddlers, and are supposed to be twelve millions in
number, but all of them vagabonds, and have been
impostors, who live by amusing the credulous Gentoos
with foolish fictions. The Banians profess the Gen-
too religion, or somewhat like it: they serve as brokers,
and take their name from their affected innocence
of life.

There are likewise the Persees, or Parses, of Indos-
tan, who are originally the Gauris: they are a most in-
dustrious people, particularly in weaving, and archi-
tecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed of
the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various
names, and which some of the Europeans suppose con-
tain many particulars that would throw some light
upon ancient history, both sacred and profane. Though
this opinion may be countenanced by the few parcels
of those books that have appeared in the world; ne-
vertheless, some think, that the whole is an imposture,

founded upon sacred, traditional, and profane histories,
aided by religion. They are styled worshippers of fire,
and are known as paying divine adoration to it; but,
we are told, only as an emblem of the Divinity, and
as his chief agent in the system of the universe. They
never, indeed, extinguish fire, but will stand for hours
by their lamps, putting up their prayers to God, with
folded hands, and their eyes turned towards heaven
with great marks of devotion. They utter ejaculatory
prayers all day long, and constantly mix business, and
even common conversation, with devotion.

The Persees have a superstitious veneration for cocks
and dogs. They breed great numbers of dogs at their
own houses, and feed them regularly twice every day
with rice and ghee. To all dogs, whether their own,
or not, they are very hospitable. Whenever they see a
dog, they presently call him, and offer him food. If
you walk abroad with a dog in any of their villages,
you presently hear the cry of Jo! Jo! at every turn, each
striving to be the first to entertain your dogs. These
animals are also sacred in all the Turkish dominions.

The dogs on the island of Bombay, a few years ago,
were many of them mad; whereupon an order was
given by the governor, for killing all dogs without ex-
ception. When this order was known, the Persees
were greatly alarmed, met together, and entered into
a solemn league and covenant in defence of their dogs,
threatening to protect their lives at the risque of their
own. It was therefore thought prudent not to insist
on the execution of the decree that had been issued
against those faithful and affectionate domestics, but to
suffer them to live.

Hunting with the bow, as well as the gun, is a com-
mon diversion among the nobility and people of rank,
who often train up leopards to the sports of the field.
Like other people in hot countries, they affect shady
walks and cool fountains. They are fond of tumblers,
mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music, both
from wind and stringed instruments, and play at cards
in their private parties.

Their houses make no appearance, and those of the
commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched,
which renders them subject to fire; but the manufact-
urers choose to work in the open air; and the insides
of houses belonging to principal persons are many of
them magnificent, and in general neat, commodious,
and pleasant.

With respect to trade and manufactures, it appears,
from the most authentic accounts, that the empire of
Indostan, particularly the kingdom or province of Ben-
gal, from the mildness of its climate, the fertility of
its soil, and the natural industry of the Hindoos, has
been always remarkable for its commerce. Every vil-
lage has its canal, every town its river, and the whole
kingdom the Ganges, which falling by various mouths
into the Bay of Bengal, opens a noble communication
with the ocean, for exporting the produce and manu-
factures of this famous country.

While the house of Tamerlane filled the throne of Indostan, the balance of trade was greatly in favour of Bengal. Sensible of the advantages they themselves derived from a free commercial intercourse between their subjects, they were invariably the protectors of merchants. The military ideas which they brought from Tartary, prevented the military servants of the crown from engaging in trade; and therefore monopolies of every kind were discouraged, and almost unknown. No government in Europe was ever more severe against forestalling and regrating, than that of the moguls in India. A small duty was paid to the crown, but this was amply repaid by the noble security given to the merchant.

The commerce of the English, Dutch, French, Danes, and Portuguese, was principally carried on with bullion: and it appears from a very moderate computation, that no less than 917,500*l.* sterling, in bullion, were thrown annually into that kingdom by the Europeans only. The exports of Bengal to the gulphs of Persia and Arabia were very great, and brought home annually in gold into her coffers 375,000*l.* Her trade in opium and piece-goods to the peninsula beyond the Ganges, to the Malayan and Philippine-Islands, brought yearly a balance in her favour of 150,000*l.* The inland trade of Bengal, with the upper provinces of Indostan and Assam 250,000*l.* And the coasting trade with the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar, 100,000*l.* So that the annual balance of trade in favour of Bengal, was 1,852,500*l.* sterling. Out of which take 1,250,000*l.* remitted annually to Delhi, and there remains 602,500*l.* yearly acquisition. Bengal was at that period one of the richest, most populous, and best cultivated kingdoms in the world; but the troubles and civil wars which succeeded, have been attended with the most tragical events. The country has been depopulated, distresses of every kind have succeeded to plenty and ease. Many of the principal cities have been rendered desolate, the most fertile fields laid waste, and near five millions of harmless and industrious people either expelled or destroyed. These dreadful disasters have greatly impoverished this once flourishing country, now become so highly interesting to the subjects of Great-Britain.

The Mahometan merchants in India carry on a great trade with Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of this empire, up the Red-Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels, called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca, they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver: so that a Mahometan junk is often worth 200,000*l.* on his return from his voyage.

Before we enter upon a description of the provinces and cities of Indostan, it may be proper to observe, that the British nation possesses in full sovereignty, the

the whole foubah of Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar. In Orissa, or Orissa, only the districts of Midnapour. The whole possessions contain about 150,000 square miles, and ten millions of inhabitants. With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable course of the Ganges, from its entry on the plains to the sea, which is more than 1350 miles.

The only places worth mentioning, in the middle provinces of Indostan, are Agra and Delhi.

Agra is the capital of the province of that name; it was founded in the year 1566, by Eckbar, who called it Eckbarabat, and made it the metropolis of his empire. It is situated in 26 degrees north latitude, and in 79 degrees east longitude from London: it lies on the river Gemma, about 700 miles north-east of Surat, a journey which the caravans generally perform in nine weeks, and about 500 leagues north of Pondicherry on the Coromandel coast. This is the greatest city in all the Indies, containing 40 large towns, and 340 villages. It stands in the middle of a sandy plain, which greatly adds to the heat of the climate; it is about eight miles long, but not near so broad; and no part is fortified but the palace; there are, however, generally a great number of soldiers here.

The houses are so situated, as to command an agreeable prospect of the river, and, according to Tavernier, are at some distance from each other encompassed by lofty walls. The buildings of the omrahs and other great men are of stone, and elegantly constructed. The great numbers of mosques, caravanseras, squares, baths, and reservoirs, intermixed with gardens, trees, and flowers, render this place extremely pleasant; and the royal palace is a magnificent structure, situated in the form of a crescent on the banks of the river, defended by a lofty stone wall mounted with cannon, and encompassed by a broad moat, across which are draw-bridges; and there is a terrace garden cut through, with canals of running water, mixed with verdant plats and summer-houses, forming a most pleasing scene. The palace is divided from the city by a large noble square, where the rajahs alternately mount guard at the two outer gates, facing the principal streets of the city. On entering the first gate of the palace, a fine stone walk presents itself, with canals on each side of it; and further on is seen a spacious square, in which the omrahs assemble, and the Mahometan guards are mustered. Still further on, the eye is presented with another grand square or court, which leads to the Durbar (another spacious court) originally the place of resort for persons who had audience of the emperor; during which interval a band of music always played, while the imperial monarch sat on a throne of jewels.

In 1638, this city had no less than 70 mosques. There are 800 purifying baths in it; and near it stands that grand piece of architecture the mausoleum, which 20,000 men were 22 years in building. The Dutch have a factory here, but not the English.

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situated in the heart of the empire, is in 78 degrees east longitude from London, and in 26 degrees north latitude: it stands in the form of a crescent on the river Gemma, which divides it; and it is distinguished into three towns, lying within about 120 miles north of Agra, in a fine plentiful country, where the air is more cool and salubrious than at Agra. The first town that was built, is said to have had nine castles and fifty-two gates. At some distance is a stone bridge, and a delightful plantation of trees, leading to the second town, which was taken from the Indians by the first Mogul conqueror, who afterwards demolished it.

The city of Delhi is entered by a long street, with arches on each side of it, under which are the shops of the tradesmen. This street leads directly to the palace, the entrance of which are a couple of elephant figures, on whose backs ride two famous rajahs, representatives of two brothers, who lost their lives in bravely defending certain towns laid siege to by Eckbar. The palace wall, which is of hewn stone, with battlements, and every tenth battlement having a tower, is not much less than two miles in circumference. The ditches encompassing the wall are full of water, and are likewise lined with hewn stone.

The houses of the great, which are on the banks of the river, or in the suburbs, are spacious and airy, having large courts, cellars, gardens, groves, ponds, fountains, and enormous fans on each side, for cooling the air. The poorer sort live in houses built with clay; and wretched, which have convenient courts and gardens.

Here is a market for all sorts of green and dry fruits, which are brought from Persia and other countries; but they are in general exceeding dear; melons, in particular, have been sold from 6s. to 8s. each.

In this city there are scarce any mechanics, not from want of skill in the people, but from the ill treatment of the omrabs, who, if they can meet with them, oblige them to work, and reward them according to their own discretion.

Tatta, the capital of the province of Sinda, is situated on a fine plain: it is about three miles in length, and about one and a half in breadth. Here is a palace for the nabob, and also a citadel. This city is famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, forty miles a day; ten being generally hired, who usually carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves.

The citadel in Tatta, which stands at the west end of the town, has barracks and stables, capable of accommodating between 20 and 30,000 men and horse. The road at Tatta is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Moultan is not a very fruitful province, yet it yields excellent iron and canes. Its capital is not very large, nor does it carry on any considerable trade, but is famous for the excellent bows made there, and its nimble dancers. It is, by the course of the river, about 800 miles from the sea. The inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses.

The province of Cassimere is entirely surrounded by mountains, excepting two or three narrow passages, which conduct the traveller into its delightful plains. It is said to contain an hundred thousand villages stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey; and the capital, which is called by some Cassimere, and by others Sirenaker, is a very large city. It is situated near a fine lake, and so delightfully diversified with canals and gardens, that the moguls give it the appellation of the Paradise of the Indies. The inhabitants, particularly the women, are as fair as the Europeans. They are celebrated for their wit and dexterity, and are exceeding ingenious in making curious toys, which they sell in every part of the Indies. They likewise carry on a curious manufacture of shawls, which are made either of the wool of the country, being finer than that of Spain, or of hair, finer than beaver, taken from a wild goat, in Great Thibet. They are very light and warm, for which reason the Indians wear them round their heads in the winter.

Lahor is one of the largest and most fruitful provinces in the Indies, being well watered, and abounding in rice, corn, fruits, good wine, and the best sugars in all Indostan. The capital also, called Lahor, was once no less than three leagues in length, but is now greatly decayed. The inhabitants carry on several manufactures, and all those of India flourish in the different towns of this province.

The province of Afmer, which lies south-west of Delhi, and west of Agra, is divided into three lesser provinces or districts, called Bando, Jessmere, and Soret. The capital city is Afmer, which is tolerably large, and carries on a great trade in salt-petre. Pilgrims from all parts of India resort to this city, in order to pay their devotions at the tomb of Khoja Mondi, a Mahometan saint.

The province of Kabul, or Kabulestan, is remarkable only for its productions of drugs, canes, and iron. In the two last articles a considerable trade is carried on with the Persians and Tartars, who barter their horses for them. This province, besides Kabul, its capital, which is very large, contains a number of small cities, towns, and villages.

Patna, situated in the Upper Ganges, is thought the most famous province in the universe for the cultivation of opium, but it is far inferior in strength to that made in Syria and Persia. The capital, of the same name, is one of the largest cities in India. The English and Dutch have factories here.

The province or soubahship of Malva, lying to the west

west of Bengal, we know little of; Sindia and Halkar divide the largest part of it. The capital of the former is Ongein; and of Halkar, the city of Indoor. It is as fertile as the other provinces.

Candish includes the province of Berar and part of Orixa: its capital is Brampur, or Burhanpoor, a flourishing city, and it carries on a vast trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered stuffs. Cattack is the capital of Orixa, and lies in the only road between Bengal and the northern circars, and belongs to the Berar, Rajah, Moodajee Boola, whose dominions are very extensive. Of the five northern circars, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore, Condapilly, and Gunton, the latter is in the hands of the Nizam, the rest are in possession of the English.

The province of Bengal gives name to the most considerable gulf in Asia, divides the two peninsulas of the Indies; and is perhaps, of all the Indian provinces, the most interesting to an English reader. It is upwards of 240 leagues from east to west; and its natural situation (as described by Major Rennels, late surveyor-general in Bengal) is singularly happy with respect to security from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and east, it hath no warlike neighbours, and hath moreover a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers, or extensive wastes, towards those quarters, should an enemy start up. On the south is a sea-coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, and with only one port, which is difficult of access in an extent of 300 miles. An enemy can only be apprehended on the west; but there the natural barrier is strong, and with its population and resources, and the usual proportion of British troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any part of Indostan which was inclined to become its enemy. It is estimated to be the store-house of the East-Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry, and other trees: here is likewise an herb, from which very beautiful stuffs and tapetries are made. Its calicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the river, being full of cities, towns, villages, and castles. The English company's forces established in Bengal are very considerable. The power is invested in Europeans, though the bulk of the army consists of natives.

The worship of the Gentoos, in its greatest purity, is practised in Bengal; and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women are said to be lascivious and enticing, notwithstanding their religion.

Calcutta is the principal English factory in Bengal: it is called Fort-William, and situated on the river Hugly, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. The

fort itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenient apartments for their accommodation. As the town itself has been in fact for some time in possession of the company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company.

Afterwards, in 1773, an act of parliament was passed, to regulate the affairs of the East-India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, the governor-general and four counsellors were appointed, and chosen by the parliament, with whom was vested the whole military and civil government of the presidency of Fort-William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the terrestrial acquisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, so long as the company should be in possession of them.

The governor-general and council, so appointed, are invested with the power of superintending and controlling the government and management of the presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen: they are likewise to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correspond with them: and are empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort-William, to consist of a chief justice, and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majesty: these are to exercise all criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction; to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort-William, and its limits; and the factories subordinate thereto.

But the establishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted either the interests of the East-India Company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and customs of the people; acts of great oppression and injustice have been committed, and the supreme court has been a source of great dissatisfaction, disorder, and confusion. We must refer the reader to our account in the History of England, for the subsequent regulations respecting the East-India territories and company.

In 1757, the soubah of Bengal, whose indignation had been raised by some procedures of the company, invested Calcutta, which was then in a defenceless state. The governor, and some of the principal persons of the places, alarmed at the appearance of a very numerous army, threw themselves, with their chief effects on board the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours, defended the fort; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black-Hole, &

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Supreme court does not interfere with the interests of the people; acts of great oppression committed, and the result of great dissatisfaction, must refer the reader to the history of England, for the full details of the East-India territories

of Bengal, whose indignation against the measures of the company, and the death of a defenceless man, were the principal persons of the company, and the variance of a very number of the company with their chief officers, and the death of those who remained, for but their ammunition was exhausted upon terms. The company, a tyrant, instead of being treated as Mr. Holwell, the governor, and British subjects, into the Black-Hole, &c.

about eighteen feet square, and shut up from all communication of free air. Their miseries, during the night, were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible frenzy, in consequence of fevers, and an excessive thirst occasioned by the violent heat of the place. Among those who survived was Mr. Holwell himself, who transmitted to the company a most affecting account of the catastrophe.

The insensible Nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had rooted the English out of his dominions; but the reasonable arrival of Admiral Watson, and Colonel (afterwards Lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place; and the war was soon concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the Nabob Suraj, Dowlaja, in whose place Mhir Jaffer, one of his generals, and who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master and amply reward the English, was advanced to the Nabobship. After the unfortunate Mr. Holwell and his friends had obtained their discharge, they took boat, and arrived at Corcomadad, a Dutch settlement, whence they embarked and sailed for England.

The Nabob of Bengal keeps his court at Muxadabad, or Moorshedabad: Benares lying in the same province, is the seat of the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity. This zemindary, which includes also the circars of Jazayer and Chunar, constituted a part of the dominions of Oude till 1744, when its tribute or quit-rent of twenty-four lacs, was transferred to the English.

The principal place possessed by the French in Bengal is Chandernagore, which lies higher up the river than Calcutta: but though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals, Watson and Pococke, and Colonel Clive; and the same place was obliged to surrender in the last war, but restored by the peace.

Hugly, which is fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well-fortified factory, erected in an open place, at a small distance from the river. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 20,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugly, for about fifty miles further.

Dacca is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an English and a Dutch factory. The town is situated in 24 degrees north lat. the soil is fertile, the situation fine, and the richest commodities of India and Europe are brought to its market. It receives considerable advantages from its cottons, from which are produced striped and

worked muslins, more valuable in their texture than those made in any other parts of India. The best and finest embroideries in gold, silver, or silk, are manufactured here.

The other chief towns are Cassumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them abounding in the manufactures of India.

The provinces described above, are those which belong to the mogul's empire to the north of the peninsula within the Ganges. In our account of the peninsula itself, we shall take notice of the provinces that lie to the southward.

THE HISTORY OF INDIA.

THE famous Alexander of Macedon was the first invader, worthy to be noticed, of this extensive and fruitful country. Where the fortresses of Rötus now stands, on the banks of the Behar, he is supposed to have put in execution his stratagem for crossing the river, whilst the opposite shore was possessed by Porus, whom Alexander defeated, but afterwards restored to him his dominions, as a reward for his bravery in defending them. Zinghis Khan also directed his force there in 1221, and obliged the emperor to forsake his capital. The seat of government was indeed often changed, either by necessity or choice, as from Gaza to Delhi, to Lahor, Agra, and Canase. This last place was in the reign of Porus, and for ages, the capital of Indostan, but is now reduced to a middling town, though the ruins are of great extent: it is supposed to be the Palibrotha of the ancients. In the sixth century it contained 30,000 shops in which beetle-nut was sold, and there were also 60,000 bands of musicians, and singers, who paid a tax to government.

Tamerlane the Great was the next conqueror of India: he crossed the Indus nearly at the same place with Alexander. But Mahometan princes had entered, made conquests, and established themselves in this country, long before Tamerlane. Valid the sixth of the Caliphs, named Omniades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the Christian æra, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conquests in India; by which means the Koran was introduced here very early. Mahmoud, son of Sebegetchia, prince of Gazra, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Indostan in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Christian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigor of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Indostan is represented to be immense.

The successors of Mahmoud are called the dynasty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India, till the year 1155, or 1157, when Cofron Schah, the thirteenth and last prince of the Garnavide race, was deposed by Kuffain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides, which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same countries as the Gaznavides their predecessors.

Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor Gaiâ-theddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian, who had been rendered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finished in the year 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, successor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was also cut off by the swords of assassins.

Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who made his appearance in India at the end of the year 1398, descending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian, securing the northern provinces to himself, met with no resistance sufficient to justify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But after an immense slaughter of human victims, he at length rendered himself master, on uniting his conquests of the vast tract of territory from the coast of Smyrna to the borders of the Ganges. The history of Tamerlane's successors, who reigned over Indostan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but all agree in the main, that they were powerful and despotic princes, reigned very magnificently, and committed their provinces to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, whereby their empire was often miserably torn in pieces.

It is highly worthy of remark, that the provinces of Indostan have seldom continued under one head during a period of twenty years, from the earliest history down to the reign of Akbar, who died in the year 1605, amidst the tears of his subjects, who loved him as their father, admired him as their leader, and revered him as their prince. Bold, manly, and enterprising, he was an enemy to oppression; and he hated cruelty, as he was a stranger to fear. This great prince took from his officers the power of oppressing the people. Severe in his justice, he never forgave extortion. He encouraged trade by the invariable protection given to merchants of all nations; regarding neither the religious opinions, nor the countries of men; all who entered his dominions were his subjects, and they had a right to his justice.

In process of time, Bengal, Guzarat, and other provinces, became independent, and sometimes the

empire of Indostan was confined within the proper limits of the province itself: so that the history of it furnishes an excellent lesson to princes, not to grasp at too much dominion; and to mankind, to circumscribe the ambitious designs and undertakings of their rulers. These observations will appear the more just, if we consider, that some parts of the empire were 1000 miles distant from the seat of government: the English conquests in India met those of Tamerlane in a point equidistant from the mouths of the Ganges and Indus, in the year 1744, for they closed their campaign that year at Saldong, 1100 miles from Calcutta.

The famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering his father, brothers, and nephews, mounted the throne of Indostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the Mogul empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the Peninsula within the Ganges, at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and died in the 49th year of his reign, and 90th of his age. It is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750.

From what has been already said of this empire, Aurengzebe seems to have left too much power to the governors of his distant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful despotism, which, while in his hands, preserved the tranquillity of his empire; but when it devolved to his weak, indolent successors, occasioned its overthrow. Four of his grandsons, in 1713, disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest,

Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress so absolutely, that his great omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head.

Furrukhîr, the new emperor, was governed and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Leyl, who abused his power so grossly, that being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, whom they also imprisoned, and afterwards strangled.

The two brothers, after the death of Furrukhîr, raised to the throne a grandson of Aurengzebe, by his daughter. The young emperor, who was only seventeen years of age, proving disagreeable to them, they invested with the sovereignty his elder brother, who took the title of

Shah Jehan. On his accession, the rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called "pacta conventa," when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and

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Shah Jehan was put in peaceable possession of the em-
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prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of
Mohammed Shah. This monarch entered into pri-
vate measures with his great rajahs for destroying the
seids, who were declared enemies to Nizamul Muluck,
one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is
said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to de-
clare himself, against the brothers, and to proclaim
himself soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the
seids, who was assassinated by the emperor's order,
and who immediately advanced to Delhi, to destroy
the other brother; but he no sooner understood what
had happened, than he proclaimed the Sultan Ibrahim,
another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle
fought in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious,
and is said to have used his clemency with great
moderation, for he commended Ibrahim to the prison
from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being
likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual con-
finement, but the emperor took possession of his vast
riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement;
and, upon his death, the emperor abandoned him-
self to the same course of pleasures that had been so
fatal to his predecessors.

As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial
general, and was often employed against the Marattas,
whom he defeated, when they had almost made them-
selves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed
in his soubahship, and was considered as the first
subject in the empire. Authors, however, are not
agreed as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah,
otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to in-
vade Indolstan. It is thought that he had intelligence
of a strong party formed against him at court; but
the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that
Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to
make himself useful by opposing him. The success
of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense
treasure which he carried from Indolstan in 1739. Be-
sides these treasures, he obliged the mogul to surrender
to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attoch and
Sind, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Cabul,
and Gagna, with many other rich and populous prin-
cipalities, the whole of them almost equal in value
to the crown of Persia itself. This invasion cost the
Moguls 200,000 lives.

The plunder made by Nadir Shah is by some ac-
counts, and those strongly authenticated, made to
amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and
thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the
London Gazette of those times. The most moderate
say, that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably
above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the in-
vasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a
period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the
house of Tamerlane.

When Nadir Shah had raised all the money he could

in Delhi, he reinstated the mogul, Mohampaed Shah,
in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country.
A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued;
none being willing to yield obedience to a prince
deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces
to the north-west of the Indus had been ceded to
Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet
Abdalla, his treasurer, an unprincipled man, but pos-
sessed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general
confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to carry
off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby
he was enabled to put himself at the head of an army,
and march against Delhi with 50,000 horse. Thus
was the wealth drawn from Delhi made the means
of continuing those miseries of war which it had at
first subjected them to. In this extremity, Prince
Ahmed Shah, the mogul's eldest son, and the vizier,
with other leading men, took the field, with 80,000
horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried
on with various success, and Mohammed Shah died
before its termination. His son, Ahmed Shah then
mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the em-
pire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected
an independent kingdom, of which Kandahar is the
capital, and the Indus is the general boundary to
the east.

Before the invasion of Nadir Shah, the Marattas, a
warlike nation, possessing the south-western peninsula
of India, had exacted a chart or tribute from the em-
pire, arising out of the revenues of the province of
Bengal, which being withheld, in consequence of the
enfeebled state of the empire, the Marattas became cla-
morous. The kingdom began to totter to its founda-
tion; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from
Delhi, laying claim to jaghires and to districts. The
country was distracted by civil wars, and groaned under
every species of domestic confusion.

Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, after which
much greater dissensions and disturbances prevailed in
this country; whereby the people were involved in great
calamities. After this, the imperial dignity of Indolstan
was vested in Shah Allum, or Zadah, who is universally
acknowledged to be a real descendant from the Tamer-
lane race. A perpetual commission, for the office of
receiver-general of the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and
Orissa, was obtained from him for the company. In
consideration of this imperial mandate, which conferred
the government of Bengal for ever on the company, Shah
Allum was to receive an annual pension of 325,000l.
The annuity was moderate to the lineal successor of
Tamerlane. He was at the same time guaranteed in
the possession of the province of Allahabad; and thus a
kind of provision was made for a prince who retained
nothing of what belonged to his illustrious ancestors,
but the empty title of emperor of Indolstan, since he de-
pends upon the protection of the English, whose interest
it is to sup, out him

We have no doubt but many of our readers will be
entertained

entertained with the perusal of the petition of a mock monarch, who styles himself "Great Mogul; Emperor of Indostan; the Invincible Conqueror of the Universe; King of the world," &c. &c. &c. to a company of merchants.

"The Humble Petition of the Grand Mogul, to the President and Council at Bengal."

"If this country is to be kept, put me in possession of it, and leave a small detachment of troops with me, to shew that I am protected by the English, and they shall be at my expence; that if any enemy comes at any time against me, I will make such connections in the country, that with my own troops, and the aforementioned small detachment, I will defend the country without any further assistance from the English; and "I will pay them, out of the revenues of the country, what sum they shall demand yearly." If the English will, contrary to their interest, make peace with the vizier, I will go to Dehli; for I cannot think of returning again into the hands of a man who has used me so ill. I have no friends I depend upon more than the English; their former behaviour to me will make me ever respect and regard them. Now is their time to be in possession of a country abounding with riches and treasure: "I shall be satisfied with whatever share they please of it." The Rohillas were always enemies to the imperious vizier: they are all my friends."

This singular petition, which was dated from the camp at Banares, 22 Nov. 1764, was transmitted to the council by Major Heëtor Monro.

To conclude, notwithstanding the pleasing prospects wherewith the minds of ambitious and avaricious individuals may be blinded, while they flatter themselves with the gratification of their sordid and dishonourable wishes by plundering and distressing their innocent neighbours; it is certainly the interest of the East-India company, that their governments in India should interfere as little as possible in the domestic or national quarrels of the powers in India, and that they should always endeavour to be in a state of peace and amity with them. But it has unfortunately happened that they have not adhered to these maxims of sound policy; inasmuch as the governors and servants of the East-India company have unnecessarily, and sometimes very wrongfully, interfered with the disputes between the Indian princes, whereby they have embroiled themselves, and taken an active part in wars of a very pernicious and unjustifiable nature. Those in which they have been engaged with the Marattas, and with that enterprising prince Hyder Ally, lately deceased, but who is succeeded by a warlike son, Tippoo Saib, have been attended with an enormous expence, and been extremely prejudicial to the interests of the company, and the British nation at large. By exciting the indignation of the country princes against them, they have greatly lessened the security of the possessions of the company; and by temporary plaus-

of violence and injustice, and sometimes by an infringement of their own treaties, they have forfeited the opinion of the natives, whose good will and friendship it had been their wisdom to cultivate and preserve. But we hope the time is not far distant, when the Supreme Council of the nation will make suitable provision for establishing our East-India affairs upon a more equitable and solid basis.

C H A P. XIV.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

European Settlements, Rivers, Mountains, &c.

THE south-east coast of India, situate on the bay of Bengal, usually called the Coast of Coromandel, comprises the provinces of Madura, Tanjore, east-side of Bishnagar, or Carnatic, Golconda, and Orixa. The chief towns in these provinces are, Madura, containing 16,400 square miles; Tanjore, Tranquebar (Dutch), Negapatam (English), Bishnagar, Porta Nova (Dutch), Fort St. David (English), Pondicherry, Comynore (French), Coblou, Sadraspatan (Dutch), St. Thomas (Portuguese), Fort St. George or Madras (English), Pullicate (Dutch), containing 33,550 square miles; Golconda, containing 62,100 square miles; Ganj, or Coulor, diamond mines; Masulipatam (English and Dutch), Visagapatam (English), Bimlipatan (Dutch), Orixa, Ballasore, (English).

The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar, comprises the west side of Bishnagar, or Carnatic; the provinces of Deccan or Vissapour; Cambray, or Guzarat. The chief towns are, Tegapatam (Dutch), Anjengo (English), Cochin (Dutch), Calicut, Tellicherry (English), Canannore (Dutch); Mangalore, Barcelore (Dutch and Portuguese), Radconda (diamond mines), Cawar (English), Goa (Portuguese), Rajapoor (French), Dabul (English), Dundee, Shouia (Portuguese), Bombay (isle and town, English), Bassien (Portuguese), Salfette (English), Damon (Portuguese), Surat, Swalley, Barak (English and Dutch), Amedabad, Cambaya, Dicu (Portuguese).

The rivers in this peninsula are, the famous Krishna, a principal branch of which passes within 30 miles east of Poonah, where it is named Beurah, and is esteemed a sacred river; the Puddar and Godaven, which last is also esteemed as a sacred river; the Cattack, or Mahanada, the mouths of which have never been traced; the Soane and Nerbudda.

A chain of mountains, which we have already taken notice of, run from north to south of this part of India, and render it winter on one side of the Peninsula, while it is summer on the other. Towards the latter end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, attended by prodigious and constant rains, which continue four months; during which time the weather is serene on the eastern side,

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known by the appellation of the coast of Coromandel. About the end of October, the rainy season, and the change of the monsoon, begin on the Coromandel coast, which being entirely unprovided with good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time; and to this are owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast.

The AIR of this peninsula is naturally hot, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast.

The SOIL is in general fruitful, and its productions are the same with those already mentioned in the other parts of the East-Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, noxious creatures, and insects.

There is great reason to suppose that the INHABITANTS of this part are the descendants of a colony which have migrated hither from Ethiopia, as their complexions are blacker than those of the other peninsula of India. The great part of them have but a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indollan, whose tribute from hence has been, ever since the invasion of Nadir Shah, intercepted by their soubahs and nabobs, who now exercise an independent power in the government; but besides these soubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many estates in this peninsula belong to rajahs or lords, who are the descendants of their old princes, and look upon themselves as independent on the mogul and his authority.

As one soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government according to his own conveniency; it would on these accounts be more conformable to the present state of this peninsula to divide it into soubahships than into provinces; but the ancient division into provinces is still continued, and the whole country considered as composed of two principal parts, called the coast of Coromandel, and the coast of Malabar. These are subdivided into provinces, and in these the greater part of the European factories in India are established.

The province of Madura, which begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost part of the peninsula, is about as extensive as the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to be governed by a monarch, who has seventy tributary princes under him, each being independent in his own principality, only paying him a tax. This province produces nothing valuable, except a pearl fishery, which is on its coast. The capital is also called Madura, and the other principal towns in it are Trilhirapalli, Manapar, where the Dutch have a factory, and Tutukurin, a large sea-port, which, together with several smaller, belong to the Dutch.

To the east of Madura lies the small kingdom of Tanjore, the soil of which is exceedingly fertile, and

its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him; the chief places in it are Tanjore, the capital, which is governed by a rajah under the English protection.

Negapatan, a Dutch colony and fortress, was taken from them during the last war, and confirmed to the English by the last treaty of peace; and Tranquebar, belonging to the Danes. The king's revenues are said to be very considerable.

North of Tanjore lies the kingdom of Karnata, better known to us by the appellation of the Carnatic. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda, on the west by Vissipour, and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore. It is about 345 miles in length, from south to north, and 276 in breadth, from east to west. This country is in general fertile, and contains a considerable number of cities and towns. The whole kingdom is divided into small principalities, whose princes are all independent in their respective territories, but at the same time subordinate to the Great Mogul.

The most remarkable places on the sea-coast, commonly called the Coromandel coast, are the following, viz. Porto Nova, where the Portuguese are very numerous, and the English and Dutch have also some houses.

Fort St. David's, which, with the district round it, belongs to the English, who purchased it in 1686, from a Maratta prince, for ninety thousand pagodas. The fort is tolerably strong, and the country, which extends eight miles every way, fertile and pleasant.

Pondicherry, which lies about five leagues to the north of Fort St. David's, and was formerly the principal place belonging to the French in the East-Indies. It has been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by treaties of peace.

Madras, or Fort St. George, the capital of the English East-India settlements, is divided into two parts, called the White and Black Towns. It stands fronting the sea, and has a salt-water river on the land side, which prevents all fresh springs from being brought within a mile of the town, and, in the rainy season, causes inundations on one side, while the sea often threatens destruction on the other: so that its situation is far from being either safe or commodious, though it is both healthy and delightful.

The White Town, which is inhabited by Europeans, is walled quite round, and has several bastions and bulwarks to defend it; besides which it is secured by the sea on one side, and a salt river on the other. It is about 400 paces long, and 150 broad. The streets are in general regular, and in the centre of the town stands Fort St. George. The houses are of brick, well built, with flat roofs, and spacious rooms. Here are two elegant churches, one for the Protestants, the other for the Roman Catholics, a good hospital, a mint for coining rupees and pagodas, and a town-hall, under-

noath which is a prison for debtors. The town is a corporation, consisting of a mayor and aldermen, formerly chosen by the burghers, but at present by the governor and his council; in consequence of which every thing is carried on as the governor's will directs, who can annul all decisions in case of debt, or otherwise, made by the court, which is properly a court of conscience. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of the situation of this town, which seems originally owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, that are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, enclosing the contents by palisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. Religions of every kind are tolerated at Madras, every sect having its respective place of worship.

Eighty thousand inhabitants of various nations are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha. The district belonging to Madras does not extend much more than forty miles round, and is of little value for its product.

Immense fortunes have been acquired by the English upon this coast within these forty years, but some of these fortunes appear to have been obtained by the most illicit practices. Some fundamental errors must therefore have crept into the constitution of the East-India Company. The directors considered the riches acquired by their governors and other servants, as being plundered from the company, and accordingly sent out superintendants to control their governors and over-govern servants, and have from time to time changed their governors and members of the council there.

Through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of our government, and the undaunted but fortunate efforts of their military officers, the English East-India Company have acquired so amazing a property in this peninsula, and in Indostan, that it is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and some of their own servants affirm, that, when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions sterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while suffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it arises, is best known to the company; part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is secured on mortgages, for discharging their expences in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective soubahs and nabobs, to whom they have afforded their assistance.

Many rights peculiar to sovereignty, have been exercised by this company; such as those of holding forts, coining money, &c. Those powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the English ministry and parliament have repeatedly interfered; in order to regulate

the affairs of the company; a board of control at home being at length established.

The Moguls are for the most part entirely passive in all the revolutions of their government. The Moors or Mahometans ignorant and treacherous as they appear to have no violent attachment to any religious principles, and are so abject enough to live under any form of government. These considerations manifest the wisdom of not driving them into desperate measures, and thereby affecting an union of their forces which must prove fatal to the British interest there.

It is indeed much to be regretted, that as the government has thought proper to interfere in the affairs of the East-India-Company, it has not also taken some measures to punish those many and infamous instances of oppression, injustice, and cruelty, of which the servants of the company have been guilty, and which have been so loudly complained of both at home and in the Indies. The supreme court lately established at Calcutta, has not answered the purposes for which it was appointed; it has been equally complained of by the servants of the company, and by the natives: many of the latter have been grievously harassed by it, who were not amenable to its jurisdiction; nor has that regard been paid to their manners and customs, which both justice and policy required. These reflections, founded on indubitable facts, we hope will have their due weight with those who have ability and inclination to rectify these enormous abuses of delegated authority.

The Black Town is inhabited by Gentoos, Mahometans, Armenians, Portuguese, and by the merchants of every nation in Asia, together with negroes. It is about a mile and a half in circuit, almost encompassed by a river and the sea; and has of late years been surrounded by a stone wall, with bastions cannon proof. Here is an Armenian church, and several pagods, or Indian temples; but the houses in general are nothing more than thatched cottages. To the north of Madras lies Pullicate, belonging to the Dutch, who have a small fort there, in which they keep a garrison.

The kingdom of Golconda extends 260 miles along the bay of Bengal, in form of a crescent, and is as broad from east to west. The soil, which is fertile, yields annually two crops of rice, and several kinds of grain. Of the grapes, which are remarkably fine, and ripe in January, the inhabitants make a very good white-wine. The country also yields iron, bezoar, mines of iron, steel, and salt, and several of diamonds (of which Raelconda is a very famous one) with other precious stones. Provisions of all kinds are extraordinary cheap; a sheep being bought for a shilling, a fowl for two-pence, and so in proportion. Golconda is subject to a prince called the Nizam, or soubah of the Deccan, who is tributary to the great mogul, has vast revenues arising from lands, customs of merchandise, and provisions, but principally from the diamond-mines and salt. His army is said to be very numerous, consisting generally of 300,000 horse and foot; besides 200 elephants.

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 tremely rich, and the artificers are very skilful in the
 cotton manufactures, which they make so fine, and of
 such lively colours, that many prefer them to silk.
 This kingdom contains several large cities, among
 which are Bagnagar, or Hyderabad, the capital; but
 the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda,
 and comprises the eastern part of Dowlatabad.

East-fourth-east of Golconda lies Masulipatam, where
 the English and Dutch have factories. The English
 have also factories at Ganjam and Visagapatam, on this
 coast; and the Dutch at Narisipore.

The province of Orixá, from whence the English
 company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the
 south of Golconda, extending in length from east to
 west about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is
 governed chiefly by Moodajee Bouslah, and his brother
 Sembajee, allies to the Marattas. In this province
 stands the idolatrous temple of Jagaryunt, which they
 say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular
 pyramidal black stone, of about 4 or 500 pounds
 weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to re-
 present eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with ver-
 million.

The Deccan is a very extensive country, compre-
 ending several large provinces, and some kingdoms;
 particularly those of Basaram, Balagate, Telenga, and
 the kingdom of Visapour. The names, dependencies,
 and governments of those provinces are extremely un-
 settled, and have been subject to almost annual revolu-
 tions and alterations since their reduction by Aureng-
 zee, or his father; so that modern geographers are
 not agreed upon their exact situation and extent. The
 principal towns are Aurungabad, and Doltabad, or
 Dowlatabad; the latter is the strongest place in all In-
 dia. In a plain of about two leagues square, stand
 the famous pagods of Elora. The tombs, chapels,
 temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that sur-
 round it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and
 to surpass all the other efforts of human art.

Telenga is situated on the east of Golconda. Beder,
 its capital, is a very large city, surrounded by brick
 walls, and garrisoned with 3000 horse and foot.
 The inhabitants speak a language peculiar to them-
 selves.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cam-
 baya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by
 a fierce, rapacious people. It is said to contain thirty-
 five cities. Amedabad is the capital of the province,
 where there is an English factory, and is said to vie in
 wealth with the richest towns in Europe.

Surat, where the English have a factory, lies at the
 distance of about forty-three French leagues from
 Guzerat.

The kingdom of Visapour is very extensive: the
 western part of it is called Konkan, and is intermin-
 ed with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of
 Visapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six

millions sterling, and to bring into the field 150,000
 horse and foot. The capital is of the same name, and
 the country very fruitful. The principal places on this
 coast are Daman, Bassaim-Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl,
 Dandi-Rajah-pur, Dabul-Rajah-pur, Gheriah, and
 Vingorla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable
 possessions on this coast, and those which remain are
 on the decline.

There are also many islands on this coast, among
 which is that of Bombay, belonging to the English
 East-India Company. It is about seven miles in
 length, and twenty in circumference. It originally
 belonged to the Portuguese, and was given to
 Charles II. as part of the portion he received with the
 infant of Portugal, who gave it to the East-India
 Company; and the island is still divided into three
 Roman-Catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese,
 and what are called Popish-mestizo, and Canarins; the
 former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portu-
 guese, and the other the aborigines of the country.
 The Portuguese gave it the appellation of Boonbay,
 from the excellency of its harbour, which, it is said,
 will conveniently hold a thousand sail of ships. The
 chief town is near a mile long, but filled with very
 mean houses, except a few belonging to the Portuguese.
 At a small distance from it stands the fort, but not in
 the most advantageous situation. The soil of the island
 is in general sterile, the principal produce of it being
 fine groves of cocoa-nut trees; and in the gardens are
 found several sorts of Indian fruits. The air and cli-
 mate are rather unhealthy, particularly to strangers;
 and the best water to be had, is what the people catch
 in cisterns during the great rains, for that contained in
 the wells has a brackish disagreeable taste. The inha-
 bitants, who are a mixture of several nations, amount
 in all to near 60,000, and every one enjoys the practice
 of his religion unmolested. The posts of the governor
 and council of Bombay, as well as those of the officers
 under them, are lucrative; and the troops on the island
 are commanded by English officers. The natives,
 when formed into companies, and disciplined, are here,
 and in every part of India, distinguished by the appel-
 lation of Seapoys.

The Turks that resort to this place on account of
 trade, are, like the rest of their countrymen, sately,
 grave, and reserved, and honest in their dealings, though
 merchants. The Persians are more gay, lively; and
 conversible, but less honest in matters of trade than the
 faturnine Turks. The Arabians are all life and fire,
 and when they come with you on any subject, will
 make you a fine show in flowing numbers, and a
 musical cadence, though they are the most dishonest of all.
 The Armenians are generally handsome in their fea-
 tures, mild in their tempers, and in their nature kind
 and beneficent: they are a kind of Christians, and an
 honour to that religion, beyond numbers that go from
 England.

Contiguous to Bombay are several other islands, one
 of

of which called Elephanta, contains one of the greatest and most inexplicable antiquities in the world. A figure of an elephant, about seven feet high, rudely carved out of a black stone, is placed on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain, from whence an easy ascent leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the further end of the temple are three gigantic figures, and round it are various others, and groups cut in stone, one of which bears a rude resemblance to the judgment of Solomon. There is also a colonade, and a door of regular architecture: but when, or by whom this prodigious edifice was erected, still is, and in all probability ever will remain a secret. It is certain that it was not built by the Hindoos, the aborigines of this country, as it has not the least appearance of their manner.

South of Bombay lies the island and city of Goa, the chief settlements of the Portuguese in the East-Indies. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass, and has one of the finest and strongest ports of this part of the world. Formerly it was a most superb settlement, but is now greatly gone to decay. The Jesuits, before they were suppressed, had five houses here, and it is said their revenues were equal to those of the crown of Portugal. The number of inhabitants are supposed to be about 27,000, of which the native Portuguese form a very small proportion. The natives are as black as jet, having long black hair, and many of them very fine features. The men are, in general, proud, jealous, revengeful, indolent, and indigent; and the women lazy and lascivious. Goa, and all the Portuguese settlements on this coast, are under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the ancient grandeur of the government, though the power and credit of it are in a manner lost. The Peninsula of Salzete, with some other places, are dependent on Goa, but they are of very little consequence, otherwise than as they supply that city with provisions.

South of the Portuguese territories lies Sunda, which is governed by a rajah, subject to the great mogul. The mountains in this country are said to yield the finest pepper in the world. The only place worthy notice in it is Corwar, where the English have a factory, and it is the most pleasant and healthy settlement belonging to the company on the Malabar coast. Their government here is under the direction of a chief and council, and the garrison consists of thirty Seapoys, besides English.

About forty miles to the south of Goa lies Canoree, which reaches as far as Calicut. It is a pleasant country, and prodigiously fertile in rice, large quantities of which are imported into Europe, besides supplying several parts of India. The Canorees are generally excellent sojourners and miners, and very attentive to com-

merce. Their language, which is termed Kanoor, is spoken, with some variation of dialect, from the borders of Malabar to Surat. The principal places in it are Bedmur, Onar, Batakolo, Barfeloar, Baktabar, Molkey, and Mangalore, which is the greatest mart-trade in all the Canoree dominions.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the company formerly made a peace, but with whom the servants soon after embroiled them, and who in the late war made a violent irruption into the Carnatic, took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the conclusion of the war. He is said to be a native of Mysore, which lies to the south-west of the Carnatic. The Christians of the apostle St. Thomas live at the foot of the Gatti mountains.

The dominions of Tippoo Saib, son of Hyder Ally, comprehend generally the provinces of Mysore, Canore, Zaimbalore, Zanaree, and Dindigal, besides his acquisitions to the northward from the Marattas: they are at least 400 miles in length, and in breadth from 80 to 130, so that he hath the largest share in the peninsula.

Malabar, which gives its name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, taken in its most extensive sense, contains not only the country under that name to the west of Cape Comorin, but also those to the east, as far as Negapatan. But in the more contracted and modern sense of the word, Malabar is now confined only to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Comorin, and known by the appellation of the dominion of the Samorin. This country is about 200 miles in length, and from eighty to twenty in breadth. The air is exceeding good, and the soil as fertile as any in Asia; usually yielding two crops annually. Formerly Malabar was united under one emperor, called the Samorin; but it is now divided into a number of small principalities, most of which are independent.

The most remarkable places in this country, are Cannanore, which contains a Dutch factory and fort; Tillicherry, where the English have a small settlement, and keep a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. The chief trade consists in pepper and cardamoms. Burgara, Kota, Tikorey, Calicut, where the French and Portuguese have small factories; Tanmore, Pranancy, Chitiva, where the Dutch have a factory; Kranganor, where there is also a factory belonging to the Dutch; and Cochin. Among the inhabitants of the last, are several thousand Jews, who have a synagogue about two miles from the city, in which are preserved their records engraven on copper-plates, in Hebrew characters. They call themselves a remnant of the tribe of Manassih, a part whereof was, by order of Nebuchadnezzar, carried to the most eastern province of his extensive empire, which it seems reached as far as Cape Comorin. The Dutch have a settlement, and a garrison of 300 men at Cochin, the king

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being in fact only their vassal. In Porkey, Hoilkoi- man, and Koyloan, the Dutch have also factories; to which we may add Erwa, where the Danes have a small factory; Anjengo, where the English have a fort and settlement, being the most southerly position they have on the Malabar coast; Tegapatan, where the Dutch have a factory, and Holicha. All these towns are situated along the coast, but there are several within land, some of which are very considerable.

Cape Comorin, which is about three leagues in extent, forms the most southern part of this peninsula. In this small space one has often the pleasure of seeing summer and winter united; for the trees will be loaded with blossoms and fruit on one side of a garden, while on the other they are stripped of all their leaves. This phenomenon is owing to the mountains of Gatti, mentioned before, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are continually at variance; blowing from the west on the western side, and from the east on the eastern.

CHAP. XV.
P E R S I A .

Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Name, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Chief Cities, Islands, &c.

MODERN Persia is situated between the 44th and 70th deg. of east longitude, and between the 25th and 44th deg. of north latitude. It is about 2300 miles in length, and 1100 in breadth; and contains 800,000 square miles. It is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which separate it from Circassian Tartary, on the north-west; by the Caspian Sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Ubeck Tartary, on the north-east; by India, on the east; by Arabia and Turkey, on the west; and by the Indian-Ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south.

Geographers in general divide this extensive empire into the following provinces, viz. On the frontiers of India are Chorasan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Esterabad; Sablestan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigistan, the ancient Drangianna. The southern division contains Makran, Kerman, the ancient Gedrossia, and Farsistan, the ancient Persia. The south-west division, on the frontiers of Persia, contains the provinces of Churistan, the ancient Susiana, and Iac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-west division, lying between the Caspian Sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghistan, part of the ancient

Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

With respect to its name, it is probable that the word Persia is only a corruption of the word Parthia, and that the modern Persians derive their name from their progenitors the Parthians, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The word itself implies a houseman; the Persians and Parthians having always been famed for their skill in horsemanship. The ancient poets derived its name from Persius, the son of Jupiter and Danae, which appears too fabulous to deserve a preference.

The air of this vast kingdom varies prodigiously, according to the different situation of places. In the midland provinces of Persia, it is serene, pure, and exhilarating, but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates to the midland parts noxious blasts, which are often so fatal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans. Those provinces which are in the neighbourhood of Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian Sea, are piercing cold, which may be attributed to the snow with which the summits of these mountains are perpetually covered.

The soil and productions vary like the air. Towards Tartary and the Caspian Sea, the soil is far from being luxuriant, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and other luxuries of life, is equalled by few others. It produces wine and oil in plenty, fenna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pistachio-nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-stuff; not to mention vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific quality, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafoetida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum: some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity. Tobacco grows all over Persia, and saffron is cultivated in many parts of it.

There is no country in the world which contains more mountains than India, some of the chief of which form natural bulwarks to this extensive empire. Among these are Caucasus and Ararat, sometimes called the mountains of Daghistan, which fill all the isthmus

isthmus between the Euxine and Caspian Seas. This enormous ridge, together with its branches, run through the country from Natolia to India.

Most of these mountains yield iron, copper, brags, and lead; as also sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony. Turquoise-stones are found in Chorassan; and quarries of red, white, and black marble, have been discovered near Taurus. Natural salt is produced in the province of Caramania.

There are few navigable rivers in Persia. The most considerable are those of Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rises in or near the mountains of Araxes, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian Sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated, even with boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Ufbeck-Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and on the west, the Tigris and Euphrates.

The scarcity of rivers in Persia is consequently attended by a scarcity of water, which defect, however, is supplied in many places by aqueducts, canals, and reservoirs. In the province of Tabristan, or Masanderan, the waters are so fetid, that by often overflowing part of the country, they change even the complexions of the inhabitants.

With respect to the Gaures, or ancient Persians, they were homely, ill-shaped, and clumsy, with a rough skin, and olive complexion; but the modern Persians, by the intermarriages of their ancestors, for a series of years, with the Georgian, Circassian, and other beautiful women, are of a good stature, shape, and complexion: the latter indeed differ according to the situation of provinces. The women are in general handsome and well-shaped.

The men shave their heads; those only that are young indeed suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chins to reach up to their temples. The religious have long beards, and on their heads a square cap, ten or twelve inches high. All wear turbans; and those belonging to people of distinction are exceeding magnificent, being often interwoven with gold and silver. The rest of their dress consists of a calico shirt, the collar of which is open; then a vest, which, reaching below the knee, is girt round the middle with a sash, in which they place a dagger, and over that a loose garment, somewhat shorter, and linen trowsers. Their clothes are usually made of the richest furs, silks, muslins, cottons, or some other fine and valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear slippers on their feet, and pliant boots of yellow leather on their legs. The dress of the women does not differ materially from that of the men, only their vests are longer; and they wear a stiffened cap on their heads, with their hair flowing loose. Pearls and jewels of all kinds are disposed about their heads and persons with great taste,

and they omit no pains to heighten their natural beauty by washes and paints.

The Persians; in their manners, are brave, sensible, lively, humane, and hospitable. Their only faults seem to be profuseness and vanity; for the richness of their clothes, their superb equipages, and the amazing number of their servants, too often exceed their finances, and bring them into difficulties. They usually breakfast on coffee, very early in the morning, and dine upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk, at eleven. Supper is their chief meal, which usually consists of a dish of pilau. They never use either knives, forks, or spoons; neither do they eat pork, or any other animal prohibited to the Jews. All their meat is seasoned very high with salt and spices, and they always dress it the same day it is killed: their bread, which is excellent, is baked into thin cakes, which saves them the trouble of cutting it. At their meals, the cloth is spread upon a carpet, and they all sit cross-legged upon the floor; but when Europeans visit them, they are generally accommodated with stools. Their usual drink is water and sherbet, wine being prohibited: great quantities of it are, however, drank, particularly by the officers and soldiers, and none make any scruple of intoxicating themselves with opium. They are immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth; and they are so attached to this amusement, that whenever it has been prohibited by their princes, many have been known to quit their country. The Persians are not less jealous of their women than the Turks, and there is no country where they are more strictly watched and confined, particularly in the harems of their princes, and great men. When the king's women reanove, they are sent away in covered litters, with a strong guard; and on these occasions, all men who reside in the places through which they are to pass, receive orders to quit their habitations, on pain of death; by which it appears, that they are not less jealous of their women than the Turks and other eastern nations.

The Persians are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, such as hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild-beasts; and privately playing at games of chance, as these are prohibited by law, under severe penalties. They excel in archery, as their ancestors, the ancient Parthians, did.

They write, like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and amazingly expeditious in the art. As no printing is allowed in Persia, the number of people employed in their manuscripts is incredible: their writing is beyond description beautiful and correct: they write eight different hands, but esteem that most

which the Koran requires to be written in.

The Persian monarch is a hereditary monarch, and is attended by a great number of superintendants of his affairs, and allowed by law to have as many concubines as they please; and more than one. The monarch is attended by a great number of wives, though the law obliges him to pay the bride-price. We are told that any determined to marry in Tartary; and that he is obliged to slay some of his concubines, or judge of his wife to slay. The monarch has a number of concubines, and is free from all taxes. A gentleman of quality is obliged to pay an embassy to Persia.

There has not been any time agreed upon for the Persians to give up their law, or to expose themselves to the voracious persons who are known to kindle fires of war, or to give signals to others to offer up prayer, or to give the word of repentance.

The breath of the surviving relations, and the shouting, and the clamour, and the expression of grief, and the declaration of the coffin is wrapped in a cloth, which many papers are written. The fact is, that the Persians, like the Mecca, and an Arabian.

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The Persian marriages are usually founded upon
mercenary motives, the legal wife being considered as
superintendent of the other women. They are in-
deed allowed by law to have four wives, and as many
concubines as they please; but they seldom marry any
more than one. If a man wants to part from his wife
through mere whim, and wants to be divorced from
her, though she hath not committed any fault, he is
obliged to pay the dowry contracted for at the mar-
riage. We are told, that men may marry for life, or
for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through
the Tartary; and that travellers or merchants, who in-
tend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to
the cadec, or judge, for a wife during the time he pro-
poses to stay. The cadec, for a stated gratuity, pro-
cures a number of girls, whom he declares to be ho-
nest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for
them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian
ambassy to Persia, declares, that, amongst thousands,
there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during
the time agreed upon.

The Persians in general bury their dead; but the
Gauss expose them to be devoured by beasts of prey, or
other voracious creatures.

When a person is on the point of expiring, the Per-
sians kindle fires at the tops of their houses, which
serve as signals to their neighbours and travelling stran-
gers to offer up their prayers for the patient. The
mollah or priest being sent for, he exhorts the sick per-
son to repentance, who usually says, *taube*, or I do re-
pent. The breath is no sooner out of the body, than
the surviving relations and friends set up a terrible
screaming, and, like the Irish, make use of many af-
fectionate expressions to the dead corpse, bewailing his
state, and declaring their affliction to be past remedy.
The coffin is wrapped in a kind of winding-sheet, on
which many passages of the Koran are stamped or
written. The face of the dead person is laid towards
Mecca, and an arch is built on that side near the grave.

The religion at present established in Persia, is that
of Mahomet, but they differ from the Turks by follow-
ing the sect of Ali; for which reason, the Turks, who
believe to the succession of Omar and Abu Bekr, call
them heretics. Their religious notions are, if possible,
in some respects, more sanctifical and sensual than those
of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with
some Bramin superstitions. When they are taxed by
the Christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of
them do, they retort upon them very justly, "You
Christians whore and get drunk, though you know you
are committing sins, which is the very case with us."

Respecting the Bramins, the comparison between them
and the Persian Guebres, or Gauss, who pretend to be
the disciples and successors of the ancient Magi, the
followers of Zoroaster, may well deserve a learned dis-
quisition: it may be easily proved, that both of them

held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Be-
ing; but the Indian Bramins and Parrees accute the
Gauss, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized
those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into
the government of the world. A combustible ground,
about ten miles distant from Baku, is the scene of the
Guebres devotions. It must be admitted, that the
ground is impregnated with very surprising inflamma-
tory qualities, and contains several old little temples, in
one of which the Guebres pretend to preserve the sa-
cred flame of the universal fire which rises from the
end, and a large hollow cane stuck in the ground, re-
sembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. Their
sect is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very
few places. The Mahometans are the declared ene-
mies of the Gauss, who were banished out of Persia by
Shah Abbas. The present race of Persians are said to
be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly
to their late wars with the Turks.

The ancient Christians seem to have been early
driven into Persia and the neighbouring countries, by
the long wars between the Romans and Persians: even
to this day, many sects are found that evidently have
Christianity for the ground-work of their religion.
Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of qui-
etists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the
moral duties. The Sabeen Christians have, in their re-
ligion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism: they
are numerous towards the Persian Gulf. The Arme-
nian and Georgian Christians are also very numerous in
Persia.

The Persian language is spoken in common through-
out the whole empire, but more correctly in some pro-
vinces than others. The Turkish, however, is the polite
or court language. Many of the learned Persians have
written in the Arabic, and the higher class have adopt-
ed it as the modish language, as we do the French.
The common people towards the southern coasts of the
Caspian Sea speak Turkish; and the Arabic probably
was introduced into Persia under the caliphates, when
learning flourished in those countries. The pure Persic
is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast
of the Persian gulf, and in Isfahan; but in many of the
provinces they speak a barbarous mixture of the Turk-
ish, Russian, and other languages. Their pater-noster
is of the following tenor: "Ei padre ma kih der of-
" moni; pac bafched mām tu; bayayed padefchahi tu;
" sehwad chwāste tu henjunāaukih der ofmon nīz
" derzemīn; bēh mārā jmrōuz nān kefāf rouz marā;
" wadargudfar marā konāhan ma zjunankitima nīz mig
" farim ormān marā; wador ozmajīfeh mīnedāzzmarā;
" likin chalās kun marā ez efcherir." Amen.

The Persian alphabet consists of twenty-eight let-
ters, none of which are vowels; their accent serves in
lieu thereof, and points out how the voice is to be mo-
dulated, and the consonants pronounced; they have no
stops, but begin every sentence with a capital letter;
but in whatever language they write, always make use

of Arabic characters; and, instead of quills, use reeds to make pens of.

In ancient times, the Persians were famed for learning and learned men; and their poets were renowned all over the east. A manuscript at Oxford contains the lives of 125 of the finest Persian poets: Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said to be a glorious monument of eastern genius and learning. Sadi was a native of Schiras, flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces both in prose and verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent Lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhtheb wrote in Persian a book called "The Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccaccio. Jami, who flourished in the middle of the sixteenth century, was a most animated and elegant poet: his beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford, in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

Learning is now at a very low ebb 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: they place an implicit confidence in their astrologers, who are all natives of Chorassan, and pretend to be descended from the ancient Magi. Their almanacks are an absurd mixture of astronomy and judicial astrology, morality and predictions; and they understand nothing more of arithmetic than the four fundamental rules. In short, their genius is but little cultivated by education, and less by experience, as they never travel into foreign countries; and the sameness of customs and manners in their own, does not afford a sufficient variety for observation and improvement.

The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; many diseases also are equally rare here, that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed; and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body. They are also totally unacquainted with anatomy.

The Persians salute by an inclination of the head, and putting the right hand to the breast upon the heart. Before the sovereign and great men, they bow with their faces three times towards the ground; but in their relations and familiar companions salute thus: he who pays the compliment, presses one of the other person's hands between both his own, and then gently raises it up to his forehead, which is expressive of the highest and most cordial esteem.

The most magnificent remains of antiquity in Persia are the ruins of Persepolis, the ancient metropolis of that kingdom, consisting of superb columns, spacious stair-cases, grand portals, and beautiful pilasters adorned with figures in basso relievo. Accurate descriptions of these superb remains of antiquity may be found in Sir John Chardin's and M. le Brun's Travels, and in the sixth volume of the ancient part of the Universal History. About a league distance from these ruins is a famous mountain, situated between two fine plains, to which the natives give the several appellations of Kabraston Gauron, Nachs-Kulstan, and Tak-Kulstan. It is an entire rock, harder and capable of a better polish than marble. Having been levelled by art, its sides are quite perpendicular, so that it has the appearance of a large wall; and upon it are a variety of figures, represented in bass relief with great skill and beauty. At a small distance from these figures are several tombs cut out of the rock, with two small edifices, and several inscriptions. These are supposed to have been the burial-places of the ancient kings of Persia, and many of the inscriptions and figures are yet perfect; but others, through the brutal zeal of the Mahometans, who think it meritorious to destroy all kinds of images, and the injuries of time, are almost defaced. At Ispahan is a pillar, erected by Shah Abbas, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts. It is said that some of his subjects having rebelled against him, he made a vow, that, on subduing them, he would erect such a pillar of their skulls; but, upon their submission, he relented, and substituted those of brutes, obliging each of the rebels to find one.

The river Mahmoudker, or the deafening river, is a very surprising natural curiosity. At some distance from Ispahan there is a range of rocks, plain and even for a considerable space, except that here and there they have openings, like the embrasures of battlements; through these the winds pass with amazing velocity. The river falls from these rocks into a noble basin, partly wrought by the water itself, and partly by art. In ascending the mountain the water is seen at the bottom of it like a sleeping lake, interspersed with rocks. It is supposed to be unfathomable, and, when stones are thrown into it, they cause a most amazing noise, which almost deafens the hearer, from which circumstance it, in all probability, derives its name. Many are of opinion that this river does not derive its water from springs, but from the snow on the

tops of the mountains, which runs through the hills.

Near Gombroon there are many cures performed, among the natural springs, and a fire at Baku has been the subject of religion.

The Persian mode of worship; they adore the sun and the moon; before the temples are covered with white stones; before the roof is supported by columns, which serve for pillars. The Persians go into the temples six towers, called minarets, and the open galleries, as well as the monuments, are adorned with gilt tiles. From thence, instead of prayer by certain persons, as at Sultanias, there is a sermon, and there is a sepulchre, which is the founder of the religion. The stones are of fine polished stone, and of any church is made of white stones. A fountain; the tower is surrounded by a structure of white stones, which gratifies the curiosity.

No woman is allowed to see a man with his face, and the mosques is a square, and during three days of the year, the conveniences for the poor are provided. Near the mosque is a triumphal arch.

The Persian buildings are square, and the walls are tiled, and each is covered with tiles. The building is a large square, and is divided into three rooms; the second contains a fountain.

When the boys go to the temple, they blow a horn, and the men bathe in the river in the afternoon about four o'clock. The women are not allowed to bathe in the river, but they have baths in the

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Near Gombroon are some baths, which, for the
innumerable cures performed by them, justly merit a place
among the natural curiosities of Persia. The everlast-
ing fire at Baku has been already mentioned under the
article of religion.

The Persian mosques are buildings set apart for pub-
lic worship: they are of a square form, and generally
of stone; before the chief gate there is a square court,
paved with white marble, and low galleries round it,
whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those gal-
leries serve for places of ablution, before the Maho-
metans go into the mosque. About every mosque there
are six 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 embellishments; and
from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called
to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose.
At Sultania, once a noble city, but now greatly de-
cayed, there is a prodigious large mosque, that con-
tains the sepulchre of Sultan Mahomet Chabadende,
the founder of the city. This mosque hath three gates
of fine polished steel, which equal in bigness the gates
of any church in Europe; the roof is of blue and
white stones. At the entrance of it there is a beautiful
fountain; the tower, which is of an octagonal form,
is surrounded by eight other towers. Upon the whole,
it is a structure which astonishes the imagination, and
justifies the curiosity.

No woman is allowed to enter the mosque; nor can
a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most
mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers
during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with
conveniences for reading the Koran, and praying.
Near the mosque founded by Shah Ismael, are the
ruins of a triumphal arch built of free-stone.

The Persian bagnios are usually round, though some
few are square. The roofs are covered with painted
tiles, the walls are of a beautiful kind of white stone;
each is covered with a dome. In the centre of the
building is a large hall, floored with marble, and a
capacious basin to bathe, round which are the apart-
ments to dress and undress in. Each bagnio contains
three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the
second contains the water, and the third the bath.

When the baths are ready in the morning, a servant
goes to the terrace on the top of the building, and
blows a horn, to give public notice of the same. The
men bathe in the morning, and the women in the after-
noon about four o'clock. When the men have done
bathing, the male attendants all withdraw, and are suc-
ceeded by the females, who are appointed to attend the
women. No people of any very great consideration,
however, go to the public baths, as they generally
have baths in their own houses.

Bathing is not only enjoined to the Persians by their
religion, but it is particularly conducive to their health,
on account of their never entirely undressing themselves
when they go to rest. Add to this, they reckon it
among their principal pleasures.

Besides being well rubbed by the attendants at the
bagnios, the barbers shave them with incredible dif-
patch and ease, and there cut the nails both of their
hands and feet, chafe the flesh, and give them a very
rough pull of both the arms, in order to stretch the
nerves.

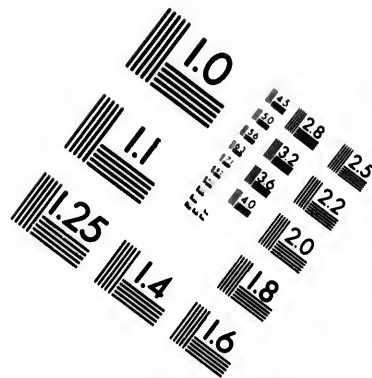
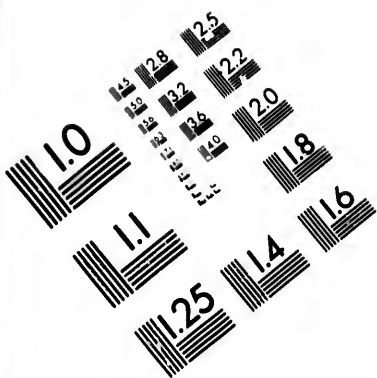
The Persian harams, or seraglio's, which are appro-
priated for the women, are, from the most credible
accounts of them, contrived according to the taste and
conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain
number of apartments; and as there is no country in
the world where women are so strictly guarded and con-
fined as among the great men in Persia, these rooms
therefore are seldom or never entered by strangers.

With respect to manufactures and commerce, it has
been justly remarked, that the Persians equal, if not
exceed all the manufacturers in the world in silk,
woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works
in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness,
neatness, and shew; and yet they are ignorant of
painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their
dyeing excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold
laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their
lustre. Their embroideries and horse-furniture are
unequaled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and
window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their
carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to
be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia.
Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen,
and they are ignorant of lock-making and the manu-
facture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie
under inexpressible hardships from the form of their
government, which renders them slaves to their kings,
who often engross either their labour or profits, as the
exigencies of the state, or other lucrative motives, may
prompt them.

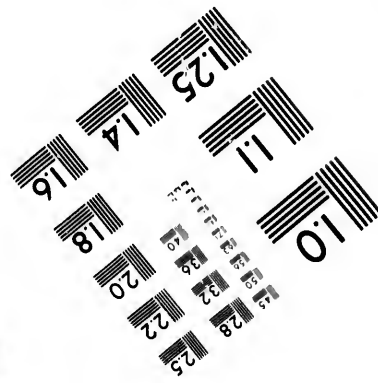
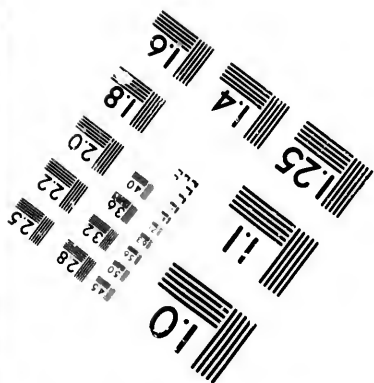
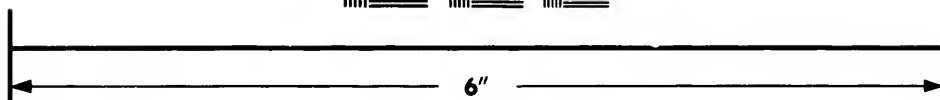
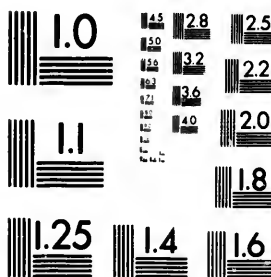
As the Persians have little or no shipping, their trade
is chiefly carried on in foreign bottoms. That between
the English and other nations, by the gulph of Ormus,
at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the
perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined
their commerce. The great scheme of the English, in
trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast
advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered
the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Pe-
tersburgh is not fond of suffering the English to establish
themselves upon the Caspian Sea, the navigation of
which is now possessed by the Russians; but till the go-
vernment of Persia is in a more settled state than at pre-
sent, we can say nothing with certainty on that head.

THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF PERSIA
are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a
despotic and often capricious monarch. The Persians,
however,





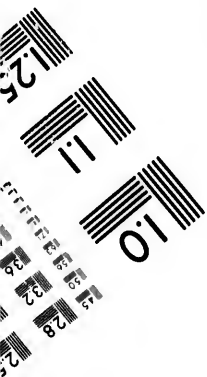
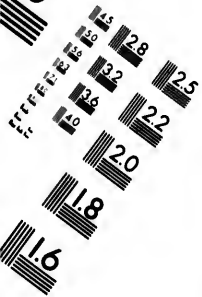
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however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects, the king's will was a law for the people. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity.

No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The crown claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. Even the water, that is let into fields and gardens, is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat per head. The governors of the provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops, and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. From the above statement, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Persian kings were prodigious; but, in the present distracted state of that country, nothing can be said with any certainty.

The military strength of Persia consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The troops are distinguished into two bodies called Kortkies and Goulans: these are cavalry, and upon a peace-establishment, the former amount to about 22,000, and the latter to about 8,000 men; they are generally well kept, and regularly paid. The kortkies are the descendants of foreigners, and the goulans are made up of Georgian renegades and slaves of all nations. The tangchies or infantry are composed of the most hardy peasants, and amount to about 50,000 men. The regular troops of horse and foot brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; and according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat.

The fortified towns and places in Persia, are in general despicable, and they had no great naval power till the time of Kouli Khan, who built a royal fleet, in which was a man of war of eighty guns; but it is imagined that they are laid up in the ports, and rot-

ten, as nothing hath been heard of them since the death of that usurper. The arms of Persia are a lion couchant looking at the sun as he rises over his head. The emperor's title of Shah signifies Disposer of kingdoms. The Persian monarch does not subscribe his name to public instruments, but the deed runs in this style, viz. "This edict or act is given by him whom the universe obeys."

From the distracted state of Persia for many successive years, the political division of the provinces cannot be ascertained; but the most remarkable places in the empire have been visited of late years by several merchants and others, who went upon embassies; the most authentic and interesting of whose accounts we shall borrow for the information of our readers, by describing some of their cities and principal towns.

Ispahan, the capital of Persia, is situated in a delightful and extensive plain, surrounded by mountains on the banks of the river Zenderoud, over which there are three fine bridges. The fertility of the soil, the mildness of the seasons, and the fine temperature of the air, all conspire to render this city one of the most inviting and desirable in the world. The mountains with which it is surrounded, defend it equally from the sultry heats of the summer, and the piercing winds of the winter seasons; and the plain on which it stands is watered by several rivers, which contribute both to its ornament and use; the water of these streams being sweet, pleasant, and wholesome, almost beyond comparison.

The extent of Ispahan is very great, not less, perhaps, than twenty miles within the walls, which are of earth, poorly built, and so covered with houses and shaded with gardens, that in many places it is difficult to discover them. The number of inhabitants were formerly computed at 650,000; but since the reign of Kouli Khan, who almost depopulated the city, the number is vastly decreased, not one third of the houses being inhabited, and many of them levelled with the ground.

The streets are in general long, narrow, crooked, and unpaved; but some of them are broad and handsome, adorned with canals and fountains, and, on each side a row of lofty trees planted. As it seldom rains here, the city is rendered extremely disagreeable in summer by the dust; though the citizens, to remove this inconvenience as much as possible, frequently cause the streets to be watered, during the intense heat.

Most of the public buildings are rather neat than magnificent, though here are some sumptuous palaces, and handsome houses. The royal palace is very spacious, being near a league and a half in compass, and contains some very grand apartments. The royal mosque, the Kayserich, where all sorts of foreign commodities are exposed to sale, and the mint, called Serrah Khoneh, where the current money of the kingdom is coined, are all noble structures; and the royal square, or Meidan Shah, is one of the finest in the

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world. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 ca
raneras, 160 public baths, and a prodigious number
of fine squares.

This city has eight, or, as some say, ten gates, be
sides posterns; the suburbs are very large, and, besides
atives, Ispahan formerly contained above 10,000 In
dians, all supported by trade, 20,000 Georgians, Cir
cassians, and Tartars; with a considerable number of
English, Dutch, and Portuguese, and a few French.

The bridge at Zulpha, one of the suburbs of Ispa
han, is esteemed the finest structure in Persia. It is
built of brick, with edgings of free-stone, and is almost
level, the middle of it being not much higher than the
sides. It is above 300 paces in length, and 20 in
breadth, and supported by a great number of low
stone arches. On each side is a gallery eight or nine
feet broad, extending from one end to the other, raised
several steps above the level of the bridge, with a num
ber of apertures to let in the air and light, and give a
prospect of the river. These galleries or covered walks
are not entirely appropriated to foot passengers; they
are frequently used by horsemen in winter, when the
river overflows, and fills the middle passage of the
bridge, which is properly designed for horses. Over
the galleries is a platform, but so much exposed to the
sun that it is seldom frequented. The most remark
able part of this bridge is a passage along the bed of
the river, when the water is low in summer, for the
convenience of foot passengers in that hot season; for
the stones are so placed, that a person may step from
one to the other without wetting his shoes; and proper
openings are made through the piers, from one end of
the bridge to the other.

Gombroon, or, as the natives call it, Bander-Abassli,
owes its present wealth and grandeur to the demolition
of Ormus, and the destruction of the Portuguese em
pire in the East-Indies. It was built by the great Shah
Abbas, and is now very justly esteemed one of the chief
ports in the East.

This city is large, and, from the extensive commerce
carried on in it, by the English and Dutch factories,
as well as the natives, is extremely populous; but its
situation is remarkably bad. It is defended on the
land-side by a single wall only; but towards the sea
are erected several small forts, with a platform, two
castles, and two stone bastions, mounted with cannon,
to secure it and the road from the attempts of an
enemy.

The streets are narrow, and the houses in most of
them so out of repair, some half ruined, and others
entirely so, that a stranger would suppose the town had
been sacked and ravaged by an enemy, not a vestige of
the wealth really contained in the place appearing in
view. The Banians, or shop-keepers, have most of
them tolerable houses; they are in general built of
earth and lime, but the better fort are of stone; most
of them have ventilators on the top, which contributes
greatly to the health of the inhabitants.

Gombroon is an unhealthy place; the most sickly
months are from April to October, during which time
the genteel part of the inhabitants retire into the coun
try, winter being the only time for commerce.

There are great plenty of sheep, goats, hares, pigeons,
partridges, &c. and wheat in such abundance, that the
poor subsist chiefly on bread and dates. Rice is im
ported from India; and the adjacent country affords
apricots, peaches, pomegranates, and other delicious
fruits in great abundance. But amidst all these advan
tages there is the greatest scarcity of fresh water, not a
spring or well is found in the town, or nearer to it than
Athen, from which place all the inhabitants of this city
are supplied with water, though at the distance of seven
miles; and persons of condition keep a camel constantly
employed in fetching fresh and wholesome water.

About the year 1631 the English began to settle here,
when, in consideration of their services against the Por
tuguese, Shah Abbas granted them half the customs of
that port. They enjoyed this lucrative donation, till
they began to neglect the services they had stipulated,
when it was taken from them. They have still a fac
tory here, and at Athen they have a country-house with
noble gardens, to which the factors repair for their
amusement. As the natives have no ships of their own,
and are entirely ignorant of navigation, they send their
goods to Surat, and other Indian marts, in English and
Dutch bottoms, at an exorbitant price, so that great
part of the company's profit arises from freights.

The commodities of the Gombroon market are, fine
wines of different kinds; raisins, almonds, prunellas,
dates, pistachio nuts, ginger, silks, carpets, leather,
galbanum, ammoniac, assaetida, tragacanth, with
other gums, and a variety of drugs.

In 33 deg. 51 min. of north lat. lies the city of
Katschan, in the midst of a fine fertile plain; this is
one of the finest cities in Persia, the houses in general
being handsome, and the public structures superior to
those of any other city; the country about it is so
fruitful, that the very poorest inhabitants live luxuri
ously. The city is exceeding populous, not only from
the great number of natives, but from the vast influx of
foreigners, who flock thither from all parts, particu
larly from India, to carry on trade; the walls and for
tifications are made of a kind of potter's clay. The
Sophi hath a grand garden here, in the midst of which
is a summer palace, reputed to have a thousand doors
and windows. The greatest inconvenience in Kats
chan is the want of water, as they have not any but
what is ill-tasted, thick, and muddy.

Resched, which is in 31 deg. north lat. and in 50 deg.
long. from London, is the capital of the province of
Ghilan, which is one of the most fertile, rich, and
pleasant provinces in all Persia. It is large and popu
lous, but hath not the least fortification. The streets
are agreeable and planted with trees; but the houses in
general are meaner than those of any other city in the
empire; they are all covered with tiles, or slates.
The

The market-place is capacious, and contains many good shops; and all the necessaries of life are exceedingly cheap.

Derbent is situated in 41 deg. 15 min. north lat. and in 51 deg. east long. it is about three miles in length, and near five hundred paces in breadth; the castle and wall are five feet thick, and it is supposed they were built by Alexander the Great. They appear to be built with free-stone, but in reality are a composition of pounded musle-shells, and pieces of free-stone beaten to powder, which being moulded into the form of bricks, are so excellently cemented together, that the whole composition becomes harder than any marble; a garrison of five hundred soldiers is kept here.

Schiras, which lies about two hundred miles to the southward of Ispahan, is a place of considerable trade. The wines made here are the best in Persia; the fruits and flowers are incomparable, and the surrounding country is a perfect paradise; but only about four thousand of the houses are at present inhabited; it is the capital of Pars, the ancient Persia; and its college for the study of oriental literature, is one of the best in Persia. Though the streets are narrow, the buildings in general are superb and elegant, and the mosques are innumerable.

A NEW HISTORY OF PERSIA.

PERSIA has been inhabited from the most early times: it was peopled by Elam the son of Shem, soon after the confusion at Babel. It constituted part of the first monarchy called the Assyrian empire, founded by Nimrod, Belus, or Baal, about 200 years after the Flood. But the foundation of the empire of Persia, singly considered, was laid by Cyrus about the year before Christ 556. This prince, in the first year of his reign, published the famous edict, by which the Jews were permitted to return to Jerusalem; restoring at the same time all the vessels of the temple, which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Judea, and placed in the temple of Belus, his god. The empire continued in its lustre about 227 years, when it terminated in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander the Great.

On the death of that monarch, whose dominions were divided among his principal officers, Persia, together with Babylonia and Syria, fell to the share of Seleucus, the son of Antiochus. The Romans afterwards subdued all the territories possessed by the successors of Alexander's generals, except Persia, which still continued to have princes of its own, who more than once defeated the Roman legions.

The Saracens, about the year 630, made a conquest of Persia, and kept possession of the throne during an interval of 70 years, when they were driven out by the Turks. About the year 1260, the Tartars and Scythians, under the conduct of two of the Sons of Zingis

Khan, defeated the Turks, and took possession of the empire. Tamerlane, after defeating Bajazet, reduced both Persia and Turkey in Asia. On his return to Samarcand, the capital of his dominions, with a great number of Persian captives, Cheik Aider, a doctor of the Mahomedan law, highly esteemed in that country, obtained the release of most of these prisoners. This act of kindness greatly increased his reputation with his countrymen; and Tamerlane having appointed no governor of the western provinces, the Cheik assumed the office; and, pretending that he was lineally descended from Ali, the son-in-law and genuine successor of Mahomet, took upon himself the title of Caliph, which includes both the spiritual and civil jurisdiction. This event happened in the year 1400. Ismael Saphi succeeded his father; and being a brave successful prince, was confirmed in his possession of the throne by the unanimous voice of the people. At his death Shah Tahmas obtained the sceptre of Persia; but being a very cruel prince, he was deposed by his subjects, and his brother Codabundi placed on the throne.

Codabundi deceased in 1585; and was succeeded by his son Shah Abbas, a virtuous and warlike prince. He recovered the province of Candahor from the emperor of Indostan, reduced the kingdoms of Lar and Ormus, and expelled the Turks from great part of Armenia and Georgia. He reigned forty years; and was by far the greatest prince of the Sophi dynasty. He was succeeded by his grandson Shah Sophi, a cruel and tyrannical prince, an enemy to virtue, and a scandal to humanity. His successors followed his steps, till the people, roused at last by their sufferings, exerted the rights of human nature, and in the year 1701 deposed Hussein, a prince of the Sophi race, and put him to death; together with all his family, except Shah Tahmas, who escaped from the rebels, and took refuge in the northern parts of Persia. Mahmud, who headed the rebels, took possession of the throne. He did not, however, long enjoy the imperial sceptre, which he had purchased by the blood of his master; he was soon after murdered by Efref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. In the mean time prince Tahmas raised a powerful army, and was joined by a great number of royalists, and among the rest, by Kouli Khan, a famous partizan on the frontiers of Usbec Tartary. Efref, whose cruelty and injustice had rendered him obnoxious to the people, was defeated, taken prisoner, and put to death. Tahmas ascended the throne of his ancestors, and sent Kouli Khan, at the head of a numerous army, against the Turks. The Persians were victorious, and Kouli Khan recovered all the places the Othmans had taken on the frontiers of Persia during the late troubles. Haughty by nature, and insolent from success, Kouli Khan beheld the honours conferred on him by the Sophi with contempt. He complained that his services were neglected; but nursed in silence the bloody design he had formed against his master. He courted popularity, and when his scheme was ripe for execution, he drop-

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ped the mask that had hitherto concealed his intentions. He assumed the names of Tahmas Kouli Khan and Nadir Shah, rebelled against his sovereign, took him prisoner, and put him secretly to death. All opposition being thus removed, Shah Nadir mounted the Persian throne. Cruel and fierce by nature, and happy only in the midst of war and tumult, the usurper turned his arms against the neighbouring princes. His expedition into Indostan, and the amazing treasure he collected in that famous empire, have been already mentioned in the history of the Indies. Usbeck Tartary next excited the ambition of Kouli Khan; he conquered that country, and thinking his arms invincible, attempted to reduce the Daghestan Tartars; but fortune, that had hitherto attended his standards, now forsook him. He found difficulties which all his ferocious abilities could not remove. The precipices of Daghestan opposed his march, and his victorious army was cut off by Tartar detachments in the defiles of the mountains, without his being able to force the enemy to an engagement. The misfortunes of one campaign were not however sufficient to intimidate Nadir; he led his forces against the Turks, and defeated them in several battles. He laid siege to Bagdat, but could not succeed, and was obliged, after many efforts, to abandon the enterprize. His next attempt for his restless soul could never be idle) was against the religion of his country; he was determined to introduce the tenets of Omar, instead of those of Ali, embraced by the Persians; but soon found that it is much easier to conquer force than bigotry; the great principle of his government was terror, which was ever exerted in vain. Exasperated at an opposition he could not subdue, he became one of the most cruel tyrants that ever disgraced mankind. He put his own sons to death, and formed the detestable design of exterminating all his family and relations. Self-preservation now opposed the diabolical purpose; his actions were those of a madman, and his relations and chief officers assassinated him in his tent. This event happened in the year 1747. The cruelty of Nadir had destroyed all the immediate branches of the royal family, and the throne became the sport of fortune. One pretender after another started up and fell, either by open force, or the secret machinations of treachery. Anarchy and destruction overspread the whole empire; the fields were laid waste, the cities were plundered, the inhabitants murdered, and every district exhibited a scene of horror and of blood. Famine at last reached the sword of destruction, and Kerim Khan was crowned at Tauris in the year 1763. Since that period the Persians have enjoyed the happiness of peace; but it is very probable that the miseries and distress which have been introduced by rebellion, will not for a long time be removed; trade is still in a languishing condition, great part of the country remains uncultivated, and poverty and toil have usurped the place of affluence and ease.

CHAP. XVI.

A R A B I A.

Situation, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, Language, Religion, &c.

ARABIA is situated between the 35th and 60th deg. of east longitude, and between the 12th and 30th of north latitude; extending about 300 miles in length, and 1200 in breadth, and contains 700,000 square miles. It is bounded by Turkey on the north; by Persia and the gulphs of Bassora and Ormus, on the east; by the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west; and by the Indian Ocean, on the south.

This country is divided into, 1. Arabia Petraea, N. W. 2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle. 3. Arabia Felix, S. E. Arabia Petraea has for its chief town, Suez, east long. 33 deg. 27 min. north lat. 29 deg. 50 min.

Arabia Deserta is subdivided into Haggiaz or Mecca, and Tehama; whose chief towns are, Mecca, east long. 43 deg. 30 min. lat. 21 deg. 20 min. Siden, Medina, and Dhafar.

Arabia Felix is subdivided into Mocha, Hadramut, Casheen, Segur, Oman or Muscat, Jamama, and Bahara. The town of Sibt belongs to Mocha, and that of Elcaif to Bahara; the rest are the same as the provinces.

This country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber or free-booter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief, and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandize pass through the country without extorting something from, if not robbing, the owners. Thus concerning the Arabians, who are the posterity of Ithmael, is the prediction in scripture, Gen. xvi. 12. fulfilled, where it is said, "He will be a wild man; his hand will be against every man, and every man's hand against him; and he shall dwell in the presence of all his brethren."

The principal mountains in Arabia are those called Gebel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, and the mountains of Sinai and Horeb, in Arabia Petraea, east of the Red Sea. The latter are situated on the north side of the desert of Sinai, and very steep and high, but not proportionably broad; and though a road is cut all the way up to their summits, the ascent is very difficult and fatiguing.

The principal rivers are the Enphrates, which washes the north-east limits, and the Tigris; both which have been already mentioned in the description of Turkey in Asia. Besides these, there are few rivers, fountains, or springs in this country, which is almost surrounded with seas; namely, the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. Rosalgate and Mussledon are the chief capes or promontories.

Arabia being situated between the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th climates, the longest day in the south is about four

teen hours and an half, and in the north eighteen hours and an half. A considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix; so that the air is excessively dry and hot, and, in many places, very unsalutary, particularly near the coast.

The air is said to be the most sultry and dry in the northern parts; and the hot poisonous winds, which blow there as well as in Persia, often prove fatal to those who breathe them. Towards the south, the heat is somewhat alleviated by the prodigious dews which generally fall in the night, and refresh the earth.

The heat of the climate is greatly increased by the nature of the soil, which, in a great measure, consists of barren rocky mountains, or sandy deserts of prodigious extent, over which there is no beaten path; so that the caravans, obliged by the excessive heat to travel in the night, and having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars. "Here," says Dr. Shaw, "are no pastures stored with flocks, nor valleys standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or oliveyards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no otherwise diversified than by plains covered with sands, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day." This, however, is not to be understood of the southern parts of Arabia, where the soil, refreshed by the dews already mentioned, is in general exceeding fertile.

The cultivated lands in the southern parts of Arabia Felix, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, yield exceeding fine coffee, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, balm of Gilead, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, and cardamoms; oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, dates, and other fruits, with a small quantity of corn and wine. At Betesfagui the coffee tree is cultivated.

The Arabian horses are held in the highest esteem all over Europe for their swiftness and beauty, and preferred to those of any other country for stallions; the best of English horses, particularly, have been much improved by them. The finest sort is in the kingdom of Supnaa, where Mocha is situated. But the most useful animals to the Arabs are their camels and dromedaries, which are fitted by nature for travelling in parched and sandy deserts, their stomachs being formed in such a manner, that they can from thence throw the water up into their throats. This peculiarity enables them to travel seven or eight days without drinking. It is said, that these animals can distinguish the scent of water at a considerable distance, and the instant they smell it set out on a swift trot, and never stop till they reach the spot where it is found. They usually carry eight hundred weight upon their backs, which is never taken off during the longest journeys, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and rise again with their load.

Though the Arabs in general are a wandering people, and consequently very little acquainted with commerce;

there is, however, a considerable trade carried on from Mocha, by the English and Dutch companies sent there, in coffee, alibanum, myrrh, aloes, liquid storax, white and yellow arsenic, gum Arabic, balm of Gilead and other drugs.

As to the inhabitants, they are, in common with most of the Asiatics, of a swarthy complexion, middle stature, and thin, with black hair and eyes. They are said to be a brave people, excellent horsemen, very swift of foot, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. Some of them reside in cities and towns upon the sea-coast, and apply themselves to trade, and cultivate the sciences; but the far greater part have no settled habitation, roving, with their flocks and herds, from place to place, for the conveniency of water and pasture; and carrying their abode in any particular spot, they live in tents. Among themselves, and towards such strangers as they receive as friends, they are honest, civil, and humane; but their general character is that of freebooters or robbers, which the word Arab is said to imply. Their food is chiefly rice, fish, herbs, venison, fowl, and most kinds of flesh; but they prefer that of camels. Like the Jews, they always drain the blood from every thing they eat, and abstain from such fish as have no scales. Their drink is chiefly water and thersbet, for they have no strong liquors.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, girt about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of fur or sheep skins over it. They likewise wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and they have a cap or turban on their heads. Many of them, however, go naked; but the women are so wrapped up, that no part of them can be seen but their eyes.

We shall now give some account of the caravans, and manner of travelling through the deserts.—A caravan implies a company of merchants, travellers, or pilgrims, who, for their greater security, form a troop, in order to assist each other in travelling through the deserts, which are infested by wild Arabs and other banditti. But no caravan can be formed without procuring the permission in writing of the prince in whose dominions the caravan is formed, as well as that of those through whose territories it is to pass. These permissions always express the number of persons and carriages, and the quantity of merchandize, which are to compose the caravan, as well as the merchants to whom the goods belong. They also regulate every thing relating to its police and government, during the whole journey.

Caravans are generally distinguished into four kinds: the heavy caravans, which are composed of elephants, camels, dromedaries, and horses; the light caravans, in which there are but few elephants; the common caravans, in which there are none of those unwieldy animals; and the horse caravans, in which horses only are used.

The heavy caravans are regulated by the following portions: when there are five hundred elephants, they

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ed a thousand camels, a thousand dromedaries, and
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 dromedary, seven men for eleven camels, and five men
 for three dromedaries. This multitude of servants, to-
 gether with the officers and passengers, whose number
 is not limited, serve to support the escort, in case of an
 attack; and therefore render the caravan at once more
 formidable and more secure.

The Arabian princes subsist principally in robbing;
 they traverse the deserts in troops, so that the caravans
 always travel with the greatest precaution, being drawn
 up in a very regular manner. None stray from the ca-
 caravan, nor deviate from the position assigned them at their
 first setting out. The wandering Arabs, as soon as
 they have intelligence of a caravan having entered the
 deserts, send out spies to make the necessary observations
 on the number and force of the escort. If they find
 they are not able to attack the caravan in form, they
 never round it, in order to pilfer from the merchants
 during the night; but, if they think themselves able to
 defeat the escort, they approach boldly, and begin the
 attack with the utmost fury. If the escort stand firm,
 the Arabs generally fly with the greatest precipitation;
 but, being strangers to military discipline, they hardly
 rally after being once repulsed; but, if the escort
 give way, the whole is thrown into confusion, the ca-
 caravan is plundered, and the whole convoy, except the
 foreign merchants, sold for slaves. It is therefore no
 wonder if travellers of all kinds, and even pilgrims
 themselves, who cross these barren tracks from motives
 of devotion, are struck with terror on entering the de-
 deserts. Nor is even the most powerful caravan always
 secure, for they have more than once been attacked and
 plundered. In the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Ara-
 ans, under the command of one of their princes, at-
 tacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning
 from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plun-
 dered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a
 Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mere pirates,
 and make prizes of every vessel they can master, with-
 out distinction.

The whole commerce of the Indies was formerly
 carried on by caravans; but, since the discovery of a
 passage by the Cape of Good Hope, the caravan trade
 has been upon a decline. The dreadful wars carried on
 in the Lesser Asia and Egypt, whereby these rich coun-
 tries were stripped of their wealth and inhabitants, in-
 creased the evil; and the exactions of the Turks, added
 to the late dreadful troubles in Persia, have almost anni-
 hilated the whole. Few caravans now cross the de-
 deserts, except those that pass annually to Mecca on ac-
 count of religion; and even these begin to decline, be-
 cause the merchants are no longer able to carry on their
 former trade with India. The roving Arabs raise a
 contribution on the caravans; those which travel from
 Damas to Mecca procure an uninterrupted journey for
 the consideration of 150,000 livres, to which the grand
 signior is subjected.

Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the
 people in general profess Mahometanism. Of this re-
 ligion we shall give an account in the History of Ma-
 homet, their countryman.

Arabia was, in former ages, famous for learning and
 learned men, who were skilled in all the liberal arts; and
 many of the Arabian performances in physic, astronomy,
 and mathematics, shew the authors have been persons of
 great genius and application; but there is scarcely a coun-
 try at present where the people are so universally ignorant.
 The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Ara-
 bek, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with
 some variation of dialect, over great part of the East,
 from Egypt to the court of the great mogul.

The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to
 be a dialect of the Hebrew, and, by the people of the
 east, accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious
 language in the world, is taught in their schools as
 Greek and Latin is among Europeans, and used by Ma-
 hometans in their worship. The books which treat of
 it, say, they have no less than a thousand terms to ex-
 press the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*.
 In this language the Koran was written, and they will
 not suffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to
 have been the language of Paradise, and think no man
 can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of
 several millions of words.

Sir William Jones has lately translated into English
 seven Arabian poems, called the *Moalakat*, which are
 preserved in the temple of Mecca, or suspended on its
 walls or gates, and afford a fine specimen of oriental
 poetry, as to the dramatic pastoral. As a specimen of
 these poems may serve to gratify the curiosity of our
 readers, and also display a lively and entertaining view
 of the Arabian customs and modes of living, we have
 therefore transcribed from one of them the following
 stanzas:

1. "Desolate are the mansions of the fair, the sta-
 tions in Minia, where they rested, and those where they
 fixed their abodes! Wild are the hills of Goul, and de-
 serted is the summit of Rijam."
2. "The canabs of Rayaan are destroyed: the re-
 mains of them are laid bare, and smoothed by the floods,
 like characters engraved on the solid rocks."
3. "Dear ruins! many a year has been closed,
 many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapsed, since
 I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants."
4. "The rainy constellations of spring have made
 their hills green and luxuriant: the drops from the
 thunder clouds have drenched them with profuse as well
 as with gentle showers."
5. "Showers from every nightly cloud, from every
 cloud veiling the horizon at day-break, and from every
 evening-cloud, responsive with hoarse murmurs." (&c.)
6. "Here the wild eringo-plants raise their heads:
 here the antelopes bring forth their young by the sides
 of the valley, and here the ostriches drop their eggs."
7. "The large eyed wild cows lie suckling their
 young

young a few days old; their young, who will soon become a herd on the plain."

8. "The torrents have cleared the rubbish, and disclosed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer restore effaced letters in a book;"

9. "Or as the black dust, sprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view, with a brighter tint, the blue stains of woad."

10. "I stood asking news of the ruins concerning their lovely habitants; but what avail my questions to dreary rocks, who answer them only by their echo?"

11. "In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once dwelled: but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing now remains but the canals, which encircled their tents; and the Thumaam plants, with which they were repaired."

12. "How were thy tender affections raised, when the damsels of the tribe departed; when they hid themselves in carriages of cotton, like antelopes in their lair; and the tents, as they were struck, gave a piercing sound!"

13. "They were concealed in vehicles, whose sides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine spun curtains and pictured vests."

14. "A company of maidens were seated in them, with black eyes and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of Tudah, or the roes of Wegera, tenderly gazing on their young."

15. "They hastened their camels till the sultry vapour gradually stole them from thy sight, and they seemed to pass through a vale, wild with tamarisks, and rough with large stones, like the valley of Arabia."

The Arabic pater-noster is as follows: "Abinna ell-adhi si-ssamwat; jetkaddas esh-âc; rati malacutac: taouri machhiatic, cama si-ssama; kedhalec ala-lardh aating chobzena ketatna iaum beiaum; wagfor lena donubena, wachataina, cama nogfor-nachna lemen aca doina; walâ tadechehalna shajarib; laken mejjina me nnescherir." Amen.

In these countries, time is measured by hour-glasses; and, in some parts of Arabia Petraea, they have calendars that were left them by their ancestors, which are rather curious, and in which the sun's place, the semi-diurnal and nocturnal arch, the length of the twilight, and the hours of prayer, are inserted in their proper columns, and calculated to a moment.

They know nothing of algebra, or numerical arithmetic, though their ancestors furnished us with the characters of the one, and with the name at least of the other; yet they have a way of reckoning by putting their hands into each other's sleeves, and touching one another with a certain joint or finger so expressively that, without even moving their lips, they can conclude bargains or agreements. They have, however, if you believe them, some wise men among them, who are so skilled in figures as to be able, by certain combinations of numbers, to form the most wonderful calculations. But Arabia is the boasted seat of wonders!

The principal places and cities in Arabia come next under our consideration.

The desert of Sinai is a beautiful plain, near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but, to the southward, is closed by the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole Israelitish camp.

Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush, may be seen from Mount Sinai. On these mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or remarkable transaction recorded in Scripture was performed. But these pious frauds gain no credit with sensible people.

There are few places worthy notice in Arabia. The principal cities are Mecca, Medina, Mocha, Aden, Muscat, and Suez; and those only will be described. The two former are the centre of the devotion of all Mahometans; and the four latter the principal places of trade.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and celebrated for being the birth-place of Mahomet, is situated forty-two miles to the east of the Red Sea, in so barren a spot, that the country round it affords no sustenance either for man or beast; so that the city is supplied with corn, &c. by two caravans, which arrive there, one in the summer, and the other in the winter, annually. All the water from the springs in the town is bitter and unfit to drink, which obliges the inhabitants to prefer the rain water in cisterns. There is indeed a well in the neighbourhood, called by the Arabs Zemzem, to which they hold in the highest veneration, believing it to be the same which the angel pointed out to Hagar when her son Ishmael was perishing with thirst. The pilgrims, who resort to this city, always drink of the water of this well, to which they ascribe a number of fabulous virtues. It is of a brackish taste, and causes eruptions on the bodies of those who drink it in any great quantity.

Hammam Farauin is the name of a hot spring, which rises by two apertures out of a rock, at the foot of a high mountain. It is used in baths by the neighbouring sick, who commonly stay forty days for cure, during which their only food is a fruit called Lalfaf, which grows here. The tradition that the Jews passed this way, and that Pharaoh's army was drowned here, has occasioned this place to receive the name of Birket-el-Farauin. The Arabs imagine that Pharaoh is doing penance at the bottom of this well, and vomits up the sulphurous vapour with which the water is impregnated.

The mosque in this city is esteemed the most magnificent of any temple in the world. Its lofty roof, raised in form of a dome, and covered with gold, and the two beautiful towers, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a most superb appearance, and are conspicuous

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ous at a very great distance. This temple has an
undred gates, with a window over each; is three hun-
red and seventy cubits long, three hundred and fifteen
road, and supported by four hundred and thirty-four
pillars. The Mahometans pretend that this mosque is
ected on the very spot where Abraham built his dwell-
ing-house, which has been preserved ever since, and
stands in the centre of the temple. They call it Al-
Masabah, the Holy House, or chapel, and say, that it
was first erected by Adam; but, being destroyed by the
deluge, was, by the command of God, rebuilt by Abra-
ham and Ishmael. It is about fifteen feet long, twelve
feet broad, and thirty high. The door is of silver; the
walls are constantly covered with hangings of fine silk,
beautifully wrought, and girt round with two belts of
gold, one near the bottom, and the other near the top.
In this house the Mahometans also affirm that their
great prophet was born, and every Mussulman is obliged,
by his religion, to visit it once in his life, or to send a
conspiry; so that the number of pilgrims who annually
resort thither is incredible.

Medina is situated about 250 miles north of Mecca,
and fifty from the Red Sea. It is famous for being the
place which Mahomet chose for his residence when he
was driven out of Mecca, and likewise that of his in-
terment. The mosque, which contains his sepulchre,
is a structure of vast magnificence, and styled the Most
Holy. It is supported by 400 stately columns, and em-
bellished with 300 silver lamps, continually burning.
The cupola, which is but small, is covered with plates
of silver, and under it is raised the prophet's tomb of
white marble, enclosed in such a manner that it can
only be viewed through windows, made for that pur-
pose, and latticed with silver. The inside is enriched
with stones of immense value, particularly that part
which is over the head of the prophet. At the foot of
the coffin is a golden crescent, the workmanship of
which is greatly admired, being curiously wrought, and
adorned with precious stones. The coffin is covered
with cloth of gold, and over it is a rich canopy of silver
tissue, both which are renewed annually by the bashaw
of Egypt, according to the orders he receives, for this
purpose, from the grand seignior. The camel which car-
ries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to
be used in any drudgery afterwards. The old pall and
canopy are always cut to pieces, and sold to the super-
stitious Mahometans as sacred relics. The place where
the coffin lies, is supported by black marble pillars, and
is encompassed by a balustrade of silver, hung with a num-
ber of lamps of the same metal, kept continually burn-
ing. Vast numbers of pilgrims resort to this city, but
not in such multitudes as to Mecca; for this journey is
not enjoined expressly by their religion, though such as
perform it are entitled to great privileges, and esteemed
saints ever after. Christians are forbid approaching
either Mecca or Medina within a limited distance, on
pain of being burnt alive.

Mocha is a port town, situated on the Red Sea, and

gives name to a kingdom of considerable extent along
the southern coast of Arabia. It has four gates and as
many towers; the buildings are lofty, and tolerably regu-
lar: they are covered with a chinam or stucco, that
gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is
semicircular, the circumference of the wall is two miles,
and there are several handsome mosques here. This
city is now the emporium for the trade of all India to
the Red Sea, and the coffee exported from thence is
esteemed superior to that of any other place. It has al-
ready been observed, that the English and Dutch com-
panies have houses there, and carry on a considerable
commerce. The only inconvenience they sustain is
from the violence and exactions of the Arabian princes;
for the king's customs are easy, being fixed at three per
cent. to all Europeans.

Aden is likewise a considerable place for trade, on the
Indian Ocean, being situated in the kingdom, about
120 miles south-east of that city, and not far from the
Streights of Babelmandel. It stands at the foot of several
high mountains, on the summits of which the Arabians
have erected five or six forts, with several fortifications,
to guard the passes. This town is well supplied with
good water, and contains about 6000 inhabitants.

Muschat, or Moscat, and Suez, were formerly places
of considerable strength; but they are now only re-
markable for the trade carried on with the latter by
the Turks, and with the former by the Portuguese.

The city of Suez stands upon the western side, but
not just upon the western extremity of the Arabian gulf.
It is not surrounded with walls; but the houses are
built so closely together that there are only two passages
into the city, of which that nearest the sea is open, the
other shut by a very insufficient gate. The houses are
very sorry structures; the kans being the only solid build-
ings in the city. Hardly any part now remains of the
castle which the Turks built upon the ruins of the an-
cient Kolfum. Suez is very thinly inhabited: among
its inhabitants are some Greeks, and a few families of
Copts; but, about the time of the departure of the fleet,
it is crowded with strangers.

The ground lying around it is all one bed of rock,
slightly covered with sand; scarce a plant is to be seen
any where in the neighbourhood; trees, gardens, mea-
dows, and fields, are entirely unknown at Suez. Fish
is the only article of provisions plentiful here. All
other necessaries of life, for both men and the domestic
animals, are brought from afar, from Cairo, which
is three days journey from Suez; Mount Sinai, at the
distance of six days journey; or Ghasso, at the distance
of seven. There is not a single spring of water.

Ship-building is the chief employment of the inhabi-
tants; although wood and iron, and all the other ma-
terials, are to be brought from Cairo upon camels, and
are consequently very dear. The ships built at Suez
have a very awkward rudder, made of a large beam,
the use of which is dangerous and inconvenient. The
governor of Suez was a bey from Cairo; and he kept a

very numerous household. He was a Mahometan by birth, and the son of a sugar-merchant. This account of Suez is extracted from Mr. Niebuhr's Travels through Arabia, published in 1792.

Mr. Niebuhr, in his travels through Arabia, has given the following description of the city of Loheia in that country. He tells us it has stood only for three centuries: that its founder and patron was a Mahometan saint, called Schiech Saled, who built a hut on the shore where Loheia now stands, and spent there the rest of his days as a hermit. After his death, a kabbet, or house of prayer, was raised over his tomb; and it was afterwards, by degrees, embellished and endowed. Some devout persons, imagining that it would be a great happiness to them to live near the remains of so holy a person, built huts for themselves about his tomb. Nearly at the same time, the harbour of Marabea, a neighbouring city, in which a governor resided, was filled up. The inhabitants, upon this, deserted their city, and settled at Loheia, whither the seat of government was also transferred.

The territory of Loheia is arid and barren. The harbour is so indifferent, that even the smallest vessels are obliged to anchor at a great distance from the city; and when the tide is at ebb, laden boats cannot approach near it. Notwithstanding this disadvantage, a considerable trade in coffee is carried on from Loheia; the coffee is brought from the neighbouring hills, and exposed in one large heap for sale. This coffee is not reputed to be so good as that which comes from Beit el Fakih, and is shipped at Mocha and Hodeida: but coffee is to be purchased here upon more reasonable terms, and the carriage to Jidda costs less.

Loheia, although without walls, is not entirely defenceless. Twelve towers, guarded by soldiers, stand at equal distances round it. These towers resemble those in some of the imperial cities of Germany: the height of its gates renders it necessary to climb up to them upon ladders. Only one of those towers, and that newly built by Emir Farhan, is such as to admit of being defended by cannons: the rest are so ill built, that the Arabs of Hafehid, some time since, made their way through them, and set fire to the city.

Several of the houses in Loheia are built of stone; but the greater part are huts constructed in that fashion which is common among the Arabs. The walls are of mud, mixed with dung, and the roof is thatched with a sort of grass, which is very common there. Around the walls within, are a range of beds made of straw, on which, notwithstanding their simplicity, a person may either sit or lie commodiously enough. Such a house is not large enough to be divided into separate apartments; it has seldom windows, and its door is only a straw mat. When an Arab has a family and cattle, he builds for their accommodation several such huts, and encloses the whole with a strong wooden fence. The population of the cities of Arabia, therefore, cannot be proportionate to

their extent. The water of Loheia is very bad, and is brought from a distance: the best comes two leagues and a half from the city. The common people drink from a well, which is a league from the city. Within two leagues of Loheia, is a small hill, which affords considerable quantities of mineral salt.

The city of Mocha, built about four centuries ago, stands in a very dry and barren situation. Its fortifications are the walls that surround it, some towers on the way to Musa, which are dignified with the name of castles, and two other castles of the same sort upon the two arms of the harbour. The greatest of these castles is called Kalla Tojar, and the smallest Kalla Abdurrah, from the names of two saints, buried in these two places. They are provided with some few pieces of cannon.

The houses in the city are built of stone, and some are handsome: however, there are others, both within and without the walls, no better than the huts common through all the Tehama. In the environs of the city are abundance of date trees, and many agreeable gardens.

The northern parts of Arabia being subject to the Turks, are governed by bashas, of their appointment. The inland country is under the jurisdiction of several petty princes, denominated Xerifs and Imans, who, in spiritual as well as temporal affairs, seem to be absolute, guiding themselves by no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The wandering Arabs are governed by sheikhs and emirs. A sheikh superintends a particular collection of tents, which are called dow-wars; but an emir rules over a whole tribe, and, consequently, their authority extends to many of these dow-wars. There is one distinguished by the title of grand-emir, who is in some respects superior to the rest, tho' his authority is often disputed.

The Arabs have no standing regular militia, but their chief commands both the persons and purties of the subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires. The people are distributed into several clans; and the whole number of inhabitants are supposed to amount to about two millions.

THE HISTORY OF THE ARABS, AND OF MAHOMET, THEIR PROPHET.

THE Arabs, even from the earliest times, have been a free and independent people. It was foretold of their great ancestor Ishmael, that his hand should be against every man, and every man's hand against him. This prediction has been remarkably fulfilled. The Arabs are still wanderers in their native country; they owe no subjection to any but their emirs, the princes or chiefs of each itinerant tribe. Robbers by profession, they consider the property of every stranger as their own; and their ferocity, added to the inhospitable nature of their extensive deserts, has much tended to less

the trade carried on in those ages of antiquity, was like people, their assistance in the Arabian: but into which commenced a new government, which the Greeks under the Turks in the whole of an entire country was indeed suffering wandering trade, bid defiance against them. In the sixth century, the great part of the world was born at the the Coreisichite, glorious in Arabia, the early part of his uncle, settled into Syria, though destined to various countries, and the divided: He principles of the contest, the peaceful animosity, force imagined, on which would, and animosity, and among nations were obliged to firm, In the mean time a servant to the time travelled with the Minor. C then received his death, took him moved one of was now possessed, but learning, time and a the acquisition; nature of his d, possessed of a spe considered even his scheme, a ll. In this sta son among h, meaning he to g, evened him fr, ous to perform

phia is very bad, the bell comes from the common people. The common people league from the city is a small hill, which is a mineral salt. In four centuries since they have ever since continued under a kind of patriarchical government. Neither the Persians under Cyrus, the Greeks under Alexander, the Romans under their fortunate generals, the Tartars under Tamerlane, the Turks in their greatest height of power, could make an entire conquest of Arabia. Part of that country was indeed subdued; but the greater number of these wandering tribes still preserved their independency, and bid defiance to all the force that could be sent against them.

In the sixth century, about the year 596, the great prophet Mahomet appeared, and changed for a time the greater part of the Arabian system of government. He was born at Mecca, and descended from the tribe of the Coreischites, esteemed the most ancient and illustrious in Arabia; but his parents were very poor. In the early part of his life, he was employed as a factor by his uncle, Abuteleb, and in that capacity travelled into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. Subtle by nature, though destitute of learning, he made many observations on the different religions professed in those countries, and the various sects into which they were divided. He perceived that most of the fundamental principles of these different sects were the same, and that the contested tenets which had given rise to such deadly animosities, were trifling in themselves, and hence imagined that it would be easy to form a religion which would unite them all, and remove those animosities which had produced so many disorders among mankind. But his poverty and want of learning were obstacles which he was at first in no capacity to surmount.

In the mean time his uncle died, and Mahomet became a servant to a rich Syrian merchant, and for some years travelled with his caravans into different parts of Asia-Minor. Cadija, the wife of Mahomet's master, when received her servant with pleasure, and at his death, took him to her bed. This fortunate incident removed one of the obstacles to Mahomet's scheme; he was now possessed of wealth sufficient for his purposes, but learning was not to be purchased with money: time and assiduity alone could procure that valuable acquisition; and those were incompatible with the nature of his design. Enterprising by nature, and possessed of a species of ambition peculiar to himself, he considered every moment he delayed the execution of his scheme, as a loss to the world as well as to himself. In this state of perturbation he discovered, that a person among his own servants was possessed of the learning he so greatly wanted, and which had hitherto prevented him from attempting the work he was so desirous to perform. This person's name was Sergius, a

Nestorian monk, a person of great parts and learning; but such a libertine in his conduct, that he had been expelled the convent, and taken shelter among the Arabs. It has been disputed whether Mahomet's scheme, for establishing a new religion, was the effect of enthusiasm or ambition; the latter is generally believed: perhaps both had a share.

However that be, the monk cordially embraced the offers of Mahomet; but, at the same time, rightly observed, that it would be very difficult, perhaps impossible, to establish a new religion, without pretending to a divine sanction. Mahomet perceived the justness of the remark, and, ever fruitful in resources, determined to turn a natural calamity to his own advantage. He had long been afflicted with epileptic fits, and pretended that these were only trances, into which he was thrown at the sight of the angel Gabriel, who was often sent from heaven to reveal the will of the Almighty, and which he was commanded to publish to the world. But lest the truth of this story should be suspected, he lived a very austere and abstemious life, which soon procured him a character for sanctity, far superior to that of any of his neighbours. This gave a sanction to his pretensions; his followers increased daily both in number and enthusiasm, and Mahomet now thought proper to make an open declaration of his mission. He asserted, that he was a prophet sent from God into the world to teach his law, and compel mankind to observe it. Alarmed at the pretensions of this enthusiastic impostor, and dreading the fatal consequences generally attending popular insurrections, the magistrates of Mecca determined to put a final period to the growing evil, by taking off the bigotted leader. But the requisite secrecy was not observed: Mahomet was apprised of their intentions, and fled, with a few of his faithful followers, to Medina. This flight, which happened in the tenth year of his ministry, the Mahometans use as an epocha in the computation of time, calling it by the Arabic word, Hegira, i. e. the flight.

The same of Mahomet had reached Medina some years before he was obliged to take refuge in that city; so that the inhabitants received him with open arms. Assisted by his faithful companion the monk, Mahomet now applied himself to form a system of religion that should extend to all the neighbouring nations, and be conformable to their different professions. At the same time, he was very careful to render it agreeable to the prejudices of mankind. He knew that sensual enjoyments were much better adapted to the generality of the people, than spiritual; and therefore promised them every delight that human nature is capable of enjoying.

The fundamental principle on which Mahomet erected the superstructure of his religion was, that there has been from the beginning of the world but one true orthodox belief, which consists in acknowledging one true God only, and obeying the precepts of such ministers and prophets as he shall, from time to time, send

the trade carried on by caravans to India. In the remote ages of antiquity, the Arabs were indeed a great warlike people; they had kings of their own, and their assistance Ninus chiefly owed the conquest of Babylon: but intestine commotions, and civil wars soon commenced among themselves, and their different kingdoms have ever since continued under a kind of patriarchical government. Neither the Persians under Cyrus, the Greeks under Alexander, the Romans under their fortunate generals, the Tartars under Tamerlane, the Turks in their greatest height of power, could make an entire conquest of Arabia. Part of that country was indeed subdued; but the greater number of these wandering tribes still preserved their independency, and bid defiance to all the force that could be sent against them.

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ARABS, AND OF THE PROPHET.

At the earliest times, have been the sole people. It was foretold that his hand should be raised against him, and that he would be nobly fulfilled. The native country; they are their emirs, the princes of the robbers by profession, very stranger as they are to the inhospitable, and as much tended to let

send into the world, to reveal his will to mankind. Upon this foundation, he pretended to be a prophet sent into the world to reform the abuses crept into religion, and to reduce it to its original simplicity. He added, that as the endeavours of Moses and Christ were rendered abortive, God had sent him, as his last and greatest prophet, with a more ample commission than either Moses or Christ were intrusted with. Theirs were confined to persuasion only, but his extended to force. The sword was to effect what preaching and miracles had endeavoured in vain: the divine law was to be propagated by force, and the throne of the faithful founded on the blood of unbelievers. The bounds of this kingdom were to be the same with those of the world, and all the nations of the world were to be governed by the sceptre of Mahomet. But as these conquests could not be made without danger, Mahomet promised, that those who ventured their lives in establishing his kingdom, should enjoy the spoils and possessions of their enemies, as a reward in this life, and, after death, a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love. He added, that those who died in propagating the faith, would enjoy a distinguished place in paradise, experience pleasures peculiarly intense, and vastly superior to the rest of mankind. These particulars, together with the doctrine of predestination, and a prohibition of drinking spirituous liquors, formed the principal articles of Mahomet's creed; and were written by the monk already mentioned, in a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence above all other writings.

The Koran was no sooner published, than Mahomet's followers increased in a very astonishing manner. His doctrine was soon propagated in distant countries. Arians, Jews, and Pagans abandoned their former religion, and became Mahometans. The contagion spread in a very rapid manner over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful, impotent impostor, became one of the most powerful monarchs of his age. He died three years after his conquest of Mecca, in the sixty-third year of his age, and in the year 629. His successors pursued the plan of their prophet, and exerted themselves in propagating his religion by the sword.

It may not be improper in this place to present the reader with a chronological account of the caliphs, from Mahomet, founder of the Arabian empire.

CHRONOLOGICAL ACCOUNT of the CALIPHS, SUCCESSORS of MAHOMET.

Eleventh year of the hegira, and 639d of the Christian æra. Abubeker caliph.

Thirtieth of the hegira, and 634th of the Christian æra. Omar.

Christian æra 643, Othman.

Hegira 35, Christ. æra 655 Hali, kinsman of Mahomet

40, 660 Hassan

Hegira 41,	Christ. æra 661	Moawiyah, first of the dynasty of the Ommyyah
60,	679	Yezid
64,	683	Moawiyah II.
64,	683	Merwan
65,	684	Abdalmek
86,	703	Waled
97,	716	Soliman
99,	718	Omar II.
102,	721	Yezid II.
104,	723	Hefcham
125,	743	Waled II.
126,	743	Yezid III.
127,	744	Ibrahim
127,	744	Merwan II. the last of the race of the Ommyyah
134,	750	Abul Abbas, first of the house of Abbas.
136,	754	Abu Giaffar Almanzor
158,	755	Mahadi
169,	785	Hadi
170,	786	Haroun at Rashed
193,	809	Amin
198,	813	Mamon
218,	833	Motassen, who was born in the eighth month of the year, was the eighth prince of his race, the eighth Abbasian caliph, ascended his throne in the 218th year of the hegira, commanded his troops eight times in person, reigned eight years, eight months, and eight days, died in the forty-eighth year of his age, had eight sons and eight daughters, and left exactly eight millions of gold in his treasury.
Hegira 227,	Christ. æra 842	Wathek Billak
239,	849	Motawakel
247,	861	Montasser
248,	862	Motain
252,	866	Motaz
255,	869	Mothadi
256,	870	Motamed
279,	893	Mothaded
289,	902	Moktaphi
295,	908	Moktader
320,	932	Caher
322,	934	Rhadi
329,	941	Motaki
333,	944	Motakfi
334,	945	Mothi
363,	973	Thai
381,	991	Cader
422,	1031	Caiem
467,	1074	Motadi
487,	1094	Motader
512,	1118	Mostarched
529,	1135	Rafched
530,	1135	Moktaphi II. or Leem-rillah
555,	1160	Motanged
566,	1170	Moktadi

Hegira

A. I.]

Hegira 575, Chr
622,
633,
640,

The caliph of
Saracens and
various parts of
Spain, France,

THE AS

TAB I

The Japanese
The Ladrones
Formosa
Anian
The Philippin
The Molucca,
The Banda, or
Amboyna
Celebes
Gilolo, &c.

The Sunda I

The Andama
Ceylon
The Maldives
Bombay
The Kurile I
of Kamifsch
of the Russian

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Japan. It wa

awiyah, first of the dynasty of the Ommyyads
 awiyah II.
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 ar II.
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 led II.
 id III.
 ahim

rwan II. the last of the dynasty of the Ommyyads
 ul Abbas, first of the dynasty of Abbas.
 al Giasfar Almanzor
 hadi
 di

roun al Rashid
 in
 mon

stassen, who was born in the eighth century
 a caliph, ascended the throne in the year 750
 he reigned eight years and died in the forty-eighth year of his age
 and eight daughters, and he was buried in his treasury.

theek Billak
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Hegira

Hegira 375, Christ. era 1179 Nasser
 600, 1205 Dhaheer
 603, 1206 Moltanser
 640, 1248 Mostafazem, 56th and last grand Abassian caliph.

The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia, under the names of Saracens and Moors, extended their conquests into various parts of Europe. They reduced great part of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediter-

anean. The caliphs of Persia turned their arms to the east, and conquered several countries; the Tartars, under Tamerlane, carried their conquests into China and the Indies; and the Turks reduced the Greek empire, and made Constantinople the seat of their government.

In this rapid manner was the Mahometan religion propagated in various parts of the world; it is still professed by a considerable part of mankind, and established in various countries.

C H A P. XVII.

THE ASIATIC, OR INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

TABLE OF THE ASIATIC AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

Islands.	Towns.	Sq. M.	Trade with or belong to.
The Japanese Isles.....	Jeddo, Meaco.....	138,000	Dutch
The Ladrones.....	Guam.....	Spain
Formosa.....	Tai-ouan-fou.....	17,000	} China
Anian.....	Kiontcheow.....	11,900	
The Philippines.....	Manilla.....	133,700	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove Isles.....	Victoria Fort, Ternate.....	Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg Isles.....	Lantor.....	Dutch
Amboyna {surrounding the	Amboyna.....	400	Dutch
Celebes {Molucca and	Macasser.....	68,400	Dutch
Gilolo, &c. {Banda Isles	Gilolo.....	10,400	Dutch
{Borneo	Borneo, Caytongee.....	228,000	All nations
The Sunda Isles {Sumatra	Achen, Behcoolen.....	129,000	English and Dutch
{Java, &c.	Batavia, Bantam.....	38,250	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar Isles.....	Andaman, Nicobar.....	All nations
Ceylon.....	Candy.....	27,730	Dutch
The Maldives.....	Caridon.....	All nations
Bombay.....	Bombay.....	English
The Kurile Isles, and those in the Sea of Kamtschatka, lately discovered by the Russians.....	Russia

THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

THE islands of which this extensive and opulent empire is composed, are called Japan, or Nippon, Bongo, Tonsa, and Dezima. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st deg. of north lat. and from the 130th to the 147th deg. of east long.

The inhabitants call this empire Nippon, the name of the chief island; the Chinese term it Siphon; and the Europeans give it the general appellation of Japan. It was first discovered between the years 1535

and 1548, by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled from this gainful trade by the Dutch.

Japan being situated between the fourth and seventh climates, the sun rises with them about eight hours before it does with us. The sea breezes greatly mitigate the heat in summer, but they add to the excessive coldness in winter, and render the seasons in general exceedingly unsettled. The rains in summer are very violent, and forms of thunder and lightning, and dreadful hurricanes, frequently happen, to the great detriment of the country: earthquakes are also very common here.

The soil, and likewise the animal and vegetable productions of Japan, are much the same with those in China. The earth yields Indian and other corn, fine rice, millet, and various other grain, besides several kinds of fruits: likewise flowers and herbs, particularly excellent tea. The mountains, woods, and forests are well stocked with horses, sheep, oxen, hogs, elephants, wild beasts, buffaloes, deer, &c.

The rivers, which afford plenty of fish, are generally exceeding rapid, and many dreadful cataracts fall from the mountains. The principal rivers are the Ujingava, whose waters are so furious, that no bridge can be built over it; the Corric, that takes its name from the province in which it rises; and the Akagava, remarkable for its depth and perpetual fluctuation.

The chief lake, called Citz, is 100 miles in length, and twenty in breadth. It is formed by the conflux of several rivers, and disembogues itself into the sea on the south-west side of the island.

The mountains in this empire are very numerous, most of the islands of which it is composed being surrounded by them; one in particular, in Nippon, is of such a prodigious height, that though its distance from the shore is fifty-four miles, it may be discerned twice that distance by vessels at sea; and some authors are of opinion that it is higher than the famous peak at Teneriffe. Indeed, this may with more propriety be called a cluster of mountains, and among them are eight dreadful volcanoes, which burn with such prodigious fury, that the country is often destroyed for several miles round. Some of the mountains yield mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, iron, and various other metals; while others abound with several sorts of marble and precious stones. The mountains in the island of Nippon also afford great variety of medicinal waters of different degrees of heat; one of which is said to be as hot as burning-oil. Several rivers and brooks have their sources among them, some of which fall in gentle cascades, whilst others form dreadful cataracts. The seas surrounding these islands produce great quantities of red and white coral, and pearls of great value, with a profusion of sea-plants and beautiful shells. Many dangerous whirlwinds are formed in these seas, which make a great noise, and, at low water, swallow up the largest vessels, if they attempt to cross them.

The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes, and high eyebrows, are like those of the Chinese and Tartars, and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black.

They are very ingenious mechanics, and greatly excel the Chinese in such works as are common in both empires; particularly in the beauty, goodness, and variety of their silks, cottons, and other stuffs, and in the porcelain and lacquered wares. Both the temper and workmanship of their scimitars, swords, muskets, &c. are superior to any other made in these eastern parts.

Their architecture is in the same style as that of China, but they affect rather usefulness than grandeur in their houses, which are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plattered both without and within, and whitewashed; they generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms, not even beds. They sit down on their heels upon mats. Their victuals are served up on a low board, near the floor, one dish at a time. Their mirrors are not fixed up as ornamental furniture.

Their dress is similar to that of the Chinese, but more neat and elegant, and generally of silk or cotton. The women of fashion, especially the young ones, adorn themselves with flowers, feathers, pearls, &c. but are seldom seen abroad, or even at home, by any except their own people, without a veil. Fans are used by both sexes equally.

They are naturally cleanly; in their manners, civil and polite; obedient to parents, respectful to superiors, and honest in their dealings; so that, though their penal laws are severe, punishments are seldom inflicted. Commerce, manufactures, and agriculture flourish here.

The forces of Japan, in time of war, amount to 400,000 foot, and 40,000 horse; and the annual revenues have been computed at thirty-six millions sterling. The government, like that of all the eastern nations, is despotic; but the power of the emperor is generally exercised with clemency.

The principal commodities exported from Japan, are rice, silk, and cotton; fine porcelain and lacquered wares; gold, silver, copper wrought and in bars, iron, steel, and other metals; rich furs, tea of all sorts, much finer and better cured than that of China; a great variety of drugs, which as well as their tea are sold genuine, well dried, and carefully preserved; diamonds and other precious stones, pearls of exquisite beauty, coral, ambergris, &c.

All trade with the Europeans, except the Dutch, is prohibited; and even the Hollanders are allowed to have only one factory, which is at Nagasaki, in the island of Dezima, where there is an excellent harbour. Nor are they permitted to converse with any of the inhabitants, but such as are appointed by the governor, except the six weeks of open trade, when the Japanese resort from all parts of the empire to Dezima, where they open booths furnished with the finest merchandise of their country.

In the city of Meaco, in 45 deg. 38 min. north lat. and 138 deg. 15 min. east long. which was formerly the capital of Japan, is a colossus of gilt copper, of prodigious dimensions. It is seated in a chair eighty feet in breadth, and seventy in height. The thumb of this enormous statue is fourteen inches in circumference.

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 on its head. It is one of the principal idols of
 empire.
 Jedd, Jedo, or Yeddo, is now the metropolis of the
 empire, and the most considerable city in Japan. It is
 ge and populous, and contains the palace of the em
 peror, ten or twelve miles in circumference. This
 y is in 35 deg. 48 min. north lat. and 144 deg. 10
 n, east long.
 Next to the above two, the most considerable city
 Japan is Ofacco, which is situated at the mouth of
 the river Jedogawa, about fifteen leagues from Meaco,
 d in 35 deg. 15 min. north lat. and 137 deg. 20 min.
 t long. It is deemed the principal sea-port in the
 empire, and is filled with an incredible number of mer
 chants, tradesmen, mechanics, ecclesiastics, &c. It is
 ar fifteen miles in circuit, contains many elegant
 uses, some palaces belonging to the nobility, and is
 ngly fortified.
 The principal commodities of Japan have been al
 y mentioned: and it may not be improper to add,
 at no people in the world equal the Japanese in the
 nesses of their dealings; no fraud of any kind is prac
 ed; their commodities are genuine, not the least
 alteration is used. Cautions and faithful themselves,
 ey expect the same treatment from others. All com
 odities are exported and imported duty free. But if
 ntraband goods are found on board any trading ves
 sel, if the wares are either adulterated or damaged, and
 injury concealed, or any fraud be discovered in the
 voice, the offenders are always punished in the severest
 manner.
 At the season when the Dutch fleet is expected, cen
 sels are placed on the hills to give timely notice of
 the approach of any ships; and boats are immediately
 nt off with proper officers, who take care that no
 ade of any kind be carried on with the natives, till
 e permission to trade arrives from the emperor: even
 en the greatest regularity is observed, six only of the
 amens are permitted to go on shore at one time; and
 in this manner they succeed each other during the time
 e mart is open. By this wise conduct, all disorders
 e unknown; trade is carried on in a fair and open
 manner; all frauds and deceptions, which generally re
 sult from hurry and confusion, are prevented; and the
 hole is conducted in a manner that gives entire satisf
 ction to both parties.
 Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured goods
 which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither an
 nually upwards of 200,000 doe-skins, and more than
 00,000 hides, the greatest part of which they get
 from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The
 merchandise they export from these islands, both for
 Bengal and Europe, consists in 900 chests of copper,
 each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000
 pounds weight of camphire. Their profits on imports
 and exports are valued at forty or forty-five per cent.
 As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, ei

ther on their exports or imports, they send an annual
 present to the emperor, consisting of cloths, chintz,
 succotas, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets.
 The Japanese are the grossest of all idolaters; nor
 does it appear that they ever had any notion of a Su
 preme Being; they believe the world to have existed
 from all eternity; and that the gods they worship were
 once men, who lived upon earth several thousand
 years, and were at last, as a reward for their piety,
 mortification, and voluntary death, raised to that height
 of power and dignity they now possess. They are so
 irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said,
 the Dutch, who are the only Europeans with whom
 they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians,
 and humour the people in the most absurd superstitions;
 inasmuch as it is said, that a stranger is not suffered to
 land in any part of the empire, unless he first publicly
 renounces the Christian religion. But notwithstanding
 this shameful compliance of the Dutch, the natives are
 very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with them.
 The Japanese are not remarkable for useful learning,
 astrology being the art in general studied among them.
 There are, however, a vast number of universities, in
 which the priests preside, dispersed all over the empire:
 they are finely situated, richly endowed, accommodated
 with all the conveniences of life, and furnished with
 large libraries. These people are much addicted to po
 etry, music, and painting; and are said to excel in the
 first, both with regard to the style, imagery, and har
 mony of the cadence. They are better painters than
 the Chinese, but greatly inferior to the European artists.
 Their language has some affinity to that of China, but
 appears, from its various dialects, to have been origi
 nally compounded of that and other languages, used by
 the various nations that first peopled these islands.
 With respect to their history, the Japanese annals of
 early times are filled with such inconsistent absurdities,
 and ridiculous fables, that no dependence can be placed
 on them, till about 660 years before Christ, which is
 their common æra; and, according to which, our pre
 sent year 1793 is with them the year 2453; it is like
 wise to be observed, that the Japanese year begins the
 nearest new moon, which either precedes or follows the
 5th day of February.
 The histories of Japan, written by the natives, take
 very little notice of the policy, virtues, vices, or trans
 actions of their monarchs, but are filled with an ac
 count of their descent, names, birth, succession, length
 of reign, &c.
 The following chronicle of the more recent princes
 of Japan, is taken from their own historians.
 1. Taycho. This monarch was of a very mean ex
 traction, but in his youth raised himself to be butler to
 a tributary prince, and by dint of valour and merit
 was at length exalted to the cuboship. He was the first
 monarch who obliged the petty kings and great lords
 to attend upon him personally, and suffer their wives
 and kindred to reside in his palace, as hostages for their
 fidelity;

1. fidelity; by which prudent policy he struck at the very root of that rebellious spirit so common in Japan, and put an end to the possibility of raising insurrections. He expelled the Portuguese from Japan, prohibited their ever after trading with his subjects, and began the first persecution against the Christians. He died on the 6th of December, A. D. 1598. After his decease he was deified, and called the *Second Mars of Japan*.

2. Quanbacundoño, the nephew of Taycho, is accounted the thirtieth Cubo, as he reigned for some time in conjunction with his uncle; but having disobliged that monarch, he was ordered to rip up his own bowels, the most honourable method of suffering death in Japan.

3. Fide-Jori, the son of Taycho, began his reign at six years of age; during his minority, the affairs of government were conducted by his father-in-law, Ijejas; for Fide-Jori had been contracted in his infancy to a daughter of that nobleman, who traitorously deprived him of his crown and life, after a reign of fourteen years.

4. Ijejas-Samma, having usurped the throne, made the following articles the principal objects of his reign. 1. The total extirpation of the Portuguese from Japan, 2. The prohibition of any of his subjects from leaving the empire, and recalling those who were in foreign parts. 3. The publication of severe edicts against gaming, luxury, and duelling. 4. The granting a Dutch factory to be established in Japan.

It may be proper to observe here, that the persecution against the Christians in Japan, both natives and foreigners, was carried on with such horrid cruelty, that in the space of the four first years of the reign of this monarch, 20,570 persons were massacred. Notwithstanding which, in the two succeeding years, after the churches had been shut, and the public professing of Christianity prohibited, the Jesuits, by their private endeavours, made 12,000 profelytes; and when any of these were detected, they not only absolutely refused to abjure the Christian faith, but readily submitted to death, and suffered martyrdom with astonishing constancy. And indeed the persecution continued forty years, reckoning from its commencement, in the reign of Taycho, with unremitting cruelty, before Christianity could be totally exterminated. Ijejas reigned about five years after the death of Fide-Jori, and died at about seventy years of age.

5. Fide-Tada, the grandson of the above monarch, as we have already intimated, continued the persecution, till at length the Christians, driven to the utmost despair, retired to the number of 37,000, to the castle of Simabara, in the island of Ximo, where they determined to defend themselves to the last extremity. The Japanese army laid siege to the place, which held out for three months; but at length was compelled to surrender on the 12th of April 1638, when the Christians were all put to the sword.

This monarch reigned eighteen years, and was succeeded by his son,

6. Ijemitz. This emperor reigned twenty years, and was succeeded by,

7. Ijetznako. This monarch, who was the son of the former, reigned thirty years, and left the crown to his son,

8. Tsinajos. This prince was the last Japanese monarch that we have any authentic account of, and upon the throne when the Dutch ambassador was in Japan, in the year 1692, being then forty-three years of age, and having reigned thirteen years; he was a great philosopher, a strict observer of the laws, exceedingly humane and benevolent, and, in the sense of the word, the father of his people.

CHAP. XVIII.

THE LADRONE ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which are about twenty in number, belong to the Spaniards; and were first discovered in 1521. They obtained the name of Ladrone Islands, from Mary, Queen of Spain, who reigned at the time of their being first inhabited by her subjects. They are also known by the name of Thieves-Islands, which epithet was given to them by Ferdinand Magellan, the first person who discovered them, on account of the continual robberies for some time committed by the natives.

The Ladrone Islands lie about 600 leagues to the east of Canton in China; 700 leagues east from the Philippines, and 7300 west from Cape Corientes in America. The principal part of them have been for many years uninhabited; notwithstanding they are all pleasantly situated, and the soil in general is very fertile. The only one that can properly be said to be now inhabited by the Spaniards is Guam, where a governor resides, and where there is kept a very strong garrison. It is at this island that the Manila register-ship generally takes in fresh provisions and waters, in her passage from Acapulco to the Philippines.

The islands of Tinian and Rota were once very populous; but the former is now quite uninhabited, and the latter contains only a few Indians, who are employed in cultivating rice for the inhabitants of Guam.

Guam is about forty miles in length, and ninety miles in circumference, and the number of inhabitants are estimated at 4000; out of which it is supposed 1000 live in the city of San Ignatio de Agona, where the governor usually resides. It is pleasantly situated, and affords a fine landscape when viewed from the sea. The soil being rather dry, it produces little rice; but they have several kinds of excellent fruit, particularly pine-apples, melons, and oranges. They have likewise plenty of cocoas, yams, and a fruit about the size of an apple, which, when baked, is exceeding good, and is used instead of bread.

The natives of this island are strong and well-shaped,

of an olive complexion, and a black hair, anoint their bodies with oil, and paint their faces, and the tops of their heads, with a white clay, the hogs which grow on the other islands are plenty of prey, commodious island of Tinian himself and his

THE ISLANDS

SOME parts of them from the natives very live independent and govern themselves FORMOSA, which altogether a very beautiful. It is situated in the length from north to south, 20 min. to 25 min. in almost vertical position this is far from the heat is 20 degrees, which is not agreeable to the sea. That part of particularly fertile different kinds of greatly accelerated tide convenient. This island is particularly orange, papayas, &c. as they have like along form, as they consist of some juice, which sugar and tobacco; and they are very neatly arranged, which the most The wild bees seldom seen, as

of an olive complexion: they have thick lips, a black hair, and a stern countenance: they wear long hair, and paint their teeth with red and black colours. Their houses are chiefly built of stone and timber, and the tops of them are covered with tiles. Their food chiefly consists of cocoa-nuts, bananas, fowls, fish, and pork; the latter of which is peculiarly sweet in taste, the hogs being principally fed with cocoa-nuts, which grow here in the greatest abundance. The other islands here, though uninhabited, afford a great plenty of provisions; but neither of them have any commodious harbour. Lord Anson landed upon the island of Tinian, where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

THE ISLANDS OF FORMOSA AND HAINAN.

SOME parts of these islands belong to the Chinese, to whom the natives are subject; but in the other parts they live independent, and are only subject to their own laws and government.

FORMOSA, which is the most fertile of these islands, altogether a very fine country; and for that reason it obtained its name, the word Formosa signifying *fair* or *beautiful*. It is situated nearly opposite to the province Fo-kien in China, and is computed to be 216 miles in length from north to south, and about 70 miles in the broadest part. Its longitude from Pekin is from 3 deg. 20 min. to 5 deg. 40 min. east; so that when the sun is almost vertical over it, the climate is rather hot; but this is far from being disagreeable, as the violence of the heat is greatly mitigated by the situation of the island, which is so elevated, as to receive the most agreeable advantages from the cooling breezes of the sea.

That part of the island possessed by the Chinese is particularly fertile, and produces great quantities of different kinds of grain, especially rice; and its fertility is greatly accelerated by the numerous rivers, whose streams glide conveniently through it.

This island likewise produces as great a variety of fruits as are to be found in any other parts of the Indies; particularly oranges, cocoas, bananas, ananas, guayavas, papayas, &c. also several kinds of those produced in Europe, as peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, and chestnuts. They have likewise a sort of melon, which is of an oblong form, and much larger than those in Europe: they consist of a white or red pulp, and are full of a fine juice, which is exceeding grateful to the taste. Sugar and tobacco also grow here to the greatest perfection; and the trees that produce these are so agreeably arranged, that they appear as if calculated to embellish the most beautiful garden.

The wild beasts of this island are but few, and those seldom seen, as they chiefly inhabit the distant parts of

it, which are exceeding mountainous, and seldom resorted to by the inhabitants. They have some horses, sheep, oxen, goats, and hogs. They have but few birds, the principal of which is the pheasant; but the rivers produce great plenty of various kinds of fish.

The coasts about this island are very high and rocky, and have neither havens or sea-ports, so that it is almost impossible to effect an invasion. Teovang, or Tyowang, is the only bay in the whole island, where ships of any bulk can approach; and this is situated at the mouth of a river so narrow, and defended by such high rocks and forts on each side, that no enemy could possibly enter it, without being repulsed.

The inhabitants of those parts of the island belonging to the Chinese, have the same manners and customs, and are under the same government as those of China; so that a repetition of them would be here unnecessary; we shall therefore only describe the persons, manners, and customs of the natives.

The natives of this island, who are subject to the Chinese, are divided into forty-five boroughs, or towns, thirty-six of which are in the northern part, and nine in the southern. They are in general of a low stature, have a large mouth, and are very swarthy in complexion: they have a very high forehead, and are altogether greatly disproportioned, for the body is very short, the neck small, and the arms and legs remarkably long.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, which they use with such dexterity, that they will kill a pheasant flying at the distance of 400 yards. They have little ceremony in their marriages; nor do they purchase their wives as in China.

Some writers have described the Formosans as being mere infidels, which we can assign no other reason for, but from their being considered so by the Chinese. This, however, is a false assertion: they believe in one Supreme Being, and seem to entertain wiser notions than the inhabitants of many eastern countries. The Chinese acknowledge that they are not subject to cheat, thief, or quarrel; but, on the contrary, that they practise all the duties of equity and mutual benevolence. They worship idols as in China, to whom they offer sacrifices of hogs, rice, &c.

Their manner of treating the dead before interment is very singular. When a person dies, they lay him on a kind of scaffold made of bamboo, which they place over a slow fire for nine days; after which they wrap the corpse in a mat, and lay it on a higher scaffold, covered with a pavilion, made of shreds of silk, cloth, &c. Here it remains for two years, at the expiration of which, they dig a large hole in the ground, and bury it. Each of these ceremonies is accompanied with feasting, music, dancing, &c.

One custom is almost universal among them, namely, if a person is exceeding ill, or afflicted with any painful disorder, which is not likely to be removed, they think it a kindness to dispatch him.

The government of each town or borough is con-

fixed to itself. Three or four of the most ancient, who are known to be men of integrity, are appointed as judges over the rest, who determine all differences; and he who refuses to submit to the decision, is banished the town, nor can he either return, or be admitted into any of the others, so that he is obliged to finish his days, without ever again participating of the natural enjoyments of society.

An annual tribute is paid by the inhabitants to the Chinese, which consists of certain quantities of grain, the tails and skins of stags, and other productions of the country. In order to gather this tribute, a person is appointed to each town, who learns the language of the natives, and discharges the office of interpreter between them and the mandarins of China. There were formerly twelve boroughs in the southern part of the island that paid tribute to the Chinese; but, from the tyrannic conduct of their interpreter, or gatherer of the tax, they revolted, drove the interpreter out of the town, and no longer continued to pay tribute to China.

The capital city of Formosa is called Tai-ouan-fou. It is large and populous, and carries on so extensive a trade, that it is little inferior to some of the most opulent in China. It is plentifully supplied with all kinds of provisions, either of its own product, or commodities brought from other countries, as rice, cotton, sugar, wine, tobacco, and dried venison, the latter of which is greatly admired by the Chinese, and considered as the most delicious food. They have likewise all kinds of fruits, medicinal herbs, roots, gems, &c. with plenty of linen, silk, and cotton of various sorts.

The streets are long and spacious, the houses very small, built of clay, and covered with thatch; the buildings have awnings on each side, that join in such a manner as to cover the street; but these are only used during the hot months, to keep off the excessive heat of the sun. Some of the streets are near three miles in length, and between thirty and forty feet broad: these streets are chiefly occupied by dealers, whose shops are furnished with all kinds of goods, ranged and displayed to the greatest advantage. These shops appear very brilliant, and many people walk in the streets merely to gratify themselves with the sight of so great a variety of the richest commodities.

Though this city is not defended either by walls or fortifications, it has a good garrison of horse and foot, consisting of 10,000 men, who are principally Tartars. These are commanded by a lieutenant-general, two major-generals, and a number of inferior officers, who are at liberty to relinquish their situation after having served three years, or sooner, if occasion should require. The harbour is tolerably good, and sheltered from the winds; but the entrance to it is dangerous for ships of burthen, the bottom of it being rocky, and the water not above ten feet deep at the highest tides.

The most authentic historians inform us, that the island of Formosa was first inhabited by the Japanese

about the beginning of the last century. These people were so pleased with the appearance of the country, that they built several small towns, and soon settled a colony: however, they were but a short time on the island before they were interrupted by the Dutch, a ship belonging to whom being accidentally forced into the harbour, the people landed on the island, in order to obtain refreshments, and repair the damage the vessel had sustained by the storm. Pleased with the apparent fertility of the country, and the wholesomeness of the climate, they formed a plan of circumventing the Japanese, by taking the island into their own possession. Fearful, however, of offending them, lest it might be injurious to their trade, they were very cautious in what manner they proceeded; and though they were the most powerful, yet they were rather desirous of obtaining their wishes by artful than violent measures. To effect this, they earnestly entreated the Japanese, that they would permit them to build a house near the sea side, which, they alleged, would be of the greatest utility to them in their passage to and from Japan. This request was refused, which produced a second solicitation that met with no better success. Unwilling, however, to give up any endeavours they could project, they again renewed their solicitations, and pressed them to give consent, assuring them that they desired no more ground than what might be encompassed by the hide of an ox. The modesty, as well as oddity, of this request, had the wished-for effect, and the Japanese at length gave their consent.

Having now made an opening into their future intentions, the Dutch immediately discovered a piece of cunning little thought of by the Japanese. They got a large hide, which they cut into a number of slips, and, fastening the whole together, covered a very extensive piece of ground, on which, instead of a single building, they erected several spacious habitations. The Japanese were at first greatly vexed at this stratagem, but, from the singularity of it, they were at length pacified; and were so far from either envying the Dutch, or being in any way apprehensive of danger from them, that they permitted them to do whatever they thought proper; and of this indulgence the Dutch were not deficient in taking the greatest advantages, for they soon erected several strong buildings, particularly a castle, which they called Zealand, situated on so advantageous a spot, that it was impossible for any ship to enter it, of whatever force, without being repulsed. But in process of time, the Japanese, being either offended at the great progress the Dutch had made, or not finding the advantages they expected, soon quitted the island, and left the Dutch in sole possession of it; after which the latter erected other fortifications opposite to their new fort, and raised such other defences, as made them complete masters of the island, which however continued but a few years in their possession. One of the Chinese generals (a man of an enterprising genius) being defeated by the Tartars, who were then at war with the Chi-

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century. These people
 of the country,
 and soon settled
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 captured by the Dutch,
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 ough they were the most
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 ouse near the sea side,
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 ced a second solicitation
 Unwilling, however,
 ould project, they agri-
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 y, of this request, had
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 But in process of time,
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 One of the Chinese ge-
 enius) being defeated
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fixed his views on Formosa, forming a resolution
 ousting the Dutch, and establishing a new kingdom
 the island. Accordingly he sailed from China with
 very considerable fleet, and arriving near the mouth
 the harbour, he landed some of his men, and began
 attack the fort of Zealand. The Dutch, not being
 apprehensive of any danger, were ill provided to attack
 powerful an enemy: they had only four ships in the
 harbour, and not above twenty men in the fort, exclu-
 of the natives; notwithstanding which they made
 forcible an opposition, that the siege lasted upwards
 three months. The Chinese general was so enraged
 being thus disappointed, that he at length had re-
 urre to a very desperate effort, which had the desired
 ct. He converted several of his vessels into fire-
 ps, and the wind happening to be high and favour-
 le, drove them into the harbour, when three of the
 utch ships were entirely destroyed. Thus situated,
 e Dutch could not make any further resistance, and
 e Chinese general offering them liberty to depart with
 ir effects in case they would surrender, they readily
 epted the offer; and putting all their valuables on
 ard the ship that was left, they departed, and left the
 hinese general sole possessor of the island. The ge-
 ral immediately acknowledged submission to the em-
 or, and several other towns were soon built on dif-
 erent parts of the island, the inhabitants of which have
 r since been subject to the government of China,
 ll, as hath been before observed, testify their submis-
 ion by an annual tribute.

HAINAN, the other island (the principal part
 of which also belongs to the Chinese) is of consider-
 able extent, and some of the towns are very populous.
 It is situated between 107 and 110 deg. east long. and
 between 18 and 20 deg. north lat. It is bounded on
 the east by the Chinese sea; on the west by the coast of
 Cochinchina; on the north by part of the province of
 Kiang-tong, to which it belongs; and on the south
 by the channel of Paracel, which joins the eastern coast
 of Cochinchina. It is about 200 miles in length
 from east to west, near 150 in breadth, and about 400
 in circumference.

Kian-tcheou is the principal city; and is so situated,
 that ships lie at anchor close to its walls with the
 greatest security. The streets are very uniform, and
 most of them at least a mile in length, but the houses
 in general are low mean buildings. But, besides the
 capital, there are several other considerable cities on
 the island, all of which are situated near the sea-side,
 and subject to the jurisdiction of Kian-tcheou, which
 is governed by mandarins of two orders, namely, those
 of learning, and those of arms.

On the southern part of the island there is a fine
 bay, the bay of which is near twenty feet deep. There
 is also another very convenient port on the northern
 part, the entrance to which is defended by two small
 islands, though the depth of water does not exceed twelve
 fathoms. Here the barks frequently come from Canton

with various commodities, in exchange for which they
 take several kinds of minerals, the natural produce of
 the country; for in some parts of the island there are
 gold and silver mines, as also mines that produce the
 lapis-lazuli, which the natives of Canton use in paint-
 ing the blue porcelain. Between the two forts that
 defend the entrance of the northern port, is a large
 plain, on which are several handsome Chinese se-
 pulchres.

The climate of this island is in general very un-
 healthy, particularly the northern part, though the soil
 is tolerably fertile. The southern and eastern parts are
 exceeding mountainous; but the vallies beneath are
 rich, and produce great plenty of rice. Here are like-
 wise several sorts of very valuable trees, particularly
 the rose, or violet-tree, which is so fragrant in its
 scent, that it is purchased at a very high price for the
 sole use of the emperor. There is also another tree
 little inferior to this; it produces a kind of liquid,
 which by the natives is called dragon's blood, and, if
 thrown into the fire, diffuses a scent of the most agree-
 able nature. Indigo grows very plentifully on this
 island, as also sugar, tobacco, and cotton; and they
 have a great variety of the most delicious fruits.

Horses, sheep, cows, and hogs, are the chief ani-
 mals here. On the mountains, and in the woods,
 are prodigious numbers of apes, some of which are
 very large, of a black colour, and the features of their
 faces so distinct, as to resemble the human species with
 greater niceness than any others to be found in the uni-
 verse; but these are very seldom seen; and though the
 natives have often endeavoured to catch them, yet they
 are so cunning and alert, that they have baffled every
 machination they could project. These apes appear
 to be of the same species with two sent some years ago
 in a coasting vessel, as a present from a merchant of the
 rajah of the Carnatic dominions to the governor of
 Bombay, a particular description of which is thus
 given by Mr. Grose in his *Voyage to the East-Indies*:
 "They were, says he, scarcely two feet high, walked
 erect, and had perfectly a human form. They were
 of a fallow white, without any hair, except in those
 parts that is customary for mankind to have it. By
 their melancholy, they seemed to have a rational sense
 of their captivity, and had many of the human ac-
 tions. They made their bed very orderly in the cage
 in which they were sent, and, on being viewed, would
 endeavour to conceal with their hands those parts that
 modestly forbids manifesting. The joints of their knees
 were not re-entering like those of monkies, but saliant
 like those of men; a circumstance they have in com-
 mon with the Oran-outangs in the eastern parts of
 India, particularly in Sumatra, Java, and the Spice
 Islands, of which these seem to be the diminutives,
 though with nearer approaches of resemblance to the
 human species. But though the navigation from the
 Carnatic coast to Bombay is of a very short run, of not
 above six or seven degrees, whether the sea air did not
 agree

agree with them, or that they could not brook their confinement, or that the captain had not properly consulted their provision, the female sickening first died, and the male giving all the demonstrations of grief, seemed to take it to heart so, that he refused to eat, and in two days after followed her. The captain, on his return to Bombay, reporting this to the governor, was by him asked, What he had done with the bodies? He said, he had flung them overboard. Being further asked, Why he did not keep them in spirits? he replied, that he did not think of it. On this the governor wrote afresh to the merchant, desiring him to procure another couple at any rate, as he should grudge no expence to be master of such a curiosity. The merchant's answer was, He would very willingly oblige him, but that he was afraid it would not be in his power; that these creatures came from a forest about 70 leagues up the country, where the inhabitants would sometimes catch them on the skirts of it; but that they were so exquisitely cunning and shy, that this scarcely happened once in a century.

Hainan also abounds with various kinds of game, particularly deer and hares; also a great plenty of birds, as partridges, woodcocks, snipes, turtle-doves, and most sorts of water-fowl, all which are little inferior to those in Europe. They have likewise most sorts of fish in great abundance: among these is a little blue fish found among the rocks, which is so beautiful as to be esteemed of greater value than the golden fish; but they will live only a few days out of their natural element.

The natives of this island are short in stature, of a reddish complexion, and some of them greatly deformed. The men wear only a loose garment, reaching from the waist to the knees: it is made of calico, and the colour is either a deep blue, or quite black. The women wear a garment made of the same stuff, though different in form: it somewhat resembles a waistcoat, and reaches from the shoulders to the knees: and they are further distinguished from the men by streaks made on their faces with indigo. Both sexes braid their hair, and ornament their ears with rings; and their hats, which tie under the chin, are made of straw or rattan. Their chief weapons are bows and arrows, in the use of which they are not so expert as the inhabitants of Formosa. They have also a kind of hanger fastened with a girdle to their waist, which they generally use to clear the way in forests, or other woody places. They occupy the centre part of the island, which is very mountainous; and here they live independent, being subject only to their own laws and modes of government.

The natives are seldom seen by the Chinese, except when they make an attempt to surprize any of the neighbouring villages. This, however, seldom happens, and when it does, they are naturally such cowards, that half a dozen Chinese will defeat at least an hundred of them. Many of them are in the service

of the Chinese, who employ them to cultivate the lands, and take care of their cattle. Others of them are allowed to possess villages on the plain; and the principal part, as in Formosa, pay an annual tribute to the emperor of China.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which are about 1100 in number, lie in the Chinese sea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, from 5 to 19 deg: north, and from the 114th to 120th deg. of east longitude. Manila, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. They were discovered in the year 1521 by Francis Magellan, but no attempt was made either to subdue or settle them till the year 1564, under the reign of Philip II. when Lopez Delagalpes conquered and planted colonies in them, and gave them the name of Philippines, in honour of the prince who then filled the Spanish throne. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintados, or painted people, and Metes, a mixture of all these. No part of the world produces greater plenty of all the necessaries of life than these islands; nor any country afford a more beautiful prospect, the mountains being clothed with a perpetual verdure, and buds, blossoms, and fruits succeed each other during the whole year. Considerable quantities of gold are washed down from the hills by the rains, and found mixed with the sand in the rivers. The plains are full of buffaloes, horses, oxen, and goats; and the woods abound with deer, wild hogs, and monkeys. Among a great variety of birds, is that called the saligan, whose nest affords that dissolving jelly so much valued by the voluptuaries of Europe. The soil is so luxurious, that if a sprig of an orange or lemon tree be planted, it becomes in one year a fruit-bearing tree. The Spaniards have introduced here several of the European and American fruit-trees, which flourish as well as in their native soil. The cacao or chocolate-nut tree is now so common in these islands, that they have no longer any occasion to import that commodity from Mexico. The tree affords supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane called vaxuco by the Spaniards, which, if cut, yields fair water sufficient for a draught, and there are plenty of them in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The situation of these islands, particularly that of Manila, is remarkably advantageous; on the north it lies to the China, on the south to the other islands on the oriental ocean, and on the west Malacca, Siam, Cochinchina, and other kingdoms and provinces of India.

Manilla, the capital of Luconia, situated on the south-east side of the island, is said to contain 3000 inhabitants. It is of an irregular form, and about 100 miles in circumference. Only small vessels can come

to Manila; the town is the seat of the archbishop of St. Philip, and capable of 176000 inhabitants, under the reign of Philip II. who took it by force. It suffered the greatest calamity, when the earthquake of 1645, which destroyed the prelate and a great part of the inhabitants, made its way into the city, and was carried down at Manila. They carry to America a great quantity of gold, and change their currency into the silver dollars that London uses.

Mindanao is the largest of the Philippine Islands. The inhabitants are a mixture of Chinese and Malays, who first possessed it. It is said that the island is inhabited by twenty princes, and

The Molucca Islands are situated to the south of the Philippine Islands, and extend 20 degrees of longitude. The chief of them is Machian, where the Spaniards have a fort in 1686. The chief produce is cloves, mace, nutmegs, and other aromatic plants.

None of the islands of the East Indies are so fertile as the Dutch, with the exception of the great number of the Dutch, which should dispose of them. The Dutch have a great number of the islands, and are not above thirty in number.

AMBOINA is the largest of the islands of the East Indies, and is situated in fact 100 miles from the Dutch garrisons, and is fortified with several forts,

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to Manila; but three leagues to the southward
of the town is the port of Cavite, defended by the
castle of St. Philip, by much the best fortrefs in the
island, and capable of receiving the largest ships. In
the year 1762, the city of Manila was reduced by the
English, under General Draper and Admiral Cornilth,
who took it by storm; but, from a principle of huma-
nity, suffered the archbishop, who was then viceroy,
to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The
contract was, however, ungenerously disowned, both
by the prelate and the court of Spain, so that the greater
part of the ransom is still unpaid. A very lucrative
trade is carried on with America, by annual ships,
laden at Manilla with the riches of the East, which
they carry to Acapulco in Mexico, where they ex-
change their cargoes for silver. It was one of these
alleons that Lord Anson took in his voyage round the
world.

Mindanao is, next to Luconia, the largest of the
Philippine Islands, but is not subject to Spain. The
inhabitants are of different tribes; those of the inland
parts are supposed to be the Aborigines, or Pagans,
who first possessed these islands; but the sea-coasts are
inhabited by Mahometans. It is very fertile, pro-
ducing most of the fruits common to the torrid zone.
It is said that both clove and nutmeg trees are found in
this island. This island is governed by one of their
princes, a Mahometan, whom they call sultan.

The **MOLUCCAS**, commonly called the **SPICE** or
CLOVE ISLANDS, lie in a cluster, and within sight of
one another, not being more than twenty-five leagues
south of the Philippines, between one degree south, and
two degrees north latitude, and in 125 degrees of east
longitude. They are five in number, viz. Bachian,
Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. The Dutch
have a fort in Ternate, called Victoria; and another
in Machian, called Fort Orange.

None of these islands produce either corn or rice, so
that sago is the principal food of the inhabitants. Their
chief produce, besides the tropical fruits, consists in
cloves, mace, and nutmegs, which are here in prodig-
ious plenty. These spices are monopolized by the
Dutch, with so much jealousy, that they annually de-
stroy great numbers of the trees, lest the inhabitants
should dispose of the superannuated spices to other
nations. They were discovered in the year 1511, by
Francis Magellan; and, after being subject to several
powers, are now governed by three princes subordinate
to the Dutch. Ternate, the largest of these islands, is
not above thirty miles in circumference.

AMBOYNA is one of the Moluccas, taken in the
largest sense of the word: it is the most considerable,
and in fact commands all the Moluccas. It is about
seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a
Dutch garrison of seven or eight hundred men, besides
several forts, for the protection of their clove planta-

tions: The Moluccas have been often called the gold
mine of the Dutch; and perhaps not improperly. The
produce of spices is amazing, and the profit remarkably
great; a pound weight of either nutmegs or cloves not
costing the company above a penny in the country, and
every one knows the price they fetch in Europe. The
nutmeg harvest is in July and August, but that of
cloves not till November and December.

When the Portuguese were driven out of Amboyna,
the spice trade was carried on by the English and Dutch
in conjunction: but the avarice of the latter was too
strong to be restrained, even by the ties of humanity.
They pretended, without the least foundation, that a
plot had been formed by the English, for making them-
selves masters of the island; and, in consequence of
this imaginary conspiracy, tortured in a most infernal
manner, and then murdered the English: a transaction
that will for ever remain a memorial of Dutch infamy.
This tragical event happened in 1622, and, ever since
that period, they have engrossed the whole spice trade
to themselves.

The **BANDA**, or **NUTMEG ISLANDS**, are six in
number, and lie between four and five degrees of south
latitude, and in 128 degrees of east longitude. Their
names are Lantor, Poloron, Rosingen, Pooloway, and
Gonapi. The largest of them is not above twenty miles
in circumference; though they are of the utmost con-
sequence to the Dutch, on account of the nutmegs
and mace, which grow here in such amazing quanti-
ties that they are enabled to supply all the markets of
Europe. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on
these islands only, and they are entirely subject to the
Dutch.

Besides the islands already mentioned, there are several
others in the neighbourhood, which would soon be
covered with forests of clove and nutmeg trees, were
not the Dutch very careful to destroy them; for there
are, in the islands of Banda and Amboyna, large flights
of doves, which swallow the nutmegs and cloves whole,
and void them, in the same state, on the adjacent islands,
and from these a vast number of young trees appear an-
nually. The Dutch have therefore declared war both
against the doves and the wild plantations of clove and
nutmeg trees. June and August are the months for
the great nutmeg harvest.

The island of **CELEBES**, or **MACASSAR**, is situated
under the equator, between the island of Borneo and
the Spice Islands, about 160 leagues from Batavia. It
is about 500 miles in length, and 200 in breadth, and
is, with very great reason, considered as the key of
the Spice Islands. Though this island is placed in the
midst of the torrid zone, the heat is rendered very sup-
portable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains.
It is very populous, and the natives are active, brave,
ingenious, and courteous to strangers, if not provoked.

Its chief produce is cotton, opium, and pepper: no country in the world produces a greater variety of poisons, and the natives are very well acquainted with their fatal effects. The Dutch have a fortified factory on the sea-coast of this island; but the internal parts are governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. Happily for the Dutch, these princes are always at variance, for, otherwise, they might easily drive them out of the island. Vast numbers of Chinese are settled here, and carry on an extensive trade with various parts of India: they are very successful, and conduct their commercial affairs with a dexterity peculiar to themselves. The part of Jampoden is said to be the most capacious of any in that part of the world. In this, and indeed in almost all the Oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built upon large posts, and accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night time, for their security against venomous animals, and the frequent floods by which the low lands are laid entirely under water.

GILOLO and CERAM, two other spice islands, lying under the equator, are likewise fortified by the Dutch, who will sink any ships that attempt to traffic in these seas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS are situated in the Indian ocean, between eight degrees north and eight degrees south latitude, and between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude; comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, and Banca.

Borneo is situated under the equinoctial, and is thought to be the largest island in the world, being 800 miles long, and 700 broad. The flat country near the coast is overflowed great part of the year, which renders the air very unhealthy; and the inhabitants reside in towns built on floats, in the middle of their rivers. The inland parts are mountainous, and the air very healthy. The island produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphire, and the fruits common to the torrid zone. Gold, and diamonds of a large size and excellent water, are found in the sand at the bottom of several rivers, washed down, probably, by the torrents, which descend with a frightful rapidity from the mountains. Among the different species of monkeys found in this island, is the oran-outang, or man of the woods, which is thought to resemble the human form more than any other irrational being. One of these creatures was dissected by Dr. Tyson, at Oxford.

The original inhabitants reside in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts; but the sea-coasts are governed by Mahometan princes. The chief port of the island is Benjar-Massean, where a considerable trade is carried on with all the towns of India.

Java is situated to the southward of Sumatra, from which it is separated by the straits of Sunda. It is about 630 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It produces pepper, indigo, sugar, tobacco, rice, coffee, cocoa-nuts, plantains, cardamoms, and all the tropical fruits in great plenty and perfection. The forests abound

with wild beasts of various kinds, as lions, tigers, elephants, rhinoceroses, buffaloes, and wild horses, with an infinite variety of serpents, some of which are of an enormous size.

This island is remarkably populous, the number of inhabitants having been computed at above thirty millions. There are several princes in it, of whom the most considerable are the emperor of Matran, who resides at Karafura, and the kings of Bantam and Japara. But the Dutch are absolute masters of the greater part of the island, and have erected here a kind of commercial monarchy, equal to any thing that has subsisted since the demolition of Carthage; unless that of the English East-India company in Bengal may be thought superior. The capital is Batavia, a large, flourishing, and populous city, situated at the mouth of the river Jucatra, and in the bottom of a very large commodious bay, forming one of the finest harbours in the world. The city is surrounded with a rampart 21 feet thick, lined on the outside with stone, and fortified with bastions. This rampart is environed with a ditch 135 feet in breadth, and generally full of water. The avenues to the city are defended with several forts, well furnished with brass cannon: no person is suffered to pass beyond these forts without a passport. The river Jucatra runs through the middle of the city, and forms fifteen canals of running water, all faced with free-stone, and the borders planted with rows of trees; over these canals are fifty-six bridges, besides those without the walls. The streets are all perfectly straight, and, in general, thirty feet broad. The houses are of stone, and resemble those in Holland.

The city is about a league and a half in circumference, and has five gates; but the number of houses and inhabitants are at least ten times greater in the suburbs than in the city. The public buildings are large and magnificent, and the arsenals and magazines are furnished with ammunition and warlike stores sufficient for many years. The citadel is a regular fortification, situated at the mouth of the river, and flanked with four bastions; two of which command the harbour, and the other two the town. In this castle the Dutch governor-general resides, in all the pomp of eastern magnificence. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a splendour superior to that of any European potentate, except on solemn occasions. The government is admirably calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in different parts of the island.

Both the city and suburbs are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world: the Chinese alone, residing in this island, have been computed at 100,000; above 30,000 of them lived in the city till the year 1740, when they were all massacred by the Dutch governor, without the least offence being proved against them. This massacre was of too infernal a nature to be defended by the Dutch themselves; and yet

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of the greater part of the island are a kind of commerce that has subsisted since the conquest of the English.

may be thought superior to any other in the island, and flourishes, and population of the river Jucara, and the bay, forming a commodious bay, forming a world.

The city is situated on a neck, lined on the outside with bastions. This rampart is in breadth, and extends to the city are defended with brass cannon.

and these forts without any assistance through the middle of the island, especially water, and borders planted with trees are fifty-six bridges.

The streets are all paved with stone, and are thirty feet broad. The houses are those in Holland, and a half in circumference, and the number of houses is ten times greater in the public buildings are arsenals and magazines.

and warlike stores sufficient to defend the island is a regular fortification on the river, and flanked by two castles, which command the harbour.

In this castle the garrison is in all the pomp of a European army, and appears abroad, he is in splendour, and with a potentate, except on occasions of great importance is admirably calm.

either of the civil or military, the garrison of 3000 men, and about 15,000 troops on the island.

is inhabited by natives of the island, and the Chinese have been computed at 100,000. In the city lived in the city till all massacred by the Dutch, the offence being proved to be of too internal a nature to be punished; and they

the wretch who was the instrument of this inhuman proceeding, had the assurance to embark for Europe on his arrival at the Cape of Good-Hope, he was apprehended by an order from the States, and sent back to Batavia, in order to be tried. He was accordingly embarked, but never reached that city: it was expected he was thrown overboard in his passage, in order to prevent any farther inquiry into an action detested by all mankind.

CEYLON, called by the inhabitants Lamea, the terrestrial Paradise, though not the largest, is generally allowed to be the richest and finest island in Asia. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin, from which it is separated by a very narrow strait. It is about 250 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. Besides the common tropical fruits, which are found here in great abundance, the island produces long pepper, cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, opiate, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, cinnamon, gold, silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds.

Shells and fish, of almost every kind, are here in great plenty. It is well watered with rivers, and has many beautiful woods and groves. Animals of various kinds are found here, especially cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The elephants of Ceylon are preferred to all others: but what has rendered this island remarkable is its cinnamon, which is the best in the world, and produced in amazing quantities.

The trees have each of them three barks, which form the true cinnamon; those of a middling age and growth afford the best; and the body of the tree, which, when stripped, is white, serves for building and other uses: they grow in great profusion in every part of the island; but the best is found in what is called the cinnamon-field, a large tract of land, comprehending the whole west and southern coasts of the island.

The Portuguese made themselves masters of the ports, and engrossed the cinnamon trade about the year 1520. Their tyrannical behaviour to the natives, induced them to have recourse to the Dutch for assistance: accordingly, in the year 1656, they drove out the Portuguese, but kept possession of their settlements, and in a manner shut up the king in Candy, his capital, situated on a mountain, near the centre of the island.

They are so careful to engross the whole trade of the island, that they will not suffer any foreign ship to enter their ports.

In January 1782, Trincomalee, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and by the last treaty of peace was restored to the Dutch.

The natives, who are called Cinglases, are a very offensive people, and are said to have had some notions of the principles of revelation many centuries before Christ. Some suppose that the fleets of Solomon sailed with the Cinglases, and that from them they derived their knowledge; while others think that they

owed it to the Jews, many of whom, it is said, were settled in the Hither Peninsula of India by Nebuchadnezzar. But, however that be, in the southern part of the island, about twenty leagues from the sea, is a vast plain, in the middle of which is a mountain, covered with a beautiful turf, whence proceeds a rock, which rises in a pyramidal form, near a quarter of a league in height, but so rugged, that it cannot be ascended but by means of an iron chain, which hangs from the top to the bottom. On the summit of this pyramidal rock, though it appears like a point when viewed from the plain below, is a terrace 200 paces in diameter, in the centre of which is a large and deep lake, full of exceeding fine water. Near the lake is a large stone, on which is the print of a man's foot, as perfect as if it had been taken in wax.

THE MALDIVIA ISLANDS were the first islands discovered by the European navigators on their arrival in the Indies. They form a vast and numerous cluster, but are very small; many of them are only little rocks just above the surface of the water: they extend from the equator to eight degrees of north latitude, and the most northern of them is not more than fifty leagues from Cape Comorin. Few Europeans, except the Dutch, visit these islands, where they carry on a very profitable trade, in a beautiful species of shells called Couries, which were formerly used as money by the negroes on the coast of Guinea in Africa. Among other vegetable productions in these islands, is a particular species of cocoa-tree, whose fruit is an excellent medicine in fevers: this tree grows to a large size. A writer of great credit and veracity declares, that the Maldivians have vessels of twenty or thirty tons burden, whose hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, and cables, are all made from this tree. It also affords them oil for their lamps, fuel to dress their food, sugar, candied sweetmeats, and a pretty strong kind of cloth.

Besides the islands we have described, there are a great many small ones dispersed in the Indian and Chinese Ocean, &c. the description of some of which, as well as the soil, would prove but barren; however, as to those of them which are to be ranked among the remainder of the new discoveries, they will be found in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XIX.

ISLANDS off the ASIATIC COASTS, and various Ports discovered by the Captains COOK, CLERKE, GORE, KING, and other NAVIGATORS, not included in our first CHAPTER of NEW DISCOVERIES.

ACCORDING to our plan laid down, we come now to treat of such isles, as not being immediately within the track of those described under the first general

general head of New Discoveries, being observed at various times, and some only seen without being visited, we thought to class together in a separate arrangement.

We shall begin with KERQUELEN'S LAND, which was first seen by a French navigator, whose name it bears. It is situated in 48 deg. 41 min. south lat. and 76 deg. 50 min. east long. and was visited by Captain Cook in 1776. Having come to an anchor in the harbour, in order to procure water, and nearly completed their quantity, the commander allowed the ships crews (Resolution and Discovery) the 27th of December, to celebrate Christmas; in consequence of which, many of them went on shore, and made excursions into the country, which they found desolate and barren. In the evening, one of them presented a quart bottle to Captain Cook, which he had found on the north side of the harbour, fastened with some wire to a projecting rock. This bottle contained a piece of parchment, with the following inscription:

*Ludovico XV. Galliarum
rege, et de Boynes
regi a Secretis ad res
maritimas annis 1772 et
1773.*

Captain Cook, as a memorial of the British vessels having been in this harbour, wrote on the other side of the parchment as follows:

*Navis Resolution
et Discovery
de Rege Magnæ Britannia,
Decembris 1776.*

It was then put again into the bottle, accompanied with a silver two-penny piece of 1772, the mouth of the bottle being covered with a leaden cap, and placed the next morning in a pile of stones, erected for that purpose on an eminence, near the place where it was first found. Here Captain Cook displayed the British flag, and named the place Christmas-Harbour; but he forbore giving any new name to this desolate land:

"No place (says Mr. Anderson, who examined the country) hitherto discovered in either hemisphere, affords so scanty a field for the naturalist as this sterile spot. Some verdure indeed appeared, when at a small distance from the shore, which might raise the expectation of meeting with a little herbage; but all this lively appearance was occasioned by one small plant, resembling saxifrage, which grew up the hills in large spreading tufts, on a kind of rotten turf, which, if dried, might serve for fuel, and was the only thing seen here that could possibly be applied to that purpose. Another plant, which grew nearly to the height of two feet, was pretty plentifully scattered about the boggy declivities; it had the appearance of a small cabbage when it was shot into seeds. It had the watry acid

taste of the antiscorbutic plants, though it was dissimilar from the whole tribe. When eaten raw, was not unlike the New Zealand scurvy-grass, but when boiled, it acquired a rank flavour. At this season none of its seeds were ripe enough to be brought home and introduced into our English kitchen-garden.

"Near the brooks and boggy places were found several other small plants, which were eaten as salad; the like garden-crests, and very hot, and the other very mild. The latter is a curiosity, having not only male and female, but also androgynous plants. Some of the grasses grew pretty plentifully in a few small spots in the harbour, which was cut down for our cattle. In short, the whole catalogue of plants did not exceed eighteen, including a beautiful species of lichen, and several sorts of moss. Nor was there the appearance of a tree or shrub in the whole country.

Among the animals, the most considerable were seals, which were distinguished by the name of sea-bears, being the sort that are called the ursine-seal. They come on shore to repose and breed. At that time they were shedding their hair, and so remarkably tame, that there was no difficulty in killing them. No other quadruped was seen; but a great number of oceanic birds, as ducks, shags, petrels, &c. The ducks were somewhat like a widgeon, both in size and figure. A considerable number of them were killed and eaten. They were excellent food, and had not the least fishy taste. The Cape petrel, the small blue one, and the small black one, or Mother Carey's chicken, were not in plenty here; but another sort, which is the largest of the petrels, and called by the seamen Mother Carey's goods, is found in abundance. This petrel is as large as an albatross, and is carnivorous, feeding on the dead carcasses of seals, birds, &c. The greatest number of birds here were penguins, which consist of three sorts. The head of the largest is black, the upper part of the body of a leaden grey, the under part white; and the feet black: two broad stripes of fine yellow descend from the head to the breast: the bill is of a reddish colour, and longer than in the other sorts. The second sort is about half the size of the former; it is of a blackish grey on the upper part of the body, and has a white spot on the upper part of the head: the bill and feet are yellowish. In the third sort, the upper part of the body and throat are black, the rest white, except the top of the head, which is ornamented with a fine yellow arch, which it can erect as two crests. The shags here are of two sorts, viz. the lesser cormorant, or water-crow; and another with a blackish back and a white belly. The sea-swallow, the tern, the common sea-gull; and the Port Egmont hen, were also found here. Large flocks of a singular kind of white bird flew about here, having the base of the bill covered with a horny crust. It had a black bill and white feet, was somewhat larger than a pigeon, and the flesh tailed like that of a duck.

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ly fish about the size of a small haddock. The
 shell-fish seen here were a few limpets and
 muscles.
 " Many of the hills, notwithstanding they were of a
 moderate height, were at that time covered with snow,
 though answering to our June. It is reasonable to ima-
 gine that rain must be very frequent here, as well from
 the marks of large torrents having rushed down, as from
 the appearance of the country, which, even on the hills,
 was a continued bog or swamp.
 " The rocks consist principally of a dark blue, and
 very hard stone, intermixed with particles of glimmer,
 or quartz. Some considerable rocks were also formed
 here of a brownish brittle stone."
 " PATERNOSTER ISLANDS, were so called from the
 great number of rocks, which sailors have likened to the
 beads with which the Roman Catholics tell their pater-
 noster. They abound in corn and fruits, and are ra-
 ther populous.
 " GEORGIA, a cluster of barren islands, about 54 deg.
 30 min. south lat. and 36 deg. 30 min. west long.
 One of them is between fifty and sixty leagues in
 length. They contain nothing worth remarking.
 " ISLAND OF HANDSOME PEOPLE lies in 10 deg.
 south lat. and 185 deg. east long. It is eighteen miles
 in circumference, and was discovered by De Quiros in
 1696. Notwithstanding the excessive heat of the cli-
 mate, the natives are remarkably fair and handsome,
 from whence the island had its name. They are co-
 vered only from the waist downwards, with mats of
 palm, and wear a mantle of the same on their shoul-
 ders. Their canoes are trees hollowed out, and their
 thatched houses stand together in clusters.
 " HOON OR HOORN ISLAND, is situated in 14 deg.
 36 min. south lat. and 179 deg. east long. and was dis-
 covered in 1616, by Shouten. The male natives of
 this island are tall, well-made, and robust. They are
 nimble runners, expert swimmers, and good divers.
 Their complexion is a yellowish brown; and they
 take great pleasure in dressing their hair, which is
 black. Some tie it, others frize it. Some let it grow
 down the waist, and tie it in five or six tails; and
 others dress it right an end, standing up like hogs bris-
 tles, ten or eleven inches long; but they do not suffer
 the beard to grow. The women are short of stature,
 deformed both in features and body, and rather in-
 decent in their behaviour. Both sexes go naked, except
 a piece of covering between their legs; and the women
 rub their heads and cheeks with something red.
 " Their land produces spontaneously a great variety of
 fruits, such as coconas, bananas, yams, &c. for they are
 ignorant of cultivation. At low-water the women
 catch fish, which is eaten raw. They have also some
 hogs, but their pork is spoiled by the cookery.
 " PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLANDS, lying in 51 deg.
 south lat. were discovered by two French navigators,
 on their passage from the Cape of Good-Hope to the
 Philippine Islands. They are two in number, and, as

they had no names in the French Chart of the Southern
 Hemisphere, Captain Cook, when he saw them in
 1776, gave them this appellation.
 " That which lay most to the south, appeared to be
 about fifteen leagues in circuit, and the most northerly
 about nine leagues. There are four others contiguous,
 and which, from the names of the discoverers, are
 called Marion and Crozet's Islands.
 " ADVENTURE-ISLAND, so called from the ship Ad-
 venture, in which Captain Furneaux sailed to the
 South-Seas, is situate in lat. 49 deg. 21 min. south, and
 long. 147 deg. 29 min. west. The natives are de-
 scribed as mild and cheerful, with little of that wild
 appearance which savages in general have, but possess
 neither genius nor activity.
 " RESOLUTION, a small island, so called by Captain
 Cook, from his own ship the Resolution, lies in lat.
 17 deg. 24 min. south, and long. 141 deg. 45 min.
 west.
 " PALM-ISLAND is situated on the coast of New
 South Wales, as are also the islands SOLITARY, FUR-
 NEAUX, MARIAS, CUMBERLAND, NORTHUMBER-
 LAND, and DIRECTION, so called by Captain Cook,
 who first explored this coast, and thus denominated them.
 " THE PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLANDS lie at the nor-
 thern extremity of New Holland. They were observed
 at a distance to abound with trees and grass, and were
 known to be inhabited, from the smoke that was seen
 ascending in many places.
 " THE BAY OF ISLANDS, containing a cluster of little
 isles, is situate on the coast of New Zealand: among
 which are included those called GANNET, BANKS'S,
 SOLANDER'S, TRAF, &c.
 " POTOE is an island situated about two leagues to the
 westward of the Grand, or principal of the Ladronez.
 It is rocky, and of small extent.
 " CENTRY-BOX-ISLAND lies about a league and an
 half from the south point of Christmas-Harbour, in
 Kerguelen's-Land; it was so called, from an opinion
 of its resembling a centry-box in its figure.
 " SOLOR lies to the south of the Island of CELEBES,
 in lat. 9 deg. south, and long. 123 deg. 55 min. east.
 It contains nothing remarkable.
 " THE NICOBAR-ISLANDS lie at the entrance of the
 Gulph of Bengal. The natives there are tall and well-
 proportioned, with long faces, black eyes, black lank
 hair, and copper-coloured skins, and they are said to
 be an harmless, good sort of people. They go naked,
 except a covering about the waist. They have neither
 temples nor idols, nor does there seem to be any great
 superiority among them. They are excellent swim-
 mers, and sometimes will overtake small vessels under
 sail; live in little huts, having no towns, and the coun-
 try is almost covered with wood. They have no corn,
 but a fruit which serves them instead of bread, and
 they catch plenty of fish. The largest of these islands,
 which gives name to the rest, is about forty miles in
 length, and fifteen in breadth, at the utmost.

PORTLAND-ISLAND lies to the southward of the Society-Isles; and was so called by Captain Cook, who discovered it on his first voyage, from its resemblance to that of the same name in the British Channel. Some parts of this island appeared to be cultivated, and pumice-stones in great quantities lying along the shore within the bay, indicated that there was a volcano in the country. High palings upon the ridges of hills were also visible in two places, which were judged to be designed for religious purposes.

BARE-ISLAND was so called by Captain Cook, as it appeared to be barren, and inhabited only by fishermen. It lies in lat. 39 deg. 45 min. south.

EAST-ISLAND lies in lat. 37 deg. 48 min. south. It appeared to Captain Cook, who discovered it on his first voyage, small and barren like the former.

WHITE-ISLAND is contiguous to the last-mentioned.

The **MAYOR AND COURT OF ALDERMEN**, a cluster of small islands lying in lat. 37 deg. 59 min. south, about twelve miles from the main, are high, and were also remarked for barrenness.

MERCURY-ISLANDS, a cluster of different sizes. The Bay is called also Mercury-Bay, and lies in lat. 36 deg. 47 min. south, long. 184 deg. 4 min. west, and has but a small entrance.

The **HEN AND CHICKENS**, are small islands situated in lat. 35 deg. 46 min. south.

POOR KNIGHTS. These form a cluster of islands, lying in lat. 36 deg. 36 min. south, on which were seen a few towns which appeared fortified; and the land round them seemed to be well peopled.

CAVALLES-ISLANDS, so called by Captain Cook, from the name of some fish the crew purchased of the Indians. These people were very insolent, using many frantic gestures, and throwing stones at the crew. Some small shot were fired, and one of them being hit, a precipitate retreat was the consequence.

THREE KINGS. The chief of these islands lies in lat. 34 deg. 18 min. south, and long. 187 deg. 48 min. west. Birds were shot upon it, which were very good eating, and resembled the geese of Europe.

HAMOTE, a little island in lat. 41 deg. south, near Queen-Charlotte's Sound.

ENTRY-ISLE, is an high island situated about nine or ten leagues from Cape Keamaroo, which lies in 41 deg. 44 min. south lat. and 113 deg. 30 min. west longitude.

ISLAND OF LOOKERS-ON, situated contiguous to the former, was so called by Captain Cook, because the natives could not be prevailed on to approach the ship, though they admired it.

MAGNETICAE-ISLAND, so called by Captain Cook, because the compass did not travel well when the ship was near it. It is said to be high, rugged, rocky, and barren, yet smoke was seen in several parts about it: it was concluded not to be destitute of inhabitants.

THE SISTERS. These are two islands of very small

extent, plentifully stocked with wood, situate in the lat. of 5 deg. south, and long. 106 deg. 12 min. near south and north from each other, and encompassed by a reef of coral rocks, the whole four or five miles circuit.

CARACATOA is the southernmost of a cluster of islands lying in the entrance of the Straights of Sunda. Its southern extremity is situated in the lat. of 6 deg. 9 min. south, and long. 105 deg. 15 min. east. Its whole circumference does not exceed nine miles. The island consists of elevated land, gradually rising from the sea, and is entirely covered with trees, except a few spots cleared by the natives for the purpose of forming rice fields. The population of the island is inconsiderable. The coral reefs afford turtles in abundance, but other refreshments are very scarce there.

PULO-BALLY is an island about two miles round, and lies in the lat. of 00 deg. 30 min. south. There is good anchorage to the eastward of it in 12 and 13 fathoms: water, muddy ground. Fresh water and wood are here in plenty.

SCHOUTEN-ISLANDS, so called from Schouten, Dutch navigator, who discovered them in 1616, lie in lat. 00 deg. 46 min. south.

SELANG lies in only 50 min. of south lat. It is flat, or very high. It forms two harbours with the main land, an outer and an inner harbour. There is no danger in running into either, but what is plain to be seen. The inner harbour is about two miles broad, and three long, and the general depth ten fathoms water.

PULO-GAO lies in 18 min. south lat. and is an island of middling height. When plainly seen, it appears like the land of Europe, not being woody, as the islands in these parts generally are. The valley is said to have a rich soil, and many fago trees upon it. It is not inhabited, though travellers by water often put into the bay to pass the night, where they also sometimes employ several days in fishing.

PRINCES ISLAND lies in the western mouth of the Straights of Sunda. It abounds with vegetables of various kinds, deer, turtle, &c. Our India ships used to touch here to take in water, but they have omitted this practice some years since; though Captain Cook says the water is exceeding good, if filled towards the head of the brook, which circumstance perhaps was not always sufficiently attended to.

TOMOOUY is an island situated in 00 deg. 15 min. south lat. and, in shape, resembles a horse-shoe. On the island rises a hill, which takes up about three fourths of its compass, and there are plantations of tropical fruits and roots along the hill's side.

WAGLOL is a small flat island. At most of these islands, lives one or more of certain chiefs called Spingages, who repair on board such vessels as visit them, in order to beg presents. The dress of one of them is thus described: one half of the coat and long drawers was clouded red, white, and yellow; the other half

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is pinked, was made of coarse white calico. The
Mahometans upon these islands live mostly upon, fish
and sago bread. Sometimes they mix a cocoa-nut
sped down with the sago flower, and putting this into
thin Chinese iron pan, they keep stirring the mixture
in the fire, and eat it warm. They also eat the ordi-
ary white swallo, a root which is found every where
in the sand at low water; they eat it raw, cut up
small, and mixed with salt and lime-juice. They have
the following peculiar method of bleeding in this coun-
try. They put the rough side of a certain leaf, about
as large as a man's hand, on that part where they want
to extract the blood, then with the tongue they lick
the upper side of the leaf, and the under side is pre-
sently all over bloody. A particular kind of green fruit
grows in these parts; which the natives eat. It is as
long as the hollow part of a quill, and almost as small.
They call it ciry. This fruit is very good in a curry
stew, leaving a fine aromatic flavour on the palate.

The two clusters of islands Bo and POPO, lie nearly
in the same parallel of latitude, 1 deg. 17 min. south.
They are about five leagues asunder. Bo consists of six
or seven islands.

These islands, which have a good many inhabitants,
can supply plenty of cocoa-nuts, salt, and dried fish.
To the westward of the cluster, but contiguous to it,
are about nine or ten small low islands. To the east-
ward, on two islands, are two little hills, which, at a
distance, look like tea-cups turned upside down. Here
reigns a rajah, and the isles are said to be well inha-
bited.

Here not only women often kill or burn themselves
with their deceased husbands, but men also, in honour of
their deceased masters, as authentic accounts inform us.
Those who determine on this, are not limited to time;
they name, perhaps, a distant day, and in the mean
while, their intention being made known, there is no
honour the natives can think of, but they pay to this de-
votion: he is carested wherever he goes. On the fatal
day, by the side of a great fire, a loose stage of boards
is erected; on this he dances, working himself up to a
fit. He then skips to the end of a plank, which tilting,
he falls headlong into the flames, and is consumed im-
mediately.

The north coast of the ISLAND of WAYGIOW, which
lies about half a degree to the northward of the equator,
is near fifteen leagues in length. The hill on Gibby
Mopine (a particular quarter of Waygiow) which,
from its shape, is called the Cock's-Comb, may be
seen about twenty leagues off. Some white spots ap-
pear on it. Opposite to the entrance of the harbour
are two little islands; one shaped like a sugar-loaf, the
other with a hillock on it. At the bottom of this hillock
is a piece of fresh water, where there is anchorage in
twelve fathoms sand. The two islands are connected
by a reef of coral rocks, dry at low water. There are

said to be 100,000 inhabitants upon the island, who
wage perpetual war with one another. OMAK harbour
lies in 00 deg. 10 min. north lat. Near this island two
fishes were taken, the heads of which were remarkable
for an horn that projected from between their eyes.
The horn was about four inches long, equal in length
to the head. Altogether the head was like that of an
unicorn. The natives called it Een Raw, that is the fish
Raw. The skin was black, and the body about twenty
inches long. Its tail was armed with two strong scythes,
with their points forwards on each side.

The ISLAND of ABDON lies in only 36 min. north
lat. It is about three miles round, and 200 feet high.
KONIBAR is about the same height and size; it is north
of Abdon. The rest of the sixteen islands that form
this cluster, are flat and low, except Aiow Babar, which
rises about 500 feet. There are said to be plantations
of yams, potatoes, sugar-canes, and other tropical pro-
ductions on Konibar.

The inhabitants of these islands have turtle in such
abundance, and other fish (especially cockles about the
bigness of a man's head) that they neglect agriculture.
When they want bread, they carry live turtle, and
their eggs, with dried fish, to Waygiow, which they
truck for sago, either baked or raw; nay, perhaps, go
to the woods and provide themselves, by cutting down
the trees.

SANGIR is an oblong island, extending from 3 deg.
30 min. to 4 deg. 30 min. north lat. It is broadest
towards the north, and tapers small towards the south.
About the middle of the west coast of the island is the
town, harbour, and bay of Taroona, opposite which,
on the east coast, is also a town and harbour, called Ta-
bookang. It abounds in cocoa-nuts, as do many islands
that lie near it. A fathom of small brass wire will
purchase 100 cocoa-nuts, an ordinary knife 300, and
a battel (60 lb.) of cocoa-nut oil may be had for four
knives here.

TULOUR, or TANNA LABU, lies in 4 deg. 45 min.
north lat. It is situated about seventy miles east of
the north part of Sangir. It is of middling height. The
inhabitants live on the sea-coast, and have their plan-
tations up the country.

SALIDABO-ISLAND lies southward of Tulour, be-
ing divided only by a narrow streight, about a mile
wide. It is not above eight or ten miles in circumfer-
ence, contains several villages, and is particularly well
cultivated.

KABRUANG lies to the south-east of Salidabo, and is
parted from it by a streight about four miles wide.
This island is in high cultivation, and also contains se-
veral villages.

TAGULANDA contains about 2000 inhabitants, who
are Pagans. On the island are many goats, some bul-
locks, and cocoa-nuts in abundance. The Dutch keep
here a corporal and two soldiers, also a school-master
for teaching the children the principles of Christianity.
Three progs, a kind of large chopping-knives, will
purchase

purchase a bullock, and a thousand cocoa-nuts may be had for one of them.

BANKA-ISLAND is near Tagulanda, and remarkable for a high hill. It has a harbour on its south-end, is pretty well inhabited, and abounds in cocoa-nuts, limes, nankas or jacks, turtle, other fish, and rats.

TELLUSYANG-ISLAND, that is, Harbour of Syang, is contiguous to Banka-Island. This harbour, which is said to be a good one, is on the south end of the island, which has a hill upon it. There are some wild cattle, but no other inhabitants. These islands are much frequented by cruisers, not only from Sooloo, but from Mindanao.

SOOLOO-ISLAND is situated in 6 deg. north lat. and 119 deg. east long. It is thirty miles long, twelve broad, and contains a great number of inhabitants. It is governed by a king of its own. It is well cultivated, and affords a fine prospect from the sea. Indeed, the island being rather small for its number of inhabitants, they study agriculture more than those on the adjacent ones, where land is not deemed so valuable. As they cannot depend on a crop of rice, not being sure of rain in due season, they cultivate many roots; the Spanish, or sweet potatoe; the clody, or St. Hillano yam; the China yam, both red and white; sending to Mindanao for what rice they consume. They have great variety of fine tropical fruits. Their oranges are full as good as those of China. They have also a variety of the fruit called jack, or naka; a kind of large cuttard-apple, named madang; mangoer; and a fruit they call bolona, which has a white inside, and is like a large plum or mango. They enjoy, in great abundance, a very innocent and delicious fruit, called lancey. The trees in the woods are loaded with this fruit, which is large, and ripens well. The Sooloos having great connexion with China, and many Chinese being settled among them, they have learned the art of engrafting and improving their fruits. Here is no spice tree but the cinnamon. Though this island, from its situation, enjoys perpetual summer, yet up the country it is always cool, especially under the shade of the toak tree, which are very numerous. This tree has a broad leaf, which, when bruised between the fingers, stains the hand red. The industrious Chinese gather these leaves, and the leaves of the fruit-tree called madang, to line the baskets of cane or bamboo, in which they pack up the Sooloo-root, which they export in great quantities from this place.

The Sooloos are not only neat in their clothes, but dress gaily. The men go generally in white waistcoats, buttoned down to the wrists, with white breeches, sometimes straight, sometimes wide. The women are handsome in general, and, by comparison, fair. Those of rank wear waistcoats of fine mullin, close fitted to their bodies; their necks, to the upper parts of the two breasts, being bare. From the waist downwards, they wear a loose robe, girt with an embroidered zone or belt about the middle, with a large clasp of gold, and

a precious stone. This being loose, like a petticoat comes over the drawers, and reaches to the middle of the leg, the drawers, which are of fine mullin, reaching to the ankle.

The sultanhip in Sooloo is hereditary, but the government mixed. About fifteen datoos, who may be called the nobility, make the greater part of the sultan's council. The title is hereditary to the eldest son, and they sit in council with the sultan. The sultan has two votes in this assembly, and each datoo has one. The common people of Sooloo, called tellimans, do not enjoy much real freedom. It is said that the haughty lords, when visiting their estates, will sometimes, with impunity, demand and carry off young women, whom they happen to fancy, to swell the number of their fancies (concubines) at Sooloo. Indeed, the lower class groan under various kinds of tyranny. The nobles here are extremely dissolute. Those who have more than one wife, keep each in a separate house; but the circumstance is not very common, and their dissoluteness consists in their numerous concubines and intrigues; for here women have as much liberty in going abroad as in Europe.

The Sooloos have a very good breed of horses, and their women are very expert in riding. Their manner is to ride backwards and forwards the length of a broad street, upon sandy ground, forcing their horses on a quick trot, and checking them when they attempt to gallop. The horses accustomed to this, trot very fast. Riding is an exercise in use all over the island among women of fashion.

Here are wild elephants, the offspring (as is supposed) of those sent in former days from the continent of India as presents to the kings of Sooloo. Those animals avoid meeting with horned cattle, though they are afraid of horses. Sooloo has spotted deer, and abundance of goats and black cattle, but the people seldom milk their cows. They have very few sheep; but the wild hogs are numerous, and do much mischief by breaking down fences. After harvest the inhabitants hunt the elephants and wild hogs, endeavouring to destroy them. Of birds, there are here abundance of minute cocoaots, and small green parrots. At Sooloo, and the islands adjacent, the pearl-fishery has been famous for many ages. In the sea between Mindanao and Sooloo is a pearl-fishery not inferior to any in the Indies, either in point of colour or size. This, indeed, is the source of their wealth.

The Sooloos have in their families many slaves whom they purchase from the different cruisers. Sometimes they purchase whole cargoes, which they carry to Batavia, where, if the females are handsome, they are bought up for the Batavia market. The masters sometimes use their slaves cruelly, assuming the power of life and death over them. Many are put to death for trifling offences, and their bodies left above ground. An attempt of elopement here is scarcely ever forgiven.

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very good breed of horses, and art in riding. Their manner towards the length of a horse, ground, forcing their backs, and riding them when they are accustomed to this, trot very fast in use all over the island.

the offspring (as is supposed) from the continent of Java, of Sooloo. Those animals are cattle, though they are spotted deer, and abundant, but the people seldom make very few sheep; but they do much mischief. After harvest the inhabitants kill hogs, endeavouring to breed here are here abundance of small green parrots. At Sooloo, the pearl-fishery has been very not inferior to any in the colour or size. This, indeed,

air families many slaves who offer different cruifers. Sometimes, which they carry to Borneo, are handsome, they are market. The masters foolishly, assuming the power of the bodies left above ground, and here is scarcely ever

The state of Sooloo is important: the inhabitants are very powerful, not only most of the adjacent islands lying under them, but great part of Borneo. They have the character of being treacherous, and of endeavouring always to supply by fraud what they cannot effect by force.

PANGATARRAN, lying a little to the southward of the former, is a long flat island, has no fresh water, nor is any good anchoring near, except in some few places. It abounds in cocoa-nuts and a fruit called nava.

RAMANCOR lies in lat. 9 deg. 25 min. north, and long. 579 deg. 45 min. east. It is about twenty-three miles in circumference, very sandy. A few villages, and a temple, are all the buildings to be seen here.

PULO-SAPATA is situated in lat. 10 deg. 4 min. north, and long. 109 deg. 10 min. east. It is elevated, small, and unfruitful.

PRATA lies in lat. 20 deg. north. Near the southern extremity of the island some of the crew of the Resolution imagined they saw from the mast-head several openings in the reef, which seemed to promise secure anchorage. The extent of the Prata shoal being about six leagues from north to south, may be accounted considerable.

MYO lies in lat. 1 deg. 23 min. north. TYFORY is a flat island not so large as Myo, and lies about W. by S. from it, distant five or six miles. When the Spaniards had the Moluccas, this place was inhabited; but the Dutch will not now permit any one to live here, lest the smuggling of spices should prove the consequence.

KARAKITA, PALLA, SIAO, and GRAVE, are the principal of a cluster of islands lying between the lat. of 4 and 5 deg. north. A school-master, a corporal, and a few soldiers, are kept by the Dutch at Siao.

The RABBIT is a small rocky island with a few cocoa-nut trees upon it, and many rocks like sugar-loaves round it. It lies to the eastward of Karakita about four miles, and derived its name from the animal whose shape it is supposed to resemble.

SULPHUR-ISLAND, discovered by Captain Gore, is in 24 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and 140 deg. 56 min. east longitude. Its length is about five miles. The south point is an elevated barren hill, rather flat at the summit, and when seen from the west south-west, exhibits evident tokens of a volcanic eruption. The soil, earth, or rock, for it was difficult to distinguish which of these substances its surface was composed, displayed various colours; and it was imagined that a considerable part was sulphur, not only from its appearance, but from the strong sulphureous smell perceived in approaching the points. As the Resolution passed nearer the land than the Discovery, several of the officers of that ship thought they discerned fire proceeding from the top of the hill; these circumstances induced Captain Gore to bestow on this discovery the appellation of Sulphur-Island.

BURNEY'S-ISLAND is situated on the north-east coast of Asia, in 67 deg. 45 min. north latitude. The inland country about this part abounds with hills, some of which are of considerable elevation. Captain Cook observes, that the land (except a few spots on the coast) appeared to be covered with snow.

ST. LAWRENCE'S-ISLAND, according to the most accurate observations, lies in 63 deg. 47 min. north latitude, and 188 deg. 15 min. east. long. and is three leagues in circumference. The northern part of it may be discerned at ten or twelve leagues distance.

BERING'S-ISLAND, so called from the navigator who discovered it; lies in 58 degrees north latitude. KARAKINSKOI, MAIDENOI, ATAKA, and SHAIMEA, are all islands that lie contiguous, and very thinly, if at all inhabited, having scarcely any marks of cultivation.

GORE-ISLAND lies in about 64 deg. north lat. and 191 deg. east long. It is about thirty miles in extent, and appeared to our navigators to be barren and destitute of inhabitants, and received its appellation from Captain Cook, who discovered it in the course of his last voyage.

With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

The sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-north-east to south-south-west, which are called the Kurile-Islands. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited; but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of larch and pines; those to the southward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia; but those to the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular

eneration for old age. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern islands they sew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles feathers to sledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillets, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets and small wares.

The following account of the remarkable place subjoined, being more ample and curious than any we have seen in other Geographical Works, we presume it will be acceptable to our readers.

A Description of the DEAD SEA, and its Environs, in PALESTINE.

Extracted from Mariti's Travels into Syria, &c.

"THE name, Dead Sea, is of modern date, for the ancients called it the Lake Asphaltites, the Sea of Sodom, the Salt Sea, the Lake of Sirbon; and in our days the Arabs name it Bahheret-Lut; that is to say, the Sea of Lot.

"Josephus, who caused this lake to be measured, found that it was 580 furlongs in length, and 150 in breadth, which may make seventy-two and a half Italian miles one way, and eighteen and three quarters the other. It is 180 miles in circumference. The lofty mountains of the ancient country of the Moabites surround it on the eastern side, and discharge into it the waters of the Arnon and the Zered, which fall down their sides in long cascades. It is bounded on the west and south by high mountains also; some of which, composed of blackish rock, serve as barriers to the vast deserts of Judea; and the rest, clothed with verdant groves, form a part of Idumea. It is likewise on the west that the brook Kedron falls into this lake. The northern side is entirely open, and shews the delightful plains of Avlona, which bring as a tribute to the Dead Sea the rapid waters of the Jordan.

"We are informed, that this vast basin was covered formerly with fruit-trees, and abundant crops, and that from the bosom of the earth, buried under its waters, arose the superb cities of Sodom, Gomorrah, Adam, Zebolim, and Segor; all rendered illustrious by the presence of a king. There is nothing, therefore, in the universe, which is not subject to vicissitudes and changes.

"The air is pure, the fields are extremely verdant, and my eye was delighted with the limpidness of the water, which fell in sheets from the summits of the mountains. The sterility to which part of these plains

was condemned from the creation of the world, renders the contrast produced by the fertile appearance of Avlona much more agreeable. But how comes it that two travellers should differ so much in their ideas? It is, because a capuchin carries every where along with him the five senses of the faith, while I am endowed with those only of nature.

"I endeavoured here to explain a phenomenon which has engaged the attention of many others, as well as of myself. This vast basin, which is continually receiving the waters of different torrents, rivulets and streams, has no visible outlet. Do its waters, therefore, discharge themselves by subterranean passages into the Mediterranean, or Red-Sea, as is pretended; must we adopt the opinion of Arabian philosophers, who conclude, and not without some foundation, that they are dissipated by evaporation?

"The water of this lake is clear and limpid, but bitter and excessively salt. No kind of fish are produced in it; and those even which are sometimes carried thither by the rapidity of the Jordan, instantly die.

"The water of the Dead Sea is favourable to swimmers; but people, who cannot swim, may be drowned there as well as elsewhere.

"No plants of any kind grow in this lake. The bottom of it is black, thick, and fetid; and the earth in the neighbourhood is of the same colour, and as inflammable as coal.

"Branches of trees, which fall into it, become petrified in a little time by the force of the salt which adheres to them, and penetrates to the very pith of the wood. Some of these petrified branches, of which the curious are fond, may be procured at Jerusalem.

"It has been said, that the approach of this lake was mortal to birds; yet it is frequented by abundance of the feathered tribe, and particularly by swallows, which, with their light wings skim this liquid plain, and sport on its surface.

"On certain days in the year, this sea is covered with a black thick fog, which does not extend further than its shores; but when the rays of the sun acquire force, they soon dissipate this body of vapours.

"The Dead Sea produces a kind of bitumen, called the Jewish, which may be found floating on the water like large lumps of earth, and which, being driven by the winds to the eastern and western shores, adheres to them. It is then collected by the Arabs, and divided between them and the basha of Damascus, who purchases their shares of it for some pieces of money, or such stuffs as they use for clothing. This bitumen is a sulphurous substance, mixed with salt, which is gradually condensed by the heat of the sun. It is as brittle as black pitch, to which it has a great resemblance. It is combustible, and exhales, while burning, a strong and penetrating smell. The ancient Arabs used it for daubing over the bottoms of their vessels, and the Egyptians for embalming the bodies of their dead. The natives give this bitumen the name of *tamar*." A NEW,

creation of the world, by the fertile appearance of the earth. But how comes it that the people of the East are so much in their ideas? They are every where along with, while I am endeavouring

to explain a phenomenon, and the mention of many others, and the basin, which is contained in different torrents, rivulets, and rills. Do its waters, through subterranean passages, descend into the Sea, as is pretended; or do they, as Arabian philosophers pretend, find some foundation, and then return?

is clear and limpid, and is fit for all uses. No kind of fish are produced in it, which are sometimes caught in the Jordan, instantly dead. The Sea is favourable to swimmers, but not to swimmers, may be drowned.

grow in this lake. The water is cold and fetid; and the earth is of the same colour, and as is

fall into it, become more and more of the salt which abounds in the very pith of the trees, and in the branches, of which the city of Jerusalem is surrounded.

The approach of this storm is frequently attended with abundance of rain, particularly by swallowing the sea, and the sea

near, this sea is covered with a kind of bitumen, called asphaltum, which does not extend further than the rays of the sun acquire a body of vapours.

A kind of bitumen, called asphaltum, and floating on the water, which, being driven by the wind, adheres to the shores, and is used by the Arabs, and divided into two parts, one of which is used by the Damascenes, who burn it for pieces of money, or for fuel.

This bitumen is a kind of salt, which is great and brittle. It is as brittle as glass, and has a great resemblance to the stone which the ancients used to burn in their vessels, and the Egyptians used to burn in their vessels of their dead. The name of it is *lamar*." A NEW.

A NEW,

COMPLETE, AND AUTHENTIC

S Y S T E M

OF

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK III.

A F R I C A.

C H A P. I.

General Account of this Quarter of the World.

THE third grand division of the globe, called AFRICA, is neither so fertile as the others, nor so populous as either Asia or Europe: it nevertheless abounds in riches, and might, by a proper degree of skill and industry, be rendered of much greater importance than it is at present. It is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which lies along the shores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid the Cape of Good-Hope. Africa is surrounded on every side with water, except where it joins to Asia by the isthmus of Suez, which separates the Mediterranean from the Red-Sea, and is only about sixty miles over. Being thus a peninsula, it has a prodigious extent of sea-coast, and is most advantageously situated for commerce; but navigation is neither esteemed nor cultivated by the inhabitants.

The utmost length of this country, from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 deg. north, to the Cape of Good-Hope, in 34 deg. 7 min. south lat. is 4,300 miles; and the broadest part from Cape Verd, in 17 deg. 20 min. to Cape Guardaluf, near the Straights of Babelmandel, in 51 deg. 20 min. lat. long. is 3,500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the isthmus of

Suez, the Red-Sea, and the Indian-Ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the south, by the Southern Ocean; and on the west, by the great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America.

As the equator divides Africa almost in the middle, and the far greatest part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile, and there most parts of the country are inhabited.

Africa is watered by several very noble rivers, of which the most considerable are the Niger and the Nile. The Niger falls into the Atlantic, or Western Ocean, at Senegal, after a course of 2800 miles: it increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilizes the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Nile, after dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of the Niger.

The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a prodigious chain extending from the Western Ocean to the borders of Egypt. It owes its name to a King of Mauritania, a great astronomer, who used to observe the heavenly bodies from its summit; and from this circumstance the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The Mountains of the Moon are still higher than Atlas: they extend from Abyssinia

to

to Monomotapa. Those of Sierra Leona, or the Mountains of the Lions, dividing Nigritia from Guinea, and a ridge of lofty mountains called the Mountains of God, from their being remarkably subject to tempests of 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. Besides these, there are many others of great height and vast extent, whose bowels contain a profusion of the richest metals, and give rise to the many rivers that water the soil of this neglected country.

The most noted capes, or promontories in Africa, are Cape Verd, so called, because the land is always covered with green trees, and mossy ground: it is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good-Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1498, and discovered the passage in Asia, is the south extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots, at present in the possession of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe.

Babelmandel, which joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean, is the only strait in Africa.

As this continent stands as it were in the centre of the globe, and has thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest, its situation is consequently rendered extremely favourable for commerce. It is however the misfortune of Africa, that though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very heart of the country, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; that it should be inhabited by vast multitudes of people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of the rivers are most excellent harbours, deep, safe, and calm, and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. Though it comprehends a full quarter of the globe, is stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful as well as convenient within itself, yet it seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the English, French, Dutch, and Portuguese, who have settlements on the coast, but that of the most credible historians.

In ancient times, this country contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for arts, for wealth, for power, and for the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia were particularly celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage extended her commerce to every part of the then

known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till the Romans destroyed her navigation, ravaged her territories, and laid her capital in the dust. From that period both the arts and commerce in Africa declined. Agriculture was neglected, and the manufactures, for which the natives were once so famous, were no longer practised. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the northern parts of Africa were over-run by the Vandals, a barbarous and ferocious people from the north, who contributed more to the destruction of arts and sciences. They were driven out by the Saracens in the seventh century, and were afterwards succeeded by the Turks; and being of the Mahometan superstition, whose professed carried desolation with them wherever they came, the most of that once flourishing part of the world was completely ruined.

With respect to religion, the inhabitants of this continent may be divided into three sorts, Pagans, Infidels, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope, and they are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary Coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade carried on in that part of the country.

The inhabitants are unacquainted with ice, hail, or snow; and in these scorching regions, the natives 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. They are but seldom blessed with rain, and depend on the overflowing of the rivers for the fertilization of the soil in many parts, while other regions are altogether sterile, and uninhabitable burning sands. The barrenness in several places, the brutality and savage disposition of the natives, and the ferocity of the innumerable wild beasts in most of the countries, evince, that the rays of the sun are here so fervid and powerful, as to dry and burn up the juices of the vegetable, and overheat the blood of the animal creation, so that the first are debilitated, and the latter rendered furious and ungovernable.

The most judicious geographers, and the learned in general, are much divided in their opinions respecting the modern divisions of Africa; the reason of which is, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the middle of the country; on these accounts, we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but according to the best accounts and surveys, Africa may be divided according to the following table, by inspecting which, the reader will find, at one view, an explanation of many particulars here omitted.

AFRICA.]
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Nati
Egypt
Morocco
Taflet,
Algiers
Tunis
Tripoli
Barca
Biledulger
Zaata
Negrola
Guinea
Nubia
Abyssinia
Abex
The mi
Loango
Congo
Angola
Benguel
Matam
Ajan
Zangue
Monor
Moner
Sofola
Terra
Cassra
Hotten

Barbary.

UP Ethiopia.

Lower Guinea.

A GENERAL TABLE OF THE SEVERAL NATIONS IN AFRICA.

Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and Bear. from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions.
Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 21 bef.	Mahometans
Morocco, Taflet, &c. }	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahometans
Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahometans
Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Mahometans
Tripoli	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Mahometans
Barca	400	300	66,400	Tolemata	1440 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Mahometans
Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans
Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Tegeffa	1800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans
Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans
Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans
Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Mah. and Pagans
Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar.	2880 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Christians
Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 S. E.	2 36 bef.	Christ. and Pag.
The middle Parts, called the Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 Square Miles.							
Loango	410	300	40,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Christ. and Pag.
Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Christ. and Pag.
Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Christ. and Pag.
Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans
Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans
Ajan	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans
Zanguebar	1400	350	275,000	Melinda, or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans
Sofola	480	300	97,000	Sofola	4600 S. E.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,900	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans
Caffraria or Hottentot }	708	660	200,340	Cape of Good-Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Most stupid Pagans

The principal kingdoms of Africa, and their supposed dimensions, being presented to the reader's inspection in the foregoing table, we shall now consider the whole country under three grand divisions: 1. Egypt. 2. The States of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the East, to the Atlantic Ocean, in the West: And, 3. That part of Africa, between the Tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good-Hope. Though the last of these divisions is confessedly greater than the other two, yet the nations it contains being so little known, and so barbarous and uncivilized, we apprehend that they may, without impropriety, be ranged under one general head, especially as, like many barbarous nations, they are in most respects similar to each other.

C H A P. II.

E G Y P T.

Situation, Extent, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Inhabitants, Government, Cities, &c.

THIS kingdom is situated between the 20th and 32d deg. of north latitude, and the 28th and 36th deg. of east long. It is about 600 miles in length, and 250 in breadth; bounded by the Mediterranean sea, on the north; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the south; and by the desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, on the west; and includes 140,700 square miles.

The whole country is distinguished by the northern and southern divisions; which are subdivided into Lower Egypt and Upper Egypt. The chief towns in Lower Egypt are, Grand Cairo, Bulac, Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta. Upper Egypt has for its principal towns, Sayd or Thebes, and Cosnar.

The climate of Egypt is in general very unhealthy: the high rocks and mountains which encompass it on the east, and the sandy deserts of Lybia and Barca on the west, rendering it prodigiously hot, particularly in the months of April and May. They always reckon two summers in this kingdom; the first in March, April, and May, is the most unwholesome, because of the unequal weather, attended with violent and parching winds, which blow at that season; but in the second, viz. in June, July, and August, the weather is more settled, and the air much cooler. During the autumn and winter, Egypt is one of the most pleasant and delightful countries in the world.

The soil of this kingdom is luxuriant even to a proverb, owing to the annual overflowing of the Nile, for it seldom rains except in winter. The fertility of the soil is such, after the waters of this river begin to retire, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. In October and May he throws his wheat and barley into the rich mud or slime which the Nile leaves be-

hind, without adding any manure, except mixing with it a little sand. He turns his cattle out to graze in November; and in about six weeks nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants which require moisture, is supplied small, but regular cuts, from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, fruit which wine is made, are here plentiful. Sugar-canes are also produced in this country; and the meadows yield the richest pasture in the world, the grass being usually as high as the cattle. March and April are the harvest months; and they produce three crops; one of lettuce and cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn, and one of melons.

The animals of Egypt seem to partake of the fecundity of the soil; for the cows it is said always bring two calves at a time, and sheep year twice in a year, having two lambs at the first and one at the second; a goat is often followed by four kids, which she has brought in six months. Oxen abound here, and 200,000 of these animals are daily employed by the inhabitants in raising water for the use of the fields and gardens. The Egyptian horses are held in great esteem, and a fine-breed of asses are likewise found here; also wild asses, camels, oxen, antelopes, tigers, and hyenas: but the most remarkable animals are the crocodile, the hippopotamus, or river horse; the chameleon, the ichneumon, or Egyptian rat, and a large species of ape, with a head somewhat resembling that of a dog, from which circumstance the Greeks gave it the appellation of cynocephalus. The crocodile is an amphibious animal, resembling a lizard. They have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws; their backs are covered with impenetrable scales, and they are commonly about twenty feet in length. These animals wait for their prey in the sedge, and other covert on the sides of the Nile, and often surprise travellers, who, deceived by the colour, take them for trunks of old trees. Their method of attacking a man, is, to beat him down, either with their fore paws or their tail. The natives have two methods of destroying them: the first is by a piece of flesh fastened on a hook, and thrown into the river by a rope, the other end of which is fastened to a stake; when the crocodile has seized the bait, they drag him to the shore, and easily dispatch him. The other is by striking them when asleep by the river side, under the belly, with a pole armed with a bearded point of iron, fastened to a stake; but this is a very dangerous method, and therefore less practised than the former. The hippopotamus is larger than an ox, which the hinder parts greatly resemble: the head is like that of a horse, and it has thick large feet, with prodigious claws. This is likewise an amphibious animal, and often leaves the Nile to feed in the meadows, but im-

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ibis, the goose with golden feathers, the rice hen,
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great service to the inhabitants as the ichneumon,
destroying the flying serpents, which the south wind
ges from the deserts of Lybia. At the proper sea-
of the year, these birds, by a peculiar instinct, are
to wait on the frontiers for these serpents, and de-
er them in their flight before they enter Egypt. The
and legs of this bird resemble those of a stork, and
usual food, besides serpents, are snails, locusts, and
er insects. The ostrich is of a prodigious size, and
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Among the reptiles found in Egypt are the basilisk: or
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The only river in Egypt is the Nile above-mentioned,
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best geographers, the time of this flux corresponds
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the middle of that month; so that there are fif-
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Though the river begins to swell in May, no public
ice is taken of it till the latter end of June, by
hich time it has generally risen about seventeen feet,
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al and other cities, and continue to publish, in the
me manner, how much it increases every day, till
has risen to about thirty-four feet, when the dam
the Chali, or great canal at Bulak, which passes
rough the middle of Cairo, is cut down, by means
which the water is dispersed over all the lands.
hen the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants

celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities.
When the water rises about forty-nine feet, it is a sign
of a plentiful year, but if it exceeds that height, it is
productive of infinite mischief; for besides sweeping
away the houses and drowning the cattle, it engenders
a great number of insects, which destroy the harvests.
The day on which the banks of the canal are cut is
observed as one of the greatest festivals in Egypt. The
basha always attends, accompanied by the great officers
of state, and an innumerable concourse of people;
though we are told, the spectacle itself is not very mag-
nificent. This officer is very careful that the river is
arrived at its proper height before the canal is opened;
for if it wants but an inch of it when he orders the
dam to be cut down, and the year should afterwards
prove unfruitful, he is obliged to pay the Turkish em-
peror his tribute; but if this precaution is observed,
and the harvests prove unfavourable, no tribute can be
claimed by that prince, the produce being then scarce
sufficient to maintain the inhabitants.
In order to ascertain the daily increase of the water,
the gradual rise of it is very exactly measured, either by
wells sunk, or pillars erected and divided for that pur-
pose, and termed nilometers or mikyasas. That in
the castle of Old Cairo is a large square reservoir,
round which runs a handsome gallery, sustained by
twelve marble pillars, which form arches, with a
balustrade, for the convenience of those who look into
the water. In the midst of the basin, through which
a canal from the Nile passes, is an octagonal pillar of
white marble, divided into twenty-two equal parts, by
which the rising of the water is determined; and the
whole so accurately finished, that the water in the re-
servoir is always exactly on a level with that in the
river.
As it is impossible for the Nile, without assistance,
to overflow all the plains of Egypt, canals and trenches
have been cut with vast labour and expence, from one
extremity of the kingdom to the other, in order to
convey the water to every part; so that each town and
village has its canal, which is opened at proper times,
that the lands may be overflowed. By this method the
inhabitants are also supplied with water for every other
use, there being no more than two springs in the whole
country. In the Lower Egypt, at the height of the
Nile's flood, nothing is to be seen in the plains but the
tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages
being built upon eminences either natural or artificial,
so that the inhabitants at that time have no communi-
cation with each other but by boats.
When the country is all verdant, it is very pleasant
to sail up the Nile. A number of villages are scat-
tered along each side of the river. The houses are in-
deed low, and built of unburnt bricks; but inter-
mixed as they are with palm-trees, and pigeon-houses of
a singular form, they present to the eye of a stranger an
uncommon and pleasing prospect. Near several of these
villages are seen large heaps of the ruins of ancient cities.

They immediately retire into the water on the approach of
person. The ichneumon is about the size of a
and covered with rough hair, spotted with white,
and ash-colour: its nose is formed like that of
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The navigation of the Nile would be still more agreeable, were it not infested by pirates. But when a great number of people are on board a vessel, they keep on their guard; and discharge a few shots from time to time, to shew that they are provided with fire-arms; this keeps the villains in awe, and renders the passage less dangerous. There is much more danger in truitling to a Reis, or master of a vessel, with whom you are unacquainted, who may favour the robbers, and share their plunder. Whole villages are said to follow this trade; and for this reason the boats never stop in their neighbourhood.

The inhabitants on the banks of the Nile are very dexterous in the art of swimming, which they frequently exercise in stealing from the boats, if not with open force, yet with a degree of address and audacity worthy of the most noted pickpockets. The following is a recent instance of their subtily and boldness. The servants of a Pacha, newly arrived, caught one of them in the act, seized him, and brought him before the Pacha, who threatened him with instant death; but the rogue asked leave to exhibit one of his tricks, saying, that he hoped his dexterity might procure his pardon. He obtained leave. Then collecting several effects in the tent, he wrapped them up, coolly, in the mode in which the Egyptians wrap up their clothes when they are to pass a river. After playing some time with this parcel, he put it on his head, threw himself into the Nile, and, before the Turks were so far recovered from their surprize as to level their musquets at him, was safe on the opposite bank.

M. Niebuhr (from whom we have extracted the above particulars concerning this celebrated river) says, through all the Lower Egypt he saw no crocodiles in the two great branches of the Nile up which his company sailed; and adds, as the notion of the Egyptians, that in the Mikkias, near Cairo, there is a talisman, the virtue of which hinders those amphibious animals from descending lower in the river: but, respecting this circumstance our author very judiciously observes, that "the charm is not in the Mikkias, but in the population and cultivation of the country; for ravenous animals, whether of the sea or land, are soon intimidated by the frequent aspect of man. Men, too, in their anxiety to rid themselves of such destructive enemies, gradually thin their numbers, and at length entirely exterminate them."

The Egyptians trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, frankincense, spices, calicoes, and other merchandise, formerly imported into Europe in prodigious quantities; but that branch of trade is now greatly declined. Most of the European powers have consuls in Egypt; ours reside at Cairo. Several English vessels arrive annually at Alexandria, some of which are laden on account of the owner; but the principal part are freighted by the Jewish, Armenian, and Mahometan traders.

It is difficult to ascertain the manufactures carried

on in Egypt; it is however known, that the inhabitants export great quantities of unmanufactured, as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, calicoes, and leather of different kinds, which are landed at Suez, and whence they are sent to Europe. Their other productions for exportation are wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, fenna, and cassia. The internal traffick of the kingdom is chiefly carried on by caravans.

Egypt being inhabited by several different people, the Turks, Arabs, Moors, Greeks, Jews, Franks, Copts, their stature, complexion, habits, &c. are consequently various. The Arabs are of a deep fair complexion, and are represented by the best authors as retaining the patriarchal mode of tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their original pride and insolence; and wear the Turkish dress to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Copts.

The Copts, who are the descendants of the original Egyptians, are an ill-looking slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and, in their complexions, they are more sun-burnt than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion; but Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. The Copts are generally excellent accountants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write.

The Arabs and Copts dress very plain, their dress being an upper garment of white linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Copts and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they wear like a blanket-like, round their body. The dress of the men is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are made of silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The Jews wear blue leather slippers, and other natives of the country red, and the foreign Christians yellow.

The occult sciences, or, as they were formerly termed, the black art, was supposed to have arrived to a higher degree in Egypt than in any other country whatever; and, even at present, jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men, flourish in that country; and their prognostications, whether fortunate or otherwise, are received with the greatest faith by the deluded Egyptians. The diversions and exercises of the inhabitants are much the same as in Persia and other parts of Asia. The dancing and games, however, exhibited here, seem peculiar to the kingdom.

Egypt at present is not near so populous as formerly; its scarcity of inhabitants being principally owing to their being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still numerous; but what has been said of the population of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a fiction. As most of the people live on the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country is inhabited by

known, that the inhabitants manufacture, as well as calicoes, and leather, landed at Suez, and their other productions are aromatick, saffron, and the annual traffick of the kingdom.

Several different peoples, Greeks, Jews, Franks, Arabians, habits, &c. are to be seen. The Arabs are of a deep complexion, and are governed by the best authority. The mode of tending their business is any fixed place of abode. The Egyptians retain all their customs, and wear the Turkish dress. The Arabians and Copts, descendants of the original inhabitants, are a slovenly people, immersed in superstitions and complexions, they are black. Their ancestors were idolaters, but they still pretend to be Christians.

The Copts are generally of a fair complexion, many of them live by trade and write.

The dress is very plain, their clothes consist of white linen, worn either over or under it. The Copts are of a kind content themselves with a simple wrapper, which they wear round their body. The dress of the Arabs is of a different kind; but their clothes are of a different kind; and such of them as have delicate complexions wear a blue leather slipper, and a red, and the foreign

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of other nations, we cannot precisely ascertain its position in general.

With respect to their religion, we learn, from history, that the ancient Egyptians worshipped the planets, and several sorts of birds and wild beasts, among which were the crocodile, the ichneumon, and the ibis. Some of them adored even leeks and onions; but the general object of their worship was a large black ox, which they termed Apis. The Turks, Moors, and Arabs, settled in Egypt, are all Mahometans; and the two latter are strict observers of their religion: they rise very early, in order to be present at the public devotions, which are performed by break of day, and attend again at noon, at sun-set, and at the setting of the watch, when it begins to be dark. The bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and profess great veneration for a sect of people among them called *santo's*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, but are despised by the Turks as insolent hypocrites. Many of them will appear in the streets perfectly naked, and, in that manner, will intrude without any ceremony into the best houses, sit down to dinner, and leave the table when they are satisfied, no one daring to oppose them.

The Egyptian-Turks mind religious affairs very little; and it would be hard to say what species of Christianity is adopted by the Christian Copts, which are numerous here, but they profess to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the want of money, generally purchases a protection from the Ottoman court. It is affirmed that Christianity was first planted here by St. Mark.

Egypt, in ancient times, was the seat of learning; the Greeks derived all their knowledge from this source. Geometry was invented in Egypt; and it is with great reason supposed, that Pythagoras acquired his knowledge of the true system of the world from the Egyptian priests. The Ptolemies are celebrated for the encouragement they gave to literature: to their munificence we owe the Septuagint translation of the scriptures; and they formed at Alexandria a library superior to any thing the world ever saw. But the first caliphs, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war upon conscience and principle upon all kinds of literature, except the koran; and hence it was that the valuable manuscripts contained in this most magnificent library were applied, for some months, in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths; and the same fate, through Mahometan bigotry and ignorance, attended upon the other Egyptian libraries of inestimable value. With regard to the architecture, sculpture, and painting, of the ancient Egyptians, sufficient specimens still remain to convince us, that they excelled every thing then known in the world; nor has the grandeur of their designs been ever equalled in any age or nation. But how is this country fallen! It once possessed the seat of eminence, and held the sceptre of learning: it

is now sunk into the abyss of ignorance, and exhibits a melancholy spectacle of the instability of human greatness; for the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which the lower race of caliphs, who were the disgrace of human nature, imposed. Arithmetical calculations, adapted to the dispatch of business; the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some foolish attempts to deceive the vulgar by a pretence to magic; now compose all the learning of Egypt.

Among the curiosities of Egypt are the pyramids, which are the most stupendous, though to appearance the most useless, structures ever raised by the hands of men: they are, to the number of twenty, dispersed about the Arabian desert. One of the three largest of them we shall give a particular description of here. It is situated on the top of a rock, in the desert above mentioned, about a quarter of a mile to the west of the plains of Egypt, above which the rock rises with an easy ascent upwards of 100 feet. Each side of this pyramid, at the base, is 693 feet; its perpendicular height 499 feet; but, if measured along the sloping side of the pyramid, it is equal to the breadth of the base. It covers an area of 480,249 square feet, which is equal to eleven acres of ground. The ascent to the top of this pyramid is by 207 steps placed on the outside, every step being the depth of one entire stone, and many of them thirty feet in length. On the north side, an artificial bank of earth is raised thirty-eight feet, and from this there is a narrow square passage, which leads into the pyramid. This passage is about three feet and a half high, three and a quarter broad, and extends, on a declivity, ninety-two feet and a half. It is so contracted towards the end, that the spectators are obliged to creep upon their bellies for a considerable distance, which at length brings them into a place somewhat larger, and inhabited by a prodigious number of large bats. On the left hand, adjoining to the entrance, is a stone eight or nine feet high, which, being climbed, leads to the entrance of the first gallery, an hundred and ten feet in length, five feet in height, and as many in breadth, the whole consisting of white polished marble. This gallery leads by a gentle ascent to a second, which is an hundred and twenty-four feet in length, twenty-six feet in height, and six broad. This is also of white polished marble, cut into vast squares, the junctures are so close, and exact as to be scarce discernible by the most curious eye; and on each side there are benches of the same materials. The passage from this gallery is through a small square hole into some closets, or little chambers, lined with Thebaic marble, which lead to a very noble hall or chamber, situated exactly in the centre of the pyramid. The floor, sides, and roof, of this room, are formed of exquisite tables of Thebaic marble. It is about thirty-four feet in length, seventeen in breadth, and nineteen and a half in height. From the top to the bottom of it there are but six ranges of marble, and the blocks which cover it are of a stupendous length, nine of them form-

ing the roof. In the middle of the hall is a marble chest seven feet long, supposed to be the tomb of Cheops, or Chemnis, king of Egypt, who is said to have founded the pyramid; but there is no appearance of a corpse having ever been laid in it.

At some distance from the above pyramid, and in the same deserts, are situated the mummy-pits, the shallowest of which are thirty-two feet deep. At the bottom are square openings or passages, ten or fifteen feet long, which lead into square arched rooms, in which the embalmed bodies lie, some of them in chests or coffins of wood, others in stone coffins, and others are only wrapped in pieces of linen cloth, gummed or glued together. With these mummies are usually found the figures of birds and beasts, and little images of several sorts, some of copper, others of stone, and others of different sorts of earth.

Near the largest pyramid stands what is usually called the sphinx, which, if entire, should resemble a woman in the upper part, and a lion in the lower. Nothing more of this figure, however, is discernible, than from the shoulders upwards, and yet it is near thirty feet in height. Many are of opinion, that it was hewn out of the rock on which it stands, and that there was never any more of it than what is now visible.

We must not omit another curiosity mentioned by all ancient and modern authors, which is a labyrinth near the banks of the Nile, said to have been contrived by King Psammiticus. The greater part of it is under ground, and contains, within the compass of one wall, twelve palaces and 1000 houses; the walls, pillars, and roofs, were of marble, and it is asserted that neither wood nor cement was used in the whole fabric. This labyrinth had only one entrance, and so many intricate windings and windings, that it was impossible for a stranger to find his way without a guide; which occasions its name.

On a mountain near Olyut, are upwards of 1000 beautiful grottoes, one of which is large enough to contain six hundred horse. It is cut out of the rock with the chissel, and supported by vast square pillars of the same rock. Various apartments have been made, and are sunk in most of these caverns, and at the extremities of them are catacombs, hollowed, which contain a great number of mummies; formerly there were tombs adorned with sculptures in basso relievo, but these have been defaced by the Arabs. The obelisk, or needle, of Cleopatra, situated in Alexandria, consists of a single block of granite, sixty-three feet high, covered with hieroglyphics. This with another exactly similar, but now thrown down, are supposed to have stood at the entrance of the palace of that celebrated princess. The lake Mœris, which was dug by order of Herodotus Mœris, king of Egypt, in order to correct the irregularities of the Nile, was at once a curious, useful, and stupendous undertaking. Herodotus says, it was 450 miles in circumference, and, in most places, 300 feet in depth. But at present, according to the ob-

ervation of Dr. Pucoccke, it is no more than fifty miles long and ten broad. In short, a volume would not be sufficient to describe the astonishing remains of ancient temples, palaces, statues, paintings, &c. so profusely scattered over great part of Egypt. Some of the ancient structures, particularly the palace of Memnon, still exhibit such specimens of grandeur as are not to be equalled in the whole world.

The custom of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe. The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of this country; but we know not the manner of preparing it: the pith of it is a nourishing food.

No country in the world contains more inscriptions engraved on stones of the most durable nature, than Egypt; but the pains taken to inform us has been rendered fruitless by the imperfection of the mode of writing this people employed. Instead of characters expressive of the different sounds in their language, or signs marking each a syllable, with a determinate idea affixed to it, such as the Chinese use; the ancient Egyptians made use of emblems, to mark ideas somewhat referable to them, although by a very forced and distant analogy. This is what we, after the Greeks, call hieroglyphic writing.

M. Niebuhr makes the following judicious remarks on the subject: "I would willingly hope, says he, that the key to those mysterious writings of the ancient Egyptians may yet be recovered. Various learned men have displayed astonishing sagacity and penetration in decyphering inscriptions in unknown languages, when there has been a considerable quantity of characters for them to exercise their conjectures upon. Travellers should therefore collect as many as possible of the hieroglyphic characters, and publish them carefully, that we may thus be furnished with more points of comparison for these symbols through a greater variety of combinations.

"The study of the ancient language of Egypt would be equally necessary for this purpose. I suspect that the true nature of hieroglyphics has hitherto been mistaken, while all the symbolical figures and characters have been supposed to be of the same sort. After copying a considerable number of hieroglyphics from obelisks, sarcophagi, urns, and mummies, I thought I could also distinguish, in these smaller hieroglyphics, some marks of alphabetic characters, or at least of a mixed species of writing, bearing some resemblance to the alphabetical. Wherefore, by the study of the language of the Pharaohs, we may come, with more ease, to decypher these small characters."

The hieroglyphic inscriptions are found chiefly in Upper Egypt, where all the monuments, and even the walls, of those superb temples which are still standing, are covered over with inscriptions of this sort. They are no less common upon the tombs of the mummies at Sakara. The embalmed bodies have covers full of hieroglyphics; and the sepulchral urns are marked with them.

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no more than fifty miles. Such as have been painted upon wood and which are in as good a state of preservation as those which are engraven upon stone. It is very probable, that in the caverns of Sakara, if these were examined, there are other more precious antiquities.

Since Egypt has been subject to the Turkish emperors, they have always governed it by a viceroy, under the title of the pacha or bashaw of Grand Cairo,

who is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire.

But the kingdom is subdivided into twenty-four provinces, each of which is governed by a sangiac, or bey; so that the government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican, the governors of which are hereditary, and seem to be vested with sovereign power in their respective districts; the grand seignior having thought proper to indulge them in this respect, rather than hazard the revolt of so rich a province; and by this means the Egyptians have an inheritance in their own lands, a privilege enjoyed by few of the Turkish subjects besides themselves. It is the business of the viceroy to keep these petty princes, who are termed sangiacs, at variance with each other, which he never fails to do, and by that means prevents their uniting against the Porte, which has formerly been the case; and even the bashaws themselves had been known to revolt against their emperors.

The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt consists of a divan, composed of the twenty-four sangiacs, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the sheikbelle, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the bashaw. Every sangiac of the sangiacs is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power; the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand seignior's pacha acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post; the Porte is obliged to send another. They have an authentic grant of privileges; granted in the year 1517, in which year Egypt was conquered from the Mamelukes by the sultan.

The Turks always keep a numerous army of regular troops, and also a militia in Egypt, which serve merely as mercenaries for the Ottoman troops; for the viceroy never ventures to employ them against the Arab or Egyptian beys already mentioned, many of whom have separate armies of their own. The regular forces are said to amount to about six or eight thousand, and the militia to between three and four thousand.

The grand seignior never imposes any severe taxes upon the Egyptians, lest such a measure should induce them to revolt; so that, except what the viceroy and his creatures extort from the people illegally, the whole revenue raised by the government does not amount to a million of our money, of which, it is said, two-thirds are spent within the kingdom; the remainder is remitted to the grand seignior's treasury.

The cities and principal towns in Egypt are so numerous, that it is impossible to describe even the most considerable of them, all therefore we can do is, to select such as are most worthy the attention of our readers.

Cairo, now Masra, the present capital of Egypt, is situated on the Nile, and consists of two cities, a mile distant from each other, viz. Old Cairo, and Cairo properly so called. The first of these is now reduced to a very small compass, not being more than two miles round; but the second, which is situated about a mile from the river, extends eastward near two miles to the mountains, and is about seven miles in circumference. It is said to have been formerly much larger, being then the centre of trade from the East-Indies. There are three or four very grand gates, erected by the Mamelukes, the workmanship of which is very good, and the architecture, though simple, has a magnificent appearance. The castle, said to have been built by Saladin, is situated on a rocky hill, which seems to have been separated by art from the mountain Jebel Duife. It is walled round, but being entirely commanded by an eminence on the east, it could make but a poor defence since the invention of cannon. The castle is at present parted into three divisions, which are occupied by the pacha, the janissaries, and the Assassins. The palace of the pacha is falling into ruins, and is unworthy of being the dwelling of the governor of a great province. But the Turkish pachas are in general ill lodged: they all know that they are not to be long in power, and no one cares for making reparations to accommodate his successor. The quarter of the janissaries is surrounded with strong walls, which are flanked with towers, and it has more the appearance of a fortress.

At the west end of the castle are the remains of very magnificent apartments, some of them covered with domes, and adorned with Mosaic pictures, formerly, perhaps belonging to the ancient sultans, but at present only used for weaving, embroidering, and otherwise preparing the hangings, every year sent to Mecca. The grand saloon, commonly called Joseph's Hall, is now entirely open, except on the south side; and, from an eminence near it, which, by the large and beautiful pillars of red granite with which it is adorned, seems to have been a terrace to the above saloon, there is a most delightful prospect of Cairo, the pyramids, and all the adjacent country.

The streets, like those of all the Turkish cities, are very narrow, the most spacious of them not exceeding one of our lanes in breadth; and they are pestered with jugglers and fortune-tellers. The houses, which are generally built round a court, have very little beauty on the outside, use only being there considered. Below they are of stone, and above of a sort of cage-work, sometimes filled up with unburnt bricks, having very few windows. The insides are much more regular: those belonging to the principal men have a saloon for common use, and another for state; and as they have four wives, each of them has a saloon, with the necessary

language of Egypt would be of little use for any purpose. I suspect that the hieroglyphics have hitherto been misinterpreted, and that the figures and characters are of the same sort. After consulting the hieroglyphics from obelisks, I thought I should find some resemblance to the study of the language, with more ease.

As are found chiefly in monuments, and even the inscriptions which are still standing are of this sort. They are the same as the mummies at Thebes have covers full of which are marked with

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cessary apartments. These have no communication with the other parts of the house, except the common entrance for the servants, and the private entrance of which the master keeps the key.

There are several magnificent mosques in and about Cairo; but the most celebrated, both with regard to the solidity of its building, and a certain grandeur and magnificence that strikes every spectator in a surprising manner, is the mosque of Sultan Hassan, built at the foot of the castle hill. It is very lofty, of an oblong square figure, crowned with a cornish all round, that projects a great way, and is adorned with a particular sort of grotesque carvings, after the Turkish manner. The entrance is very beautifully inlaid with several sorts of marble, and finely carved at top: formerly the ascent was by several steps, which are destroyed, and the door walled up, because, in times of public insurrections, the rebels made use of this mosque as an asylum, and place of defence. Cairo is commonly visited by the plague once in three or four years, when it rages with incredible violence, and carries off great numbers of the people, but always gradually declines in proportion to the swelling of the Nile. The conveniency of water-carriage renders this city a place of great traffick; so that all the country, particularly in the neighbourhood of the Nile, is supplied with merchandize of all kinds from Cairo.

One of the favourite diversions of the citizens is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor, the intense heat whereof makes the poor creature caper; and, being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing all their lives after.

In the neighbourhood of Cairo are several remarkable places: among others, the three villages of Bulak, Fostat, Geesh, which are all so near the city, that they may be reckoned suburbs to it.

Bulak, which was undoubtedly the Latopolis of the ancient Greeks, is at present a very considerable town, and the port of Cairo. All goods from Damietta and Rosetta, and all exports from Egypt by the Mediterranean, pass this way. For this reason, a large custom-house is established here; and a vast bazar, or covered market-place, called *kissarie*. Here are also magazines of rice, salt, nitre, and of various productions of Upper Egypt. Here is also a house belonging to the sultan, in which is kept the corn that he sends annually to Mecca and Medina.

Fostat, or *Masr-el-atik*, although greatly decayed, may still be considered as a town of the middle size. It has a custom-house, where the duties on goods from Upper Egypt are paid. In a large square, enclosed within a wall, government store up, in the open air, a considerable quantity of grain every year. Some authors speak of this as a granary built by the patriarch Joseph; but the wall is plainly of a later date than even the conquest of Egypt by the Arabians.

The old city of *Masr* is inhabited, at present, by

none but Christians. In it are to be seen several churches of the Greeks and Copts, with a convent of Monks of the latter nation. A grotto, under one of the Coptic churches, is regarded with high veneration, because it is supposed to have been the residence of the Holy Family, when they fled into Egypt. The Greeks have a church famous for a miracle of a singular nature:—fools recover their wits, upon being bound to a certain pillar of it.

Between this city and Cairo is an aqueduct, which was constructed in the beginning of the sixth century by Sultan Gari, and conveys water into the neighbourhood of the castle. Near the canal is a convent of Dervises, celebrated for the elegance of the building and the opulence of the foundation; and near the convent are large squares, in which the principal inhabitants of Cairo amuse themselves with military exercises.

The small village of Geesh stands on the fourth bank of the Nile, opposite to *Masr-el-atik*. Its origin is unknown. The heights around it, which have no doubt been raised by the accumulation of the dirt from the city, seem to bespeak its antiquity. M. Niebuhr found nothing remarkable about it, except some country houses belonging to rich inhabitants of Cairo and some manufactories.

Matara, a town, or rather village, about two leagues from the capital, is seated nearly on the ruins of the ancient Heliopolis. It is, however, more famous among the Christians for a sycamore whose trunk is said to have afforded shelter to the Holy Family, when they fled into Egypt. This sycamore should seem to have the power of renewing itself: for, of the crowds of fraudulent persons who visit it, each usually cuts off a piece, which he carries away a piece. This village was formerly famous for the cultivation of those trees which afford Egyptian balsam: but none of them is now to be seen here; the last died in the beginning of the seventeenth century. The Turks are not a people disposed to store so valuable a plant.

Four leagues eastward from Cairo is *Birket-el-Hadid* or the Pilgrim's Pool, a pretty considerable lake, which receives its water from the Nile. Upon its banks are several villages, and a great many ruinous country houses. There is nothing to render this place remarkable, except at the time of the setting out of the caravan for Mecca, when the pilgrims encamp near it for a few days; as they do also upon their return. On the 20th of May 1762, two days before the departure of the caravan, M. Niebuhr tells us, he had the curiosity to visit this camp, but found little about it worth viewing; that he saw indeed a very few elegant tents; but every thing else was shocking in its naivety, disorderly, and paltry.

Alexandria, (or Scandria, as the Turks and Arabians call it) the ancient capital of Egypt, was founded by Alexander the Great, and is situated forty miles west from the Nile, where it forms a spacious haven, in the

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It was formerly a very magnificent city,
containing superb buildings, and noble walls, some of
which are said to be still standing. It was once, in
the degree, the emporium of the world, and, by
means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and many
parts of Asia, with the rich merchandizes and pro-
ductions of the East. Some stately ruins are still
visible, together with many pieces of porphyry, and
other fine marbles; but the greater part has been either
carried away, or employed in building the present
city, which is nothing more than an ordinary sea-port,
known by the name of Scanderoon. Mr. Niebuhr
observes, that the Mahometans in general, and espe-
cially the inhabitants of Alexandria, break down the
best monuments of antiquity, to employ the frag-
ments in the most wretched structures imaginable.
Whenever they are at a loss for materials for building,
they scruple not to dig up the foundation stones of the
ancient walls and palaces. If one happens to find a
beautiful column in his garden, he will rather make
pillars of it, than preserve it.

However, he says, there still exists one noble remain
of the city, which could neither be broken nor carried
away; this is the Obelisk of Cleopatra, not before
mentioned, and is a single piece of red granite. Although
part of its base be sunk into the earth, it still ap-
pears above-ground to the height of sixty-two feet;
the circumference of the base is seven feet and a half.
It is inscribed with some ancient characters, en-
compassed in an inch deep; but the modern Egyptians
cannot read them.

Another monument, the famous pillar of Pompey,
which is a fine piece of antiquity, owes also its pre-
servation to its bulk. It was erected in ancient
Alexandria, but stands at present at the distance of a
league from the New-Town; and is said
to have been erected by Julius Cæsar, in memory of
his victory over that great man, who, escaping from
the battle of Pharsalia to the Egyptian coast, was there
treacherously murdered. The pillar consists of three
pieces of red granite; the whole, including the pes-
tibal and foundation, being eighty-nine feet high,
and adorned with a capital of the Corinthian order.

New Alexandria owes its present state to the Arabs,
who enclosed it with a very thick wall, near fifty
feet high. This wall, which is becoming ruinous,
and a small fort upon the peninsula, with a garrison
of fifty soldiers, are all the means that the city pos-
sesses for its defence; but its governor depends on
the Pacha of Kahira, and, of consequence, not on
the aristocracy of the beys, but on the grand seignior.
The finest building in the city is a mosque, which,
at the time of the Greek empire, was a church dedi-
cated to St. Athanasius. It is very large, and orna-
mented with noble columns. A great number of
Greek manuscripts are still said to be preserved in it;
but, Mr. Niebuhr adds, that as no Christian dare ex-

amine any thing within a mosque, he saw only its
outside. Alexandria has fallen by degrees from its
ancient grandeur, population, and wealth. The filling
up of the branch of the Nile, upon which this city
stands, and which is now no longer navigable, is
what has chiefly contributed to its decline: it is
however cleansed from time to time, as it supplies the
city with soft water, which could no-where else be
obtained.

According to the tradition of the Arabs, when Alex-
andria was taken by the Saracens, it contained four
thousand palaces, as many baths, and four hundred
squares: even now the mosques, bagnios, &c. erected
within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of
majesty. This city still retains some trifling re-
mains of its former trade; but the inhabitants are,
in general, poor, ignorant, and indolent. Opposite
Alexandria is the small island of Pharos, whereon the
light-house, known by the same appellation, and
esteemed one of the Wonders of the World, formerly
stood. The mole which was built to form a com-
munication with the island of Pharos is 1000 yards in
length, and though near 2000 years old, such were
its excellent materials, as to resist in a great measure
the violence of winds and waves ever since. All the
parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as
appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and
aqueducts.

Suez, which gives name to the isthmus that joins
Africa with Asia, is situated on the northern coast of
the Red-Sea. It was formerly a place of great trade,
but has been upon the decline ever since the Portu-
guese discovered a passage to the East-Indies by the
Cape of Good-Hope. Near this city the children of
Israel are supposed to have marched in their way
towards the Red-Sea. It is now a small city, and
gives name to the isthmus that joins Africa with
Asia.

Rosetta, called by the Arabs, Rashid, is a healthy,
pleasant, and populous city, is situated twenty-five
miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and at the
mouth of one of the branches of the Nile. It is two
miles long, and half a mile broad. The inhabitants
employ themselves in conveying the European mer-
chandizes, which are brought hither from Alexandria
to Cairo in boats. A vast number of vice-consuls
and factors reside here, in order to expedite all letters
and bills brought from Alexandria: those of any con-
sequence, are conveyed from hence by land, across the
deserts, to Cairo. Rosetta is recommended not only
for its beautiful situation, but delightful prospects,
which command the fine country, or island of Delta.
In the environs are many country-houses belonging
to christian merchants, with fine gardens, producing
the choicest fruits of the East. The Mahometan in-
habitants are also extremely civil and polite here.

Damiatta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium,
is situated at the mouth of the eastern branch of

the Nile, about an hundred miles from Rosetta. It is an ill-built but large and populous city, containing about twenty-five thousand inhabitants, exclusive of strangers.

Bulaë is situated about two miles west of Cairo, to which city it is the port town, and a place of vast trade, containing about four thousand families. It is at this place that the banks of the Nile are annually cut, in order to fill the canals, as already mentioned.

Sayd, situated on the west banks of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, and supposed to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes, is the capital of Upper Egypt, and was formerly one of the finest cities in the universe; but it is now very inconsiderable, and only remarkable for the amazing antiquities it contains, consisting of vast columns of marble and porphyry, which lie half buried in the ground, and statues and obelisks of a prodigious size, adorned with hieroglyphics.

Colliar is situated on the west coast of the Red Sea.

The general practice of strangers, who visit the three last-mentioned places, is, to hire a janissary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives.

A COMPENDIOUS HISTORY OF EGYPT.

EGYPT has long been a celebrated kingdom; it was peopled by Mizraim, the son of Ham, soon after the confusion at Babel, and has almost from its first settlement been celebrated by the historians of all nations. An uninterrupted series of kings filled the Egyptian throne, till the invasion of Cambyses II. king of Persia, in the year before Christ 520, when a period was put to that famous monarchy. Most of the superb structures, whose ruins are the admiration of modern times, were erected during the reigns of these princes descended from the line of the Pharaohs. After the conquest of Egypt by Cambyses, it continued a province of Persia, till the destruction of that empire by Alexander the Great, who, after wresting the Persian diadem from Darius, built the celebrated city of Alexandria, then the emporium of the rich merchandize of the Indies. On the death of Alexander, Egypt fell to the lot of Ptolemy, one of the generals of that great prince, when it once more became an independent kingdom. This event happened about 300 years before the Christian era. The line of the Ptolemies swayed the Egyptian sceptre between two and three hundred years, and were famous for their magnificence, and the encouragement they gave to learning. The celebrated library of Alexandria, said to contain 700,000 volumes, owed its origin to Ptolemy Philadelphus, the second prince of that dynasty. By his order also the Old Testament was translated from the Hebrew into Greek, and is well known to the learned under the name of the Septuagint. This dynasty terminated with the death of the celebrated Cleopatra; wife and sister to Ptolemy Dionysius, when

Egypt was reduced to a Roman province. In this it continued till the destruction of that empire by the Goths and Vandals. After this memorable period, namely, about the year 640, Omar subjected Egypt to the Mahometan power, and the caliphs of Babylon were sovereigns of the country till 870, when the Egyptians set up a governor of their own, named Ahmed Ebn Tolun, and hence it is called the dynasty or line of Tolun. This line continued till about the year 1170, and was succeeded by the Turkish line of caliphs, or kings of Egypt, the first of which was Syrachock, being sent by the sultan with an army into Egypt, conquering the country, but assumed the regal authority himself.

Between the year 1150 and 1190, in the time of the Crusades, Egypt was governed by Noraddin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, whose son, the famous Saladin, was so dreadful to those christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamelukes, like the janissaries of Constantinople, who, about the year 1247, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt for some time made a figure under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the growing power of the Turks, till Selim, the Turkish emperor, about the year 1517, gave the mamelukes several bloody defeats, and reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection to the Ottomans. But while this conqueror was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia by the name of Gipsies.

The late Dr. Smollett, speaking of Egypt, says, "It was from hence that the vagrant race called Gipsies came, and dispersed themselves into every kingdom of Europe and Asia. They were originally called Zinganeus, from their captain Zinganeus, who, when sultan Selim made a conquest of Egypt about the year 1517, refused to submit to the Turkish yoke, and retired into the deserts, where they lived by rapine and plunder, and frequently came down into the plains of Egypt, committing great outrages in the towns upon the Nile, under the dominion of the Turks. But being at length subdued, and banished Egypt, they agreed to disperse themselves in small parties into every country of the known world, and as they were natives of Egypt, a country where the occult sciences, or black art, as it was called, was supposed to have arrived to great perfection, and which in that credulous age was in great vogue with persons of all religions and persuasions, they found no difficulty to maintain themselves by pre-

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h whom they live.

The most important as well as the most recent event
pecting the history of this country, is the following:
few years ago, an attempt was made to deprive the
oman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey,
ose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali
braced the Mahometan religion; and as he was pos-
sed of great ability and address, he soon became very
popular. However, a false accusation having been
de against him to the grand seignior, his head was
ered to be sent to Constantinople. Ali, being ap-
sed of the design, seized and put to death the mes-
ger who brought the mandate, and soon afterwards
nd means to put himself at the head of an army;
ing likewise advantage of the distressful and danger-
ous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced,
the war it was engaged in with the Russians, he
sly ascended the throne of the ancient sultans of
gypt. But not content with that kingdom, he also
claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia
hich had formerly been under the dominion of the
ient sultans. Accordingly he marched at the head
his troops to support these pretensions, and actually
ded some of the neighbouring provinces of Arabia
d Syria.

While Ali was employed in these great enterprises,
was not less attentive to the establishing a regular
m of government, and introducing order into a
untry that had been long the seat of anarchy and con-
sion. In like manner he extended his views to com-
erce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement
the christian traders, and took off some grievous and
ameful restraints and indignities to which they were
jected by the arbitrary power of the governors.
With the same views, he wrote a letter to the republic
Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friend-
ip, and that their merchants should meet with all pos-
sible protection and safety. His great design was said
be, to make himself master of the Red Sea, to open
port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the
uropeans, and to make Europe once more the great
ntre of commerce.

The conduct and views of Ali displayed an extent of
ought and ability that indicated nothing of the ber-
rian, and bespoke a greatness of mind capable of
unding an empire; but he was not finally successful.
However, for some time he proved extremely fortu-
ate: having assumed the titles and state of the ancient
ltans of Egypt, and being ably supported by Sheik
daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly
pported his cause. In almost all his enterprises against
e neighbouring Asiatic governors and bathas he like-
wise succeeded, and repeatedly defeated them; but he
as at length deprived of the sovereignty by the base
and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahom-

med Bey Aboudaab, who on the 7th of March 1773,
totally defeated his troops, wounded, and took him
prisoner: he afterwards died of his wounds, and was
buried at Grand Cairo.

Aboudaab for some time governed Egypt as Sheik
Ballet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik
Daher; but after behaving with great cruelty to the
inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead
in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be stran-
gled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porto's full amnesty,
and embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on
board his ship, when the captain produced his orders,
and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head struck
off in the 85th year of his age: thus forfeiting his life
in consequence of his own credulity, and the false assu-
rances of his treacherous enemies.

CHAP. III.

THE STATES OF BARBARY:

*Containing the Kingdoms of MOROCCO, FEZ, ALGIERS,
TUNIS, TRIPOLI, and BARCA.*

*Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, Animals,
Cities, Towns, Mountains, Rivers, &c.*

M O R O C C O .

THIS empire, which now comprehends the king-
doms of Morocco and Fez, is bounded by the
Mediterranean sea, on the north; by Tafflet, on the
south; by the river Mulvia, which separates it from
Algiers, on the east; and by the Atlantic ocean, on
the west; extending from 28 to 36 deg. north latitude,
and from 4 to 9 deg. west longitude from London. It
is about 500 miles in length, and 480 miles in breadth,
where broadest.

FEZ lies between the kingdom of Algiers, to the
east, and Morocco to the south: it is surrounded in
other parts by the sea. This country, now united to
Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and nearly the
same in breadth.

ALGIERS, which was formerly a kingdom, is 480
miles in length from east to west, and from 30 to 100
miles in breadth. It is situated between 30 and 37 deg.
north lat. and between 1 deg. west, and 9 deg. east
long. being bounded on the east by the kingdom of
Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the
south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the king-
doms of Morocco and Tafflet.

TUNIS, anciently the republic of Carthage, is in
length from north to south 220 miles, in breadth from
east to west 170, and bounded by the Mediterranean
on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers, on
the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid,
on

on the south. It extends from 33 deg. 30. min. to 37 deg. 12 min. north-lat. and from 8 deg to 11 deg. east long.

TRIPOLI, including Barca, is bounded by the Mediterranean sea, on the north; by the country of the Berberies, on the south; by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamih, on the west; and by Egypt, on the east; extending along the coast about 1000 miles, exclusive of the creeks and projections of the shore.

We may with propriety consider the Barbary states as forming a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal policy; and with respect to the manners and customs of the inhabitants in general, the difference is not greater than happens in the several provinces of the same kingdom.

The climate of Morocco, Fez, Algiers, and indeed all the other states, is extremely hot towards the south, but in general is tolerably healthy, being cooled by the sea-breezes, and defended by high mountains from the sultry south winds, which give them a temperature not to be expected from their situations so near the tropic. But in the rainy season, which begins in October, continues too long, it occasions pestilential fevers; and the north-west winds, which prevail in March, sometimes greatly affect the lungs and nerves, and injure the products of the earth. In other respects the sky is serene, and the air clear and wholesome. Fine springs are found in most moors, and also winding rivers, which for the most part have their source in Mount Atlas, and disembogue themselves in the Mediterranean sea, or Atlantic ocean.

Under the Roman empire, these states were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity the inhabitants labour under, yet they are still fertile, not only in the articles above specified; but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, Lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax are produced on their plains; and persons who have lived there for some time assure us, that the country abounds with all the necessaries and luxuries of life; for the great people here find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and drink freely of excellent wines and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Great quantities of salt-petre and excellent salt have been produced in Algiers, and in several places of Barbary lead and iron have been found. Honey and wax are also produced here in great quantities.

The deserts in the states of Barbary abound with lions, tygers, leopards, hyznas, and monstrous fer-

rents; but neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found there. Camels and dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs (a most servicable creature) by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden. Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and though equal to the Arabian; and though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are now then imported into England. Their cows are but small and give little milk. Their sheep and goats are very large; though the former yield but indifferent fleeces. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, chameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. The apprehensions travellers through some parts of Barbary are under, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely fails to interrupt their repose, which is otherwise refreshment very agreeable and highly grateful to a traveller.

Eagles, hawks, quails, partridges, and all kinds of wild fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the cupla sparrow is remarkable for its beauty and the sweetness of its note, which is thought superior to that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate.

The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, which were preferred to those of Europe by the ancients.

The principal mountains is that chain termed Mount Atlas, which runs the whole length of Barbary, from east to west, and passing through Morocco, terminates upon that ocean which separates the eastern from the western continent, and from this ridge of mountains has obtained the appellation of the Atlantic Ocean.

These mountains afford mines of exceeding rich copper; and it has been asserted, that the country contains mines of gold and silver, but none of them are open at present.

The chief rivers are the Malva, which rises in the deserts, and, running from south to north, divides Morocco from Algiers; the Suz, the Rabbatta, the Ounirabil, the Larache, the Sebon, the Daroch, the Tenfist, Peban, and the Gueron. All these have their source in the Atlas mountains, and fall into the Atlantic ocean.

As to their commerce and manufactures, an inland traffick is carried on by the inhabitants of this empire with Arabia and Negroland. To the former they send woollen manufactures, Morocco-leather, indigo, cochineal, and ostrich feathers; in return for which, they receive silks, muslins, and drugs. To Negroland they send salt, silk, and woollen manufactures, which they change for gold, ivory, and negroes, who are chiefly imported to recruit the emperor's black cavalry. The trade is conducted by caravans. The greatest part of their foreign commerce is carried on in English and French bottoms, for they have few vessels of their own except corsairs. Their exports consist in copper, Morocco-leather, hides, exceeding fine wool, ostrich feathers,

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ers, barilla, soap, wax, honey, horses, gums, raisin,
ives, almonds, dates, and other fruits.

The commercial affairs of this empire, and, indeed, of
Barbary, are managed by Jews and Christians, set-
tled in those countries. The chief manufactures are
other, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword
boots, and carpets. The Jews and Christians have,
wise, established those of silk and linen.

The natives of this empire, known by the appellation
Moors, are of a swarthy complexion; but from the
odigious number of negroes imported thither from
Guinea, there are almost as many blacks as whites.
The Moorish women are, in general very handsome;
not being exposed to the sun, like the men, remark-
ly fair. The Moors are said to be a covetous, inhospit-
able people, who commit every species of villany and
and to acquire riches; yet such is the tyranny of their
government, that a man, when he has obtained the
wealth he so ardently sought, is obliged to conceal it, lest
he should become a prey to the rapacious emperor. But
people who inhabit the hills, and are therefore little
acquainted with the vices of the court, or trade, appear
to be by far the most honest and free people in this
country; for the government, lest they should endeavor
to disown its authority, treat them rather as allies
than subjects.

The Moors marry very young, many of their females
not being more than twelve years of age at their nup-
tials; so that they are sometimes grand-mothers when
they arrive at twenty-two, and are reckoned old at
thirty. As Mahometans, it is well known that their re-
ligion admits of polygamy to the extent of four wives,
and as many concubines as they please; but, if we ex-
cept the very opulent, the people seldom avail them-
selves of this indulgence, since it entails on them a vast
additional expence in house-keeping, and in providing
for a large family. Whatever institution is contrary
to truth and sound morality, will in practice refuse it-
self: nor is any further argument than this single ob-
servation wanting, to answer all the absurdities which
have been advanced in favour of a plurality of wives.

In contracting marriage, the parents of both parties
are the only agents; and the intended bride and bride-
groom never see each other till the ceremony is per-
formed. The marriage-settlements are made before
the cadi, and then the friends of the bride produce her
portion, or, if not, the husband agrees to settle a cer-
tain sum upon her, in case he should die, or divorce
her on account of barrenness, or any other cause. The
children of the wives have all an equal claim to the es-
tates of the father and mother; but those of the concu-
bines can each only claim half a share.

When the marriage is finally agreed upon, the bride
is kept at home eight days to receive her female friends,
who pay congratulatory visits every day. At the same
time, a talb attends upon her, to converse with her re-
spective to the solemn engagement on which she is about
to enter: on these occasions, he generally accompan-

his admonitions with singing a pious hymn, which is
adapted to the solemnity. The bride also, with her
near relations, go through the ceremony of being paint-
ed afresh.

During this process, the bridegroom, on the other
hand, receives visits from his male friends in the morn-
ing, and in the evening rides through the town accom-
panied by them, some playing on hautboys and drums;
while others are employed in firing volleys of musketry.
In all these festivities, the discharge of musketry forms
a principal part of the entertainment. Contrary to the
European mode, which particularly aims at firing with
exactness, the Moors discharge their pieces as irregu-
larly as possible, so as to have a continual succession of
reports for a few minutes.

On the day of marriage, the bride in the evening is
put into a square or octagonal cage, about twelve feet
in circumference, which is covered with fine white li-
nen, and sometimes with gauzes and silks of various
colours. In this vehicle, which is placed on a mule,
she is paraded round the streets, accompanied by her
relations and friends, some carrying lighted torches,
others playing on hautboys, and a third party again
firing volleys of musketry.

In this manner she is carried to the house of her in-
tended husband, who returns about the same time from
performing similar ceremonies. On her arrival, she is
placed in an apartment by herself, and her husband is
introduced to her alone for the first time, who finds her
sitting on a silk or velvet cushion, supposing her to be
a person of consequence, with a small table before her,
upon which are two wax candles lighted. Her shift,
or more properly shirt, hangs down like a train behind
her, and over it is a silk or velvet robe with close
sleeves, which at the breast and waist is embroidered
with gold: this dress reaches something lower than the
calf of the leg. Round her head is tied a black silk
scarf, which hangs behind as low as the ground. Thus
attired, the bride sits with her hands over her eyes,
when her husband appears, and receives her as his wife,
without any further ceremony; for the agreement made
up by the friends before, the cadi, is the only specific
contract which is thought necessary.

For some time after marriage, the family and friends
are engaged in much feasting, and a variety of amuse-
ments, which last a longer or shorter time, according
to the circumstances of the parties. It is often cus-
tomary for the man to remain at home eight days, and
the woman eight months after they are first married.
If the husband should have any reason to suspect that
his wife has not been strictly virtuous, he is at liberty
to divorce her and take another; and the woman is at
liberty to divorce herself from her husband, if she can
prove that he does not provide her with a proper sub-
sistence. If he curses her, the law obliges him to pay
her, for the first offence, eight ducats; for the second,
a rich dress of still greater value; and the third time
she may leave him entirely. He is then at liberty to

marry again in two months. A woman convicted of adultery, is purified with immediate death.

When any person dies, a certain number of women are hired for the purpose of lamentation, in the performance of which, nothing can be more grating to the ear, or more unpleasent, than their frightful moans, or rather howlings: at the same time, these mercenary mourners beat their heads and breasts, and tear their cheeks with their nails. The bodies are usually buried a few hours after death. Previous to interment, the corpse is washed very clean, and sewed up in a shroud, with the right-hand under the head, which is pointed towards Mecca: it is carried on a bier, supported upon men's shoulders, to the burying-place, which is always, with great propriety, on the outside of the town, for they never bury their dead in the mosques, or within the bounds of an inhabited place. The bier is accompanied by numbers of people, two abreast, who walk very fast, calling upon God and Mahomet, and singing hymns adapted to the occasion. The grave is made very wide at the bottom, and narrow at the top, and the body is deposited without any other ceremony than singing and praying, in the same manner as on their way to the grave.

They have no tombs in this country, but long and plain stones; and it is frequently customary for the female friends of the departed to weep over their graves for several days after their funeral.

When a woman loses her husband, she mourns four months and eight days, during which period she is to wear no silver or gold; and if she happens to be pregnant, she is to mourn till she is brought to bed. For the above time, the relations of her late husband are obliged to support her. We do not learn that any mourning is due from the husband for the loss of his wife; but it is customary, particularly among the great people, for a son to mourn for his father, by not shaving his head, or any part of his beard, and by not cutting his nails for a certain space of time.

It is observable, that how depraved soever the Moors may be in every other respect, they pay the greatest duty and respect to their parents, princes, and superiors. Their method of expressing reverence both to the Divine Being, and to man, is by pulling off their slippers, which they always leave at the door of the house, or mosque they enter; and when they attend their prince in the streets, they always follow him bare-footed.

The dress of the Moors consists of a linen shirt or drawers, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and wear upon that a loose coat. Their arms and legs are always bare, but they have slippers on their feet, and persons of rank sometimes wear buskins. They shave their heads, on which they wear a turban, made either of silk or fine linen; and this they never pull off, either to their superiors or in their temples. The habit of the women is nearly similar to that of the men, only instead of a turban, they wear a round

cap made of fine linen: their drawers are much longer and larger; and when they appear in the streets, their faces are covered with a linen cloth, in the manner of a veil. The dead are always carried to the grave in their usual dress.

The religion of the natives is the Mahometan, according to the tenets of Ali, while others adhere to those of Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs; but foreigners are allowed the free and open profession of their different religions; and even the slaves are indulged with churches, priests and chapels. Indeed religion, among the Moors, serves only as a cloak for villany, under which they commit the most atrocious crimes with impunity.

The language of these states varies according to the different parts of them: in some of the inland countries the ancient African is spoken, and in the sea-port towns a corrupt Arabic; besides which, the seamen are well acquainted with the dialect known in all the parts of the Mediterranean, by the appellation of *Lingua Franca*, which is a medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c.

With respect to the population of the empire of Morocco, its inhabitants were far more numerous than at present, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas it is thought not to contain now above 25,000 people; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it be true that their king or emperor has in his armies 80,000 foreign negroes, horse and foot.

The capital of Morocco, which gives name to the whole empire, is situated in 30 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 7 deg. west long. on an extensive and delightful plain, between two rivers, the Nephthi and the Agmed, and is watered by a third, the Tonfil. It was formerly a very large and splendid city, but now above one-third of it lies in ruins. Most of its magnificent structures are demolished, three baths only remaining. The royal palace is enclosed with a high wall, surrounded with a large ditch, and flanked with towers. The common houses are chiefly of mud, plastered over, and flat at the top. The Jews reside in a separate quarter of the town, walled in for that purpose. This city was formerly the residence of the court, which is now removed to Mequinez, in the kingdom of Fez, thirty miles distant from the capital.

FEZ, originally the capital of that kingdom, is situated in 38 deg. north lat. and 4 deg. west long. and nearly leagues north-east of Morocco. This city is esteemed the general magazine of Barbary, whither all European goods are brought and exchanged, and sent into the other provinces to be bartered for those of the country. It is computed to contain near 900,000 inhabitants, of which 5000 are Jews, who always act as brokers between the Christians and Mahometans. The mosques, baths, caravanseras, seraglios, colleges, warehouscs, and other buildings, are very numerous. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond de-

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It is said that the inns, excepting those to which the Christians resort, are infamous brothels, where the most wicked and unnatural crimes are suffered to be perpetrated.

MEQUINEZ, supposed to be the ancient Gilda, and now the chief residence of the Emperor of Morocco, is 34 deg. north. lat. and 6 deg. west long. situated on a spacious plain on the river Sebti. The royal palace, though much decayed, is still exceedingly superb: it stands on an eminence, is about three miles in compass, and surrounded with strong walls. The environs of the city consist of fine parks, and olive-grounds.

ALGIERS stands in 36 deg. 30 min. north. lat. and 5 deg. 15 min. east long. and is situated upon the Mediterranean Sea, which washes it upon the north and north-east sides. This city is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of it from the sea is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; though the city has for several years braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, yet some affirm it could make but a faint defence against a regular siege, and that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of the inhabitants from the harbour. If the Spaniards must have been very deficient either in courage or skill. They attacked it in the year 1775 by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had near 20,000 foot, and 2000 horse, and seven king's ships of different rates, and 346 transports. In the year 1783, and the following, they renewed their attacks by sea, in order to destroy the city and galleys; but after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire, without either its capture or demolition. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island, where there is a cattle and large battery. The ditch is twenty feet wide, and seven deep; but at present it is almost choked up with mud.

TUNIS, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, is in 36 deg. 43 min. north lat. and 10 deg. 25 min. east long. at about the distance of 300 miles from Algiers. The situation of this city is exceedingly unhealthy, from the marshes and lakes that surround it, and the deficiency of fresh water. It has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious, as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water. This capital contains 10,000 families, and above 200 tradesmen's shops, and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisians are exceptions to the other states of Barbary, for even the most civilized of the European governments might improve from their man-

ners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. A wonderful regularity reigns through all the streets and city.

The genteeler part of the men are in general sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, and their behaviour polite and complaisant. The Tunisian women are excessively handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, in the opinion of Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of, when she is said to have painted her face, 2 Kings ix. 30. the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore.

TRIPOLI was once the richest, most populous, and opulent, of all the states on the coast of Barbary, but it is now greatly reduced. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Zaara, or the Desert, on the east by Barca, and on the west by Tunis and Biledulgerid. It extends along the coast about 700 miles, that is from 10 deg. 13 min. to 25 deg. 27 min. east long. The air is clear, but less healthy than that of Tunis. The soil is the richest in Barbary; and the vallies, where cultivated, produce large quantities of corn, grapes, olives, dates, and the various fruits natural to warm climates. The animals are the same as those of Algiers.

The capital city of Tripoli is but small, yet populous, and the natives, though barbarous, are flourishing. Its situation is on a sandy soil, near the margin of the sea; strong walls, defended by formidable ramparts, and flanked by pyramidal towers, surround it. Here are but two gates, the north gate towards the sea, and the south gate towards the country; and the whole city forms the figure of a crescent, the concave part of which encloses the haven. At the extreme points of the harbour, which is very commodious, are some military works; those to the east are in bad condition, but on the westward there is a strong castle well fortified. The houses in general are very mean and low built, and the streets narrow and crooked; yet some remaining monuments of magnificence seem to confirm the prevailing opinion of the inhabitants, that it was once remarkable for the splendor of many of its public buildings. This city is distressed by the scarcity of corn, and the want of sweet water.

The city of ORAN, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and Moors.

CONSTANTINA was the ancient Cirta, and one of the

the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides except the south-west.

SALLEE, situate in 33 deg. 48 min. north lat. and 6 deg. 25 min. west long. is an ancient city mentioned by Ptolemy, and stands on the river Gueron, which divides it into two parts. It is defended by two castles, which communicate with each other, but the fortifications are irregular and ill-designed. All articles of commerce here pay a tenth part to the emperor.

TANGIER, situated about two miles within the Straights of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of Queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and must have been a valuable acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications, and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town.

CEUTA, upon the same freight, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors.

BARCA, the ancient Cyrene, and once famous for the temple of Ammon, is now truly a desert, scarce a town or cultivated spot of ground being to be found in the whole country. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; on the south by Biledulgerid; on the east by Egypt; and on the west by Tripoli. It is about 200 miles in length, from north to south, and 160 in breadth, from east to west.

TETUAN, which lies within 20 miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized.

Suz, Taflet, and Gefula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the King of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor is any thing particularly curious contained in them.

Zaara is divided by the Arabs into three parts, by the names of Cahel, Zohara, and Algar. It is a desert country, thinly peopled, and nearly destitute of both water and provisions. The soil is in general very dry and sandy, and the climate being exceeding hot, it is deficient of those essentials produced in more fertile countries.

The subjects of the Barbary states, in general, subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold, intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea. They are, notwithstanding, greatly inferior to the English and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisians, void of all arts and literature.

The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, is beyond all description. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which

they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is shocking; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country, are an hospitable, inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of the government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of the Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves.

The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent, mining Turkish, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels, and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags. Adultery in the women, before observed, is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes without fear of punishment.

With respect to the antiquities and curiosities to be met with in Barbary, the reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman world, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity, but they lie scattered among barbarous and ignorant inhabitants. Some remains of the Numidian and Mauritanian splendor are still to be met with. They point out the situation of the celebrated cities of Carthage, the Julia Cæsarea of the Romans, nearly equal in splendor to Carthage itself; Hippo, Utica, and several others. The principal ruins of Carthage consist of spacious cisterns or reservoirs for holding water, together with considerable remains of the aqueduct by which the water was brought above thirty miles from the mountains to the city. About fifty miles to the south of Tunis, is still remaining a very considerable part of a Roman amphitheatre; it is of an oval form, three stories high, and would hold 30,000 spectators; but the city to which this noble ruin belonged is unknown. Nor are the ruins of classical antiquity the only ones found in this country. The caliphs of Bagdad have left many amazing monuments of their magnificence. Little can be said respecting the natural curiosities of this country; the principal are the rich lead mines in the mountains of Beni-Boo-Taleb; the prodigious salt pits, which take up an acre of six miles; a little to the southward of Arzew, the Tilet Mines, an entire mountain of salt, and the Hammam, or bath of Meregga. Dr. Shaw mentions several springs in this country, whose waters are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton in a short time.

HISTORY OF THE STATES OF BARBARY.

FEW countries in the world have experienced greater vicissitudes of fortune than that at present known by the

their floventlines is thro' the inland parts of the offensive people; and in proportion, that the more distant are from the seats of these are the more pure. Not only they have a liveliness about the face of the Arabic descent; but their countenance; and having noble among themselves. It is to be the original inhabitants with the Arabs, and a handful of insolent, domineering of the streets of Constantinople; and gold and silver vessels; swallow by handfuls, in adultery in the women, and with death; but through a plurality of wives and the most unnatural crimes.

curiosities and curiosities to be leader can scarcely doubt remained Carthage and the Greek, and Roman works, and remains of antiquity; barbarous and ignorant of the Numidian and to be met with. These celebrated cities of Carthage, and the Romans, nearly equal Hippo, Utica, and the ruins of Carthage could be used for holding water, the ruins of the aqueduct by above thirty miles from Carthage. About fifty miles to the west, in a very considerable

it is of an oval form, and is said 30,000 spectators could be seen in the ruins belonged to one of classical antiquity the city. The caliphs of Baghdad, and the monuments of their magnificence, reflecting the natural curiosities principal are the rich lead mine, the Boob-Taleb; the profitable area of six miles; a new, the Tiblet Mines, and the Hammam, or baths, and several springs in this part as to boil a large piece

RESIDERS OF BARBARY.

have experienced greater at present known by the name

of the States of Barbary. It is supposed to have been originally peopled from Egypt; but at what time, and who led the first colony thither, are particulars that are not now to be known. Careful only of procuring pasture and water for their numerous flocks and herds, the inhabitants wandered from one place to another without forming any settlement, or erecting houses for their abode. About the year before Christ 891, Dido, daughter to Pygmalion, king of Tyre, fled from her brother, at the head of a considerable colony, and built the famous city of Carthage, the capital of a republic celebrated for its riches and commerce. This republic continued in a state of opulence and power, at once the glory and terror of the neighbouring nations, about 700 years; when the fortune of the Romans prevailed, and the pride of Carthage was humbled in the dust. But through the power of Carthage was no more, the country flourished under the Roman government, and became one of the richest jewels in the imperial crown. Cultivated with a fertile soil, and a warm luxurious climate, the number of inhabitants rapidly increased, and several very magnificent cities, afterwards famous in history, were erected. The Christian religion was introduced here in the time of the apostles themselves, and continued till the fifth century, when the Vandals trampled on the Roman eagles, and put a period to the greatness of the African colonies.

These fierce invaders of Africa did not however long possess the country they had conquered: the Greek emperors drove out the northern barbarians, and reduced, in some measure, the arts and manufactures, in which, as well as religion, the ferocious Vandals had declared perpetual war. But this did not restore peace and tranquillity to these parts of Africa: they were alternately ravaged by the Moors and Vandals; and at last totally conquered by the caliphs of Baghdad, in the seventh century.

The religion of Mahomet was now established in Africa; the few remains of ancient greatness were destroyed by the bigotted followers of that impostor; and the country was divided among the chiefs of the caliph's army. Restless from nature, and infligated to conquest by the tenets of their religion, the Moors passed over into Europe, and reduced the greater part of Spain. Their victory now began to forsake their standards. They were several times defeated by the European armies, and at last, about the year 1492, totally driven out of Spain by Ferdinand and Isabella. The only asylum open to the Mahometan fugitives was Africa, where they settled among their friends and countrymen in the Barbary coast. This expulsion of the Moors occasioned a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards; and finding themselves incapable of defence against the Christians, they had recourse to the Turks for assistance. Accordingly the two famous brothers, Barbarossa, admirals of the Turkish fleet, were sent to Barbary. Success attended the Turkish forces; the Spaniards, who had made themselves masters of great part

of the country, were obliged to retire, and the Moors hoped to enjoy the happiness of freedom and peace. For some time they flattered themselves with a long series of prosperity, but their hopes were soon rendered abortive: they found that they had only exchanged one master for another, and that the yoke of their deliverer was full as heavy as that of the Spaniards. The emperor Charles V. made a noble attempt to reduce Algiers and Tunis. He succeeded with regard to the former; but, before he could conquer the latter, a dreadful storm destroyed the greater part of his fleet, then attending his army encamped in the neighbourhood of Algiers, and he was obliged to embark precipitately, just as that city was reduced to the last extremity. Since that time they have continued to carry on the trade of piracy against the Christians, and have lately shaken off the Turkish yoke.

The emperors of Morocco are the successors of the sovereigns of that country, called Xeriffs, whose power resembled that of the caliphs of the Saracens. Their history is hardly any thing else than a series of murders, and the most detestable crimes. Muley Moloc alone, in the long dynasty of the emperors, was a great prince. He gained a complete victory over the Portuguese, whose king, Don Sebastian, was killed in the action. They have always carried on a piratical war against Spain and Portugal, and often against the other European powers, who frequently condescend to purchase a peace with those imperious infidels, though their marine is truly despicable; nor does the crown of Great-Britain sometimes disdain to procure their friendship by presents, as in the year 1769.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE SLAVE COAST.

NEGROLAND is situated between 10 and 11 degrees of north lat. and between 18 deg. west, and 28 deg. east long. being about 2576 miles in length from east to west, and 68 in breadth from north to south. It is bounded on the north by Zaara, on the south by Guinea, on the east by unknown countries, and on the west by the Atlantic ocean.

The Niger or Senegal, and the Gambia, are the most remarkable rivers, on which are several European settlements. The English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hardware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives; a negro's wealth consisting in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river of Senegal, with its dependencies, were given up to France.

Next to the slave trade, gold and silver form the principal branches of African commerce. The Dutch, English,

English, and French, have their settlements for this purpose on the same coast.

GUINEA is distinguished into Upper and Lower. Considered as one country, it lies between 9 deg. 18 min. north, and 16 deg. 45 min. south lat. extending in length above 2500 miles along the sea-coast; but its breadth is not determined.

Besides gold, ivory, and slaves; this country affords indigo, bees-wax, gum-fenega, gum-tragacanth, and other gums and drugs.

Upper Guinea is divided generally into three parts, Malagueta, Guinea Proper, and Benin-Guinea Proper, contains the Tooth and Gold Coast; the former extends from Cape Palmas to the river Sueira da Casta, and the latter from thence to the river Volta.

Lower Guinea, or Congo, extends about 990 miles along the coast, from Cape Lopo to Cape Negro. This large country is divided into Loango, Congo Proper, Angola, and Benguela, and watered with many rivers, and would be very fruitful, if better cultivated. The mountains abound with gold, silver, and copper.

Poultry, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, elephants, tygers, leopards, civit-cats, &c. are very numerous here; and several sorts of corn and fruits very plentiful.

The inhabitants of this extensive territory agree with each other in many material circumstances: they are all of a black complexion, are idolaters in the worst sense of the word, and the governments every where monarchical. Despotism reigns, unlimited by laws, by customs, or by conscience. Learning is unknown, and the arts of peace were never practised among them. Some attempts have indeed been made by the Portuguese, and other European nations, to withdraw the veil of ignorance, and diffuse the rays of learning and religion over those poor deluded people; but all their endeavours have been hitherto abortive: ignorance still maintains her seat, and idolatry of the grossest kind is the established religion of this unhappy country.

Respecting the climate and produce of this part of Africa, it may be observed, that the fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium here with regard to the advantages of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile; this arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxury; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort, are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance.

The annual British exports to Africa are estimated at

500,000l. sterling, including a considerable quantity that is annually exchanged with American and other foreign traders on the coast; about 50,000l. of this returned in ivory, gold-dust, gum, &c. The greater part of the profits of the slave-trade is raised on the sugar plantations. If by establishing factories, and encouraging civilization on the coast of Africa, and turning some of our West-Indian slaves to their original country, we tried to make up for our past treatment to the natives, and instructed the inhabitants in the culture of tobacco, indigo, &c. to barter with us for our manufactures, and supply us with those articles, in demand for which has been so advantageous to America, great would be our profits. Were Africa civilized, and could we obtain the affections of the natives, and introduce gradually our religion, manners, and language among them, we should open a market that would fully employ our manufacturers and seamen, to all probability, to the end of time; and, while we enriched ourselves, we should contribute to their happiness.

The east and west coast of Africa, from the tropic of Capricorn to the equator, are in the possession of the Portuguese. This immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts, and happy discovery of the navigation of the Cape of Good-Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they traded only for gold, ivory, and gums, but likewise for several other articles, as senna, aloes, civet, ambergis, and frankincense. There still remains a part of the western coast of Africa to be considered, where the Dutch have settlements. This part is inhabited by a very different people, and governed in a very different manner. Strangers at once, to the arts of civil life, and to the customs of the negroes, they continue under a kind of patriarchal government, and a few itinerant families form a nation.

SIERRA LEONE.

Climate. Productions in general. Persons, Manners, and Customs of the Natives.

THE climate of this country is in general very unwholesome, particularly in the mountainous parts, where, during four months in the year, it rains, thunders, and is so intolerably hot, that the people are obliged to keep close in their huts; and the air is corrupted in such a manner by the lightning, that all animal food is reduced in a few hours to a state of putrefaction. The flat open country, however, is not so bad; for though in summer the heat is excessive in the former part of the day, yet it is very temperate in the afternoon, from the refreshing breezes that generally blow from the south-west.

The banks of Sierra Leone are lined with mango grove trees, the leaves of which exactly resemble those

GEOGRAPHY.

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European laurel. The whole country abounds in millet and rice, which is the principal food of the natives. It also produces great plenty of oranges, lemons, bananas, Indian figs, ananas, pumpions, water melons, potatoes, wild pears, white plums, and several sorts of pulse.

Here are the palm, the cocoa, and the cotton tree; on the mountains are abundance of palm and laurel trees. Indeed the whole abounds with trees of various sorts, so close together, that it may be called one continued forest.

They have a great plenty of deer, hogs, goats, and swine, which the natives sell to the Europeans for a small quantity of brandy, a liquor they prefer to others.

In the mountains are great numbers of wild animals, elephants, lions, tigers, wild boars, and roe-bucks; apes of several sorts, and serpents, the latter of which are so large, that, it is said, they will swallow a wild whole. The apes, monkies, and baboons, are so numerous, that they make great destruction in the plantations.

In the woods are great numbers of birds of different kinds and plumage, as pigeons, parrots, paroquets, and guinea-hens, the latter of which are about the size of a pheasant, and are very beautiful; but it is difficult to catch them on account of the thickness of the trees. They have also several other sorts of fowl; among which are white pelicans as large as swans, herons, curlews, plovers, and a bird called ox-eyes.

The bay and entrance of the river abound with a great variety of fish, as raies, thornbacks, and a fish called the old-wife. There are also gar-fishes, cavalloes, sharks, sword-fishes, dog-fishes, and one called the pipe-maker, having on each side the mouth pendants like a barbel, and the noise they make is something like that of a hog's grunting. Among the fish, however, caught here, the most common are old-wives, pilchard, the becune, the monk or angel-fish, and the mullet.

The great plenty of fish found in the bay and river of Sierra Leone, are of infinite service to the European ships, not only for provisions, but also for traffick; for the natives are so indolent, that they will not be at the trouble to catch them, but content themselves with what are left by the ebb tides among the rocks.

On the sides of the bay are great plenty of oysters, some of which are of such a size, that one of them would serve a moderate man for a meal; but they are so tough that to be scarce eatable, unless first boiled, and then fried in small pieces.

The trees that grow on the sides of the bay make excellent haunts for crocodiles; as also for the manatee, or sea-cow, which are here in great abundance.

The manatee, or sea-cow, is supposed by some to be an amphibious creature, but this opinion has been sufficiently confuted; for it is always found in large rivers or bays, and feeds upon sea-weeds that grow near

the shore. The skin is thick, rough, bare, and scarcely penetrable. The body is long, and the head very small in proportion to it. These animals have no teeth, but instead thereof two strong white bones, that run the whole length of both jaws. The nostrils resemble those of an horse. The eyes are fixed in the centre of the head. The breasts are placed between the arms, one under each, are of a convex form, and about a foot and a half in diameter. They are hard, rough, and wrinkled; and when they give suck, the teats are four inches long.

These animals keep together in large companies, and are very careful of their young. They bring them forth in autumn, and have but one at a time. The manatee has no voice or cry, and the only noise it makes is in fetching its breath. The fat, which lies between the cuticle and the skin, when exposed to the sun, has a fine smell and taste: it has also this peculiar property, that the heat of the sun will not spoil it, or make it become greasy. The taste is like the oil of sweet almonds, and the only effect it has on the body, is that of keeping it open. The fibres and lean parts are like beef, but more red and harsh, and may be kept a great while in the hottest weather without tainting. The fat of the young ones is like pork, and the lean greatly resembles veal. In the head are four stones of different sizes, which are somewhat like bones, and are used in medicine. They are said to be good against agues, and to cleanse the kidneys of gravel. Hoffman affirms they are exceeding useful in cases of epilepsy.

When the negroes catch these creatures, they go in a canoe, and paddle towards it with as little noise as possible, it being exceeding quick in hearing. As soon as they find themselves near enough, the man who is placed ready at the head of the canoe, strikes a harpoon fixed at the end of a long pole into it, and then lets go. The beast immediately makes towards the mangroves, and the water being shallow, they follow it close, and repeat the strokes till they have wearied it out, when they drag it ashore, and complete their conquest.

The inhabitants of Sierra Leone are not so black as those of the neighbouring countries; neither have they such flat noses or thick lips. The men are in general tall and well made, of a cheerful disposition, and not given to quarrel: the women are short and robust, owing to their being constantly employed in labour; for besides the business of housewifery, they work hard in tillage, make palm-oil, and spin cotton.

Their dress resembles that of the country in general. They are naturally temperate and sober; and though they are exceeding fond of brandy and other spirituous liquors, yet they never drink to excess, considering drunkenness as one of the greatest crimes that can be committed.

Their houses or huts are low, and thatched with straw: some are round, some square, and others are oblong; and most of them are ornamented in the front with





A
CHART
of
AFRICA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

Longit. E. from London

with two wings of a spiral form. They are kept very clean, being swept at least once every day.

Their furniture consists of two or three earthen pots to boil their victuals in, a gourd or two to fetch palm wine, and half a gourd for a cup; a few earthen dishes, a basket or two for the wife to gather cockles in, and a knapsack for the husband, made of the bark of trees, to carry his provision when he goes abroad. Their bedsteads are made of billets of wood laid across each other, on which they lay a mat, and sleep without any covering.

Their weapons are swords, daggers, darts, bows and arrows. The points of their arrows are infected with the juice of a poisonous fruit, which is so inconceivably subtle and quick, that wherever it strikes, it is sure to prove fatal. Some of them have also guns, which they are very fond of, and use with great dexterity.

Their food consists chiefly of roots, herbs, fruits, cockles, and oysters; and their common drink is water. They plant about their houses gourds, potatoes, pom-pions, and tobacco, the latter of which they are very fond of, particularly in smoking.

They are very fond of dancing, and generally spend their evenings in that diversion. Their music consists of two or three drums, made of a hollow piece of wood, and covered with the skin of a kid.

Every town or village has one peculiar house, to which the women send their daughters at a certain age, who are there taught for a year to sing, dance, and perform other exercises, by an old man appointed for that purpose; and when the year is expired, he leads them to the market-place, where they publicly exhibit such performances as they have been taught at school. During this time, if any of the young men are disposed to marry, they make choice of those they like best, without regard either to birth or fortune. When the man has declared his intention, the parties are considered as actually married, provided the bridegroom can make some presents to the bride's parents, and to the old man who was her tutor.

When they bury their dead, they put into their graves all their best goods, and erect a roof over it, which they cover with linen cloth. The corpse is always attended to the grave by a number of people hired as mourners, who howl and cry in proportion as they are paid for their attendance.

ACCOUNT OF THE BRITISH ESTABLISHMENT AT SIERRA LEONE.

IT having been represented, by way of petition to the parliament of Great-Britain, that the establishing of a general trade and commerce from these kingdoms to and with the coasts of Africa, and from thence to and with the several inferior kingdoms and countries of that continent (not hitherto explored or traded with by Eu-

ropeans) would be highly beneficial to the manufactures and trading interests of these kingdoms; an act was accordingly obtained in the year 1791 (to have continuance for thirty-one years) "For establishing a company for carrying on trade between the kingdom of Great-Britain and the coasts, harbours, and countries of Africa; and for enabling the said company to hold by grant from his Majesty, his heirs and successors, and from the native princes of Africa, a certain district of land, commonly called *The Peninsula of Sierra Leone*, now vested in his Majesty, or belonging to the said princes, for the better enabling the said company to carry on the said trade."

As a foundation for this design, a great number of gentlemen, merchants, and other persons of great respectability and opulence, formed themselves into a society, and subscribed considerable sums of money; and having obtained the sanction and protection of parliament, were made a distinct and separate body corporate, for the establishing and carrying on the said trade by the name or style of *The Sierra Leone Company*; with power to raise, by subscriptions, a capital joint stock, not exceeding the sum of 500,000*l*.

This company are not permitted to borrow or obtain any money but by subscription; nor is it lawful for them, either directly, or indirectly, to deal or traffick in the buying or selling of slaves, or in any manner whatsoever to have, hold, appropriate, or employ any person or persons in a state of slavery in the service of the said company, which is set on foot with the most beneficent and laudable views, respecting the true interests and happiness of the native Africans.

And for the better ordering and managing the said company's affairs, thirteen directors (two of whom are to be appointed chairman and deputy-chairman) are to be annually chosen, who are to take an oath of fidelity to the trusts reposed in them; but that no person is to be chosen a director, unless he is possessed of one share at least in the capital joint stock of the company. Secretaries, agents, and servants, are also to take the proper oaths.

The said company have moreover "Full power, liberty, and privilege, to purchase of and from all kings, princes, and chiefs, or other powers having right to make sale thereof, so much land as shall include the whole tract or district so commonly called or known by the name of *The Peninsula of Sierra Leone* aforesaid, as the same is bounded on the north by the river Sierra Leone, on the south by the River Caramanca, on the east by the river Bunce, and on the west by the sea."

The act also provides, that nothing therein contained, shall extend to affect the rights of any other British subjects trading to Africa, so as to prevent or obstruct the ships or vessels belonging to British subjects from anchoring in Sierra Leone, or Caramanca rivers, or in any of the creeks, bays, or harbours within the limits specified in the said act, for the purpose of refitting and repairing as heretofore, &c.

We are all intended to be the main object of that class of all men, and the feelings of the act, and the effect of the doctrine, no doubt, they are educated, and the families of the continent with, the human race, and the peril of that can

This vast Negro, on the south of the head, of 85 deg. southern extent. The air is great was not frequently a very dangerous of the inhab in the head, continuance, able, but the near to this horrid zone, accordingly: a the Cape, allatoes, and great plenty mons, grapes ward, which now all mar Decemb

beneficial to the manufacture of these kingdoms; an act in the year 1791 (to have been the main object being, the civilization and moralizing of that class of human beings, whose minds are, perhaps, of all others, the most rude and uncultivated: namely, the African blacks. The abominable traffick of buying and selling slaves, so shocking to all the feelings of mankind, and even the use of such slaves by the act expressly prohibited; but, on the other hand, the negro inhabitants of this colony being all free, and esteemed as brethren, will be taught the excellent doctrines and benign social duties of the Christian religion, and be trained up to become useful citizens; they being found in general equally susceptible of education and tuition with the rest of their more enlightened fellow-creatures.

In the beginning of the year 1792, a great number of families of free negroes, to the amount of 1400 souls, were carried from his Majesty's province of Nova-Scotia, in America, to settle in this place; and there the greatest reason to believe, from the very respectable characters engaged in this undertaking, and it is our present wish, that their joint exertions may and will be attended with the happiest effects: to that description of the human species, many of whom have, for a series of years, to gratify fordid avarice, been made to groan and perish under almost every invention of savage cruelty that can disgrace humanity.

permitted to borrow or obtain directly, nor is it lawful for slaves, or in any manner appropriate, or employ any of slavery in the service of set on foot with the most laws, respecting the true and native Africans.

ing and managing the said directors (two of whom are and deputy-chairman) are to take an oath of fidelity; but that no person is to be possessed of one share of stock of the company. Several, are also to take the pro-

moreover " Full power, privilege and from all kings, powers having right to land as shall include the commonly called or known of Sierra Leone afforded the north by the river Sierra River Caramanca, on the on the west by the sea." at nothing therein contains rights of any other British as to prevent or obstruct to British subjects from or Caramanca rivers, or in harbours within the limits the purpose of settling and

We are assured that this settlement was planned, and intended to be conducted upon the purest and most valuable principles of philanthropy and benevolence; the main object being, the civilization and moralizing of that class of human beings, whose minds are, perhaps, of all others, the most rude and uncultivated: namely, the African blacks. The abominable traffick of buying and selling slaves, so shocking to all the feelings of mankind, and even the use of such slaves by the act expressly prohibited; but, on the other hand, the negro inhabitants of this colony being all free, and esteemed as brethren, will be taught the excellent doctrines and benign social duties of the Christian religion, and be trained up to become useful citizens; they being found in general equally susceptible of education and tuition with the rest of their more enlightened fellow-creatures.

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C A F F R A R I A.

This vast tract of country is situated between Cape Negro, on the western coast of Africa, in 15 deg. 30 min. south lat. and the river del Spiritu Santo, or Malacca, on the eastern coast of this continent, in the lat. of 25 deg. south. The Cape of Good-Hope forms the southern extremity of Caffraria.

The air is very hot, and would be suffocating, if the heat was not mitigated by the winds which blow continually from the Southern Ocean. Violent storms also frequently arise, which, though they render the coast very dangerous, are absolutely necessary to the health of the inhabitants, who are always afflicted with pains in the head, if there happens to be a calm of any long continuance. The soil in the vallies is in general fertile, but there are very few vegetable productions peculiar to this country; but the fruits and plants of the torrid zone, as well as those of Europe, flourish exceedingly; and in the Dutch Company's settlements at the Cape, all kinds of fruit, cabbages, cauliflowers, potatoes, and other garden stuff and roots are found in great plenty; together with pine-apples, oranges, lemons, grapes, melons, &c. Every cottage has its vineyard, which yields wine enough for the family. They sow all manner of grain, oats and lentils excepted: in December it is all ripe, and then they begin their

harvest. In January they tread out the corn in the fields, and by the latter end of February it is all housed. The inland parts of the country are mostly filled with woods and forests.

The animals found here are lions, tygers, leopards, elephants, rhinoceroses, elks, zebras or wild asses, monkeys, and other common quadrupeds. A particular kind of eagles, called dung-birds, are found here: they will attack a horse or a cow in great flights, and making a hole in the belly of the beast with their beaks and talons, perfectly scoop out the inside, leaving only the bones and hide.

Caffraria is in general a mountainous country; but the three principal eminences are in the neighbourhood of the Cape, and called the Table-Hill, Lion-Hill, and Wind-Hill, which is likewise called the Sugar-loaf-Mountain, from its form. On the top of Table-Hill, are several fine springs of water, clear as crystal, and of an exquisite taste. On ascending this mountain, the eye is delighted with the view of its fertility, and every part of it is adorned with the most stately trees; while its top and sides are enamelled with a variety of flowers, the beauty and fragrance of which, perhaps, exceed any produced in Europe. Lion-Hill is separated from Table-Hill by a valley, and on it a hut is erected for the shelter of two centinels, who are always posted there to give notice to the fort at the Cape, when a vessel is making for the harbour. Wind-Hill is the lowest of the three, being shaped like a sugar-loaf, and abounds in excellent pasture. There are no navigable rivers in this country; but the brooks and rivulets, which descend from the mountains, tend greatly to the fertilization of the land.

The inhabitants, known by the name of Hottentots, are of a middling stature, with small limbs, but very seldom deformed. They esteem a flat nose as one of the essential parts of beauty, and therefore as soon as a child is born, they break the grille of its nose. Their eyebrows are large, their eyes black, their lips thick, their hair short, black, and curled, like that of Negroes; their teeth remarkably white, and their complexion rather tawny than black; but in order to darken it, they besmear their bodies all over with grease and foot, which gives them a very nauseous smell.

These people reside in different hordes or villages, on the banks of rivers, and near the forests, where they form so many distinct villages and independent republics. Their villages, called kraals, consisting of about twenty huts, are all circular; and the huts of which they are composed being covered with skins, are so very low, that a man must stoop very much, or crawl on his knees, to get into them. Some of these kraals contain upwards of 100, and sometimes 500 souls. These huts serve chiefly to contain provisions, and their implements of husbandry; the owner himself never occupying them, unless when it rains: at other times, he passes his leisure hours in sleeping at the door of his hut, where he lies on his belly, and exposes his back to the sun and the

weather, waking now and then to amuse himself with smoking a certain strong-scented herb, which hath much the same effect as our tobacco. All their furniture consists of two or three earthen vessels for dressing their victuals, which is generally herbs, flesh, or shell-fish. Though the Hottentots are, without exception, the nastiest and most indolent people in the world; yet such as confine themselves to the natural diet of their country, live to a great age: but many of them drink prodigious quantities of brandy, and other spirituous liquors, unknown among them till introduced by the Dutch, and this intemperance never fails to shorten their lives.

The employment of the natives is purely pastoral; their principal and almost only occupation being the care of their herds of sheep and kine. Of these each village or kraal hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. In order to prevent the inroads of beasts of prey, particularly wolves, and other furious animals that occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle; the herdsman goes or sends every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case, he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him, where he is inevitably destroyed.

United among themselves by the bonds of fraternal concord, the inhabitants of the same village live in constant peace. But on the first injury that is offered them by any of the neighbouring tribes, they take a cruel revenge. The subject of their mutual complaints is generally the stealing of a sheep or cow, and sometimes only a suspicion of it; the consequences, however, when they determine on revenge, are usually very terrible; for they take all possible means, after having made this determination, to persuade the aggressors that the injury is forgotten; but no sooner do they find their dissimulation hath taken effect in the security of the enemy, than they fall suddenly upon them with poisoned weapons, sparing neither age nor sex, but rooting up at once the whole community. Such is the method of going to war among these people.

In this country, the care of household affairs belongs to the department of the females. The men, indeed, are the butchers, and prepare the meat for dressing; but the care of providing the vegetables is assigned only to the women. Accordingly, the mother of a family sets out in a morning, attended by such of her children as are able to follow her, carrying the rest in her arms or on her back. In this manner she searches the woods and river-sides for roots, pulse, or fruit; of which having gotten a sufficient quantity, she returns, lights a fire on a large stone before the cabin, and when the victuals are dressed, the husband sits down to his meal with the rest of the family.

The women are clothed with sheep-skins, as well as the men; wearing the woolly part of this mantle outwards in summer, and inwards during the winter. They wear one skin over their shoulders, the ends of which crossing each other before, and leaving their neck bare, another skin is fastened round their middle, and reaches down to their knees. Those of them who are ambitious to please, adorn themselves with necklaces of shells: for even in this country the sex have their charms, which they endeavour to heighten by ornaments as are peculiar to themselves, and would meet with little regard elsewhere. To this end, they grease their faces, necks, and all the naked parts of their bodies with mutton suet, in order to make them shine. They also braid or plait their hair, to give themselves an additional elegance. After a Hottentot lady has thus bedizened and tricked herself up, and thereby exhausted all the arts of her toilette, her pride is wonderfully elevated; while the splendor of her appearance gives her the highest degree of satisfaction, how unfavourable soever nature may have been to her with regard to shape and stature.

The Hottentots have neither temples, idols, nor any peculiar place of worship; they celebrate indeed several nocturnal dances, with singing, at the new and full moon; but these are performed near their huts, and seem to be rather pastimes, or merry meetings, than any thing relative to religious worship. They are attached to their own country and manners, and are enthusiasts for liberty, that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination, or even an idea of the European manner of life. There is even an instance of a Hottentot, who had been taken from Caffraria by the Dutch while an infant, and being instructed in the customs, learning, and religion of the Europeans, became a proficient in literature; but on returning to his native country, he abandoned all the advantages of education, returned his European dress to his mailer, put on his sheep-skin mantle, and never more appeared among the Dutch.

The inhabitants of the Cape expose their female children in the forests, where they leave them either to starve, or be devoured by wild beasts. They use the same barbarous method with their old men, when they become useless and decrepit. This, however, is directly contrary to the advice, and without the consent of the chief men of the kraal. And here it may be proper to mention, that in every kraal the oldest man is always the first in order and dignity; and his advice is generally followed in affairs relative to the welfare of the whole, as he is supposed to have had most experience.

The principal place for commerce in Caffraria, is the CAPE OF GOOD-HOPE, which was first discovered by the Portuguese in 1493, but they never made any settlement. In 1600 the Dutch visited it, but many years after only touched at it, in their voyage

to and from provisions. Having repelled the India companies, due to them a place, was ordered with all made the inhabitants of brass which, together were so charmingly thereby it was all liberty to certain quantities the natives, as dwelling-houses erected. After were obliged to present are still is at the Cape; the town of Waverish. The increase of industry was purchased from Terra de Natal commodities. Besides the Cape of Caffraria coast. Having thus we shall proceed which, beyond

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This country on the east; well; by the and the river enough, on the petty kingdoms to the emperor of Manica.

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with sheep-skins, as well as the woolly part of this mantle, and towards during the winter their shoulders, the ends of their necks, and their middle, and reached those of them who are ambitious with necklaces of gold, and they endeavour to heighten by fastenings, and would meet with this end, they graze their naked parts of their bodies to make them shine. They give themselves an Arabian Hottentot lady has the pride is wonderfully that of her appearance gives her a fashion, how unfavourable to her with regard to shape.

her temples, idols, nor do they celebrate indeed feasting, at the new and full moon, performed near their huts, and, or merry meetings, that is, their worship. They are of a country and manners, and all the attempts of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope are ineffectual for making the mortal, or giving them an idea of the Europeans, even an instance of a Hottentot from Caffraria by being instructed in the customs of the Europeans, before returning to his native country, the advantages of education to his master, put on the more appeared among the

Cape expose their females, they leave them either naked or with wild beasts. They use the skins of their old men, when they die. This, however, is done without the consent of the deceased here it may be proper to mention the oldest man is always the wisest; and his advice is given to the welfare of the country. They have had most experience in the commerce in Caffraria, which was first discovered by the Dutch, but they never made any use of it, but they visited it, but they were not interested in it, in their voyages

to and from the East-Indies, in order to take in fresh provisions. At last, in the year 1650, Van Riebeck, being represented to the directors of the Dutch East-India company the great advantages which would accrue to them if they could establish a settlement at this place, was ordered to sail thither with four ships equipped with all necessary materials. On his arrival, he made the inhabitants a great variety of presents, consisting of brass toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. by which, together with his engaging behaviour, they were so charmed, that a treaty was directly concluded, whereby it was agreed, that the Dutch should have full liberty to settle there, in consideration of such a certain quantity of toys and commodities delivered to the natives, as were worth 50,000 guilders. A fort, dwelling-houses, warehouses, &c. were soon after erected. After this, new settlers arriving daily, they were obliged to extend themselves along the coast, and are present are divided into four principal colonies: The first is at the Cape; the second is termed the Hellen-gageh; the third the Drakensten, and the fourth, the Wavenish. But in order to provide against a future increase of inhabitants, the Dutch East-India company has purchased from the natives all that tract of land called Terra de Natal, for which they paid in toys and other commodities to the amount of 30,000 guilders.

Besides the Cape and Terra de Natal, the country of Caffraria contains Mataman and Terra de Fumos. Having thus surveyed the western coast of Africa, we shall proceed to the eastern, the first division of which, beyond Caffraria, is called

MONOMOTAPA.

This country is bounded by the kingdom of Safala, on the east; by the mountains of Caffraria, on the west; by the river Del Spiritu Santo, on the south; and the river Cuama, which separates it from Monomugi, on the north. It is divided into seven provinces or petty kingdoms, the governors of which are vassals to the emperor; the capital town of the whole country is Manica.

The air is esteemed salutary, and the soil fertile, producing sugar-canes, and a great number of fine trees. There are no beasts of burden in this country, but many elephants, and vast herds of horned cattle. Gold is also found in plenty here.

The people, who are not very numerous, are only clothed from their waists downwards. Their arms are bows and arrows, darts, poniards, cutlasses, and sabres; and it is asserted, that there are some warlike females in this country, who, like the ancient amazons, cut off their left breasts, that they may shoot their arrows with more freedom. The emperor assumes great state and magnificence, and has 1000 wives, but only one reigns as empress, and her eldest son succeeds to the throne.

MONOEMUGI.

Joins to Monomotapa, and is divided into several principalities. The air is in general exceeding hot, and very unhealthy. The natural produce of this kingdom is gold, palm-wine, oil, and such quantities of honey, that half of it is lost every year, the inhabitants not being able to consume it. These people vary according to the principality they reside in; those of Alaba are a cruel race, called Galas, who offer human sacrifices, and spare none that are hardy enough to venture through their country. Others wander from place to place, and subsist by plunder; and many of them are said to be cannibals. Amber-beads are the current coin of this country, gold and silver being so common, that it is of no value among them.

ZANGUEBAR.

Includes the countries of Magadoxa, Melinda, Mombaza, Quiloa, Mofambique, and Sofala; all of which are either in alliance with, or subject to the Portuguese. Magadoxa is a barren country: the people are a mixture of Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. Melinda is a very pleasant, fruitful, and healthy country: it contains seventeen churches, nine religious houses, the governor's palace, the town-hall, and the magazine, all which exceed in grandeur any thing of the kind to be found in Africa. They carry on a considerable trade with the Portuguese, in gold, ivory, slaves, &c. Mombaza, to the south of Melinda, resembles it greatly in soil, produce, &c. The peninsula of Quiloa, enjoys a fruitful soil, with a very unsalutary air; however, many excellent sugar-canes are produced here. Part of the inhabitants are Pagans, and the rest idolaters. The king, it is said, pays an annual tribute of gold to the Portuguese, amounting to 100,000 crusadoes. Mofambique lies south of Quiloa. The air is hot, and the soil in most places sandy and barren. This country produces gold, elephants teeth, all the tropical fruits, black cattle in abundance, hogs, and sheep. The Portuguese ships take in refreshments here. Sofala is situated south of Mofambique, and is in some parts a barren desert, while others are remarkably fruitful. Gold is found in great plenty here: the inhabitants assert that the mines yield annually upwards of four millions of metigals at twelve shillings each. This country is supposed to be the ancient Ophir. The capital, situated on a river, is about six leagues from the sea-coast, and in the possession of the Portuguese, who built a strong fort there in 1500. Their chief trade consists in gold, ambergris, slaves, and silk stuffs.

ETHIOPIA.

Comprehends Nubia, Abyssinia, Abohi or Abex, and Aniar. It is bounded to the north by Egypt and the

the desert of Barca; to the south, by Zanguebar and Caffraria; to the east by the Red Sea and the eastern ocean; and to the west by Guinea, Nigritia, and Zaara.

Nubia is bounded by Egypt, on the north; by Abyssinia, on the south; by the coast of Abesh, on the east; and by Zaara and Nigritia, on the west. Its dimensions have not yet been ascertained by geographers, and the same uncertainty attends its government and religion; but among them are found Christians, Jews, Mahometans, and Pagans. This country is said to abound in gold, musk, sandal-wood, and ivory; here are also elephants, horses, camels, lions, and every other animal, both wild and tame, to be met with in the neighbouring country.

A B Y S S I N I A

Has now scarce any communication with other parts of the world; Abex, which extends itself along the western coast of the Red Sea, being in the possession of the Turks, and part of it surrounded with mountains. The inland parts are said to be exceeding fertile, being diversified with woods and plains well planted with palm-trees, dates, and cedars, and watered by several noble rivers, particularly the Nile. Abyssinia abounds with gold, silver, copper, and precious stones. Its animals are horses, zebras, elephants, camels, dromedaries, oxen, sheep, mules, asses, &c. here are also prodigious numbers of large locusts, which are excellent eating; flying and other serpents also are seen here, particularly one sort, which is so much of the colour of the dust in which it harbours, and on which it subsists, that it is not easily avoided, though its sting is attended with immediate death, both to man and beast.

In their persons the Abyssinians do not at all resemble the negroes of Guinea, the south part of Africa; having, on the contrary, regular features, and some of them being very handsome. The olive complexion is esteemed the finest by them, and next to that the jet black. They possess a vast share of vivacity and natural wit, are of a teachable disposition, and fond of learning, but enjoy very few opportunities of attaining it. Persons of rank among them wear vests made of silks, stuffs, or cotton; but the poor people have only a small piece of skin or coarse stuff, wrapped about their waists. In their eating they abstain from all things prohibited to the Jews, and their drink is mead, methuggin, and a liquor made from wheat or rice.

The Abyssinians exchange their gold, emeralds, and horses with the Turks, for silks, stuffs, calicoes, linens, and carpets. The Jews are said to be the only weavers and smiths among them; and as for other handicrafts, every man breeds up his children to the trade or profession that he uses himself. Their religion seems to be a mixture of Christianity and Judaism, greatly resembling that of the Copts of Egypt, both in its manner and form.

The power of the Abyssinian monarch was formerly unlimited, but at present he can transact no affairs of consequence without the concurrence of the grandees. He passes the principal part of the year in the field, attended by great bodies of horse and foot, with whom he makes a tour through different parts of his dominions; and on every occasion assumes great state.

Abex and Anian are bounded on the north and west by Egypt and Abyssinia; on the east by the Red Sea and the Indian, Ethiopic, or Eastern Ocean; and on the south by Zanguebar; extending from the fifth degree of north latitude to the twentieth.

Anian, situated upon the eastern ocean, is a fruitful barren desert. The air is exceeding hot, and the chief part of the inhabitants consist of some Arab tribes, that live in camps, for there are very few towns. The principal place in it is Adea.

Abex, situate to the northward of Anian, is in possession of the Turks, who keep strong garrisons in Saquem and Arquico, which are the two principal parts, and about 150 miles distant from each other. This country is in general a fruitful tract, abounding in most of the necessaries of life.

The history of this continent is at once imperfect and uninteresting. Probably these countries never afforded any events worthy being recorded. Buried in ignorance from the earliest ages, and separated from other nations by extensive deserts of burning sands, the ancients knew very little of the inhabitants of these countries. Some voyages were indeed made to their coasts; but all the intelligence they have transmitted to posterity, amounts to no more than that they were ignorant, rude, inhospitable people, and destitute of every particular that constitutes humanity, except the form. They considered them as a different species of beings, or at least, that a savage life during a long series of years had so impaired their faculties, that they were incapable of improvement. They still continue in the same deplorable ignorance, so that it is in vain to expect any historical monuments in this country.

It must be shocking to every reasonable mind to reflect, that upwards of 200 years the European nations have traded with Africa in human flesh, and encouraged in the negro countries wars, rapine, desolations, and murder, that the West-India islands may be supplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa for slaves, hath exceeded 100,000, numbers of whom are driven down like sheep, perhaps 1000 miles from the sea-coast, who are generally inhabitants of villages that have been surrounded in the night by armed force, and carried off to be sold to our traders; and it appears, that from Santalpollonia to Athera, which is upwards of 250 miles, the police and punishment of all crimes are supported by the same trade.

This shameful practice is become so prevalent among the natives, that they who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders,

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support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder,
are the highest crimes, and whenever they are detected,
subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual
condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may
be deemed his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his
room. When a man commits any of the above cardi-
nal crimes, all the male part of his family are con-
demned to slavery; if a woman be guilty, the female
part is sold.

An English gentleman, who lately visited all the
chiefs of the negroes in our settlements, remarks to
the following effect: "While on the coast, I saw such
instances of cruelty relative to the slave trade, as made
my very bosom bleed. This traffick in crimes makes
the chiefs vigilant: nor do our planters, who purchase
slaves, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to
make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on
them. I am sorry to say, they are unnaturally averse
to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese,
French, and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeed in
their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advan-
tage of the commerce as of religion. It is for the sake

of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it,
that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting
to the settlements of these nations." As the truth of
these remarks is confirmed by daily observation, it is
therefore certainly high time for the legislature to enact
laws for putting an end to this most infamous of all
trades, so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so re-
pugnant to the principles of our constitution. As a
means to remedy this evil, the negroes already in our
islands should be properly treated, made free, and en-
couragement given to their population. There are suf-
ficient numbers to cultivate the sugar plantations with-
out any future supply, and which would be more pro-
fitable to the planters; as well as the kingdom in gen-
eral. But we need say nothing further on this head, as
we find that some respectable, generous-hearted per-
sons, impressed with tender feelings for the miseries of
their fellow-creatures in this respect, have taken the
matter in hand, whose laudable endeavours and remon-
strances, aided by those of others of like benevolent
sentiments, we trust will be conducive to abolish this
nefarious traffick, and thereby avert the just vengeance
of Heaven, long impending over us on that account.

CHAP. V.

THE AFRICAN ISLANDS.

TABLE OF THE AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Islands.	Towns.	Sq. M.	Trade with or belong to.
Babel-Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea.....	Babel-Mandel.....	All Nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean.....	Calaulia.....	3,600	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto.....	Joanna.....	1,000	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto.....	St. Austlin.....	168,000	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto.....	Mauritius.....	1,840	French
Bourbon, ditto.....	Bourbon.....	2,100	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean.....	St. Helena.....	English
Ascension, ditto.....	Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto.....	Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes- Island, Fernandopo.....	St. Thomas, Anaboa...	Portuguese
Cape-Verd Islands, ditto.....	St. Domingo.....	2,000	Ditto
Boree, ditto.....	Fort St. Michael.....	French
Canaries, ditto.....	Palma, St. Christopher's Santa Cruz, Funchal...	1,500	Spanish Portuguese
Madeira, ditto.....
The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America.....	Angra, St. Michael...	2,000	Ditto

THE AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Situation, Extent, Produce, Inhabitants, Mountains, Rivers, Animals, &c.

THESE islands are very numerous; some of them are situated in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and others in the Western or Atlantic. The chief of the former are Zoetra, Babel-Mandel, the Comora Islands, Madagascar, Bourbon, and Mauritius; but, besides these, a multitude of smaller islands, some of them hardly any thing more than a barren rock, are scattered in this immense ocean, particularly near the Equator, and on both sides of the Island of Madagascar, as will be perceived by consulting the map of Africa.

ZOESTRA, by some thought to be the Dioscorides of Ptolemy and Pliny, is situated in 12 deg. 10 min. north lat. and in 53 deg. 16 min. east long. about thirty leagues to the eastward of Cape Gardafu, on the most easterly point of the continent of Africa. It is eighty miles in length, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where formerly such European ships as had lost their passage to India used to take shelter. It is a populous and plentiful island, yielding most sorts of plants and fruits common between the Tropics; and also frankincense, gum-tragacanth, aloes, ambergris, dragon's-blood, and coral. The weather is exceeding hot, though there are several lofty mountains in the island, whose summits are perpetually covered with snow. The inhabitants came originally from Arabia, profess the Mahometan religion, and are governed by a sheik, who is probably tributary to the Turks.

BABEL-MANDEL is situated at the entrance of the Red-Sea, in 12 deg. 6 min. north lat. and in 44 deg. 30 min. east long. about forty-four miles from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. Its situation rendered it of the utmost consequence, while the trade to India was carried on by the Red-Sea, the entrance of which it entirely commands; hence the long wars between the Abyssinians or Ethiopians, who contended with great fury for the possession of this island; but since the discovery of a passage to the Indies by the Cape of Good-Hope, the importance of the island has greatly declined, and it is now entirely abandoned. The island is of little value, being not five miles in circumference, and a barren, sandy spot.

The **COMORA ISLANDS** are Joanna, Mayotta, Mehillia, Angezeia, and Comora; situated between 10 and 14 deg. of south lat. and between 41 and 46 deg. of east long. They lie in the strait called the Channel of Mosambique, about midway between Madagascar and the continent of Africa. The principal island is Joanna, which claims a sovereignty over, and exacts tribute from the others. It is about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are common to the torrid zone. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan persuasion,

and entertain our seamen with great humanity. India ships bound to Bombay usually put in here for refreshments.

MADAGASCAR is the largest of the African Islands and is situated between 10 and 26 deg. of south lat. and between 43 and 51 deg. of east long. It lies about 300 miles to the eastward of the coast of Africa; near 1000 miles in length from north to south, and 250 in breadth from east to west. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between the island and the Cape of Good-Hope, forming a channel or passage, through which all European ships generally pass, unless prevented by storms, in their voyage to and from India.

Few islands in the world are more pleasant, fertile, and desirable than Madagascar. It is adorned with a pleasing variety of hills, vallies, woods, and open plains watered with numerous rivers, and the air is rendered cool and healthy by the constant breezes from the sea. It abounds in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables of various kinds, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, copper, tin, and some fishes.

The island of Madagascar was discovered in 1498 by Lawrence Almeyda; but the Persians and Arabs knew it from time immemorial, under the name of Sarandib. The whole island is divided into twenty-eight provinces, which are, Anossi, Manapani, in the Valley of Amhoule, Vohitzan, Wate-Manahore, Yoodre, Etomampo, Adohimouffy, Erenguranis, Vahin, Anghombes, Manacarongha, Mantatane, Antanarivony, Ghalemboule, Tamatave, Jahave, Voulou-Voulou, Adafoutchy, Manghabe, Adeimoutchy, Mandraye, Ampatre, Carciboule, Mahafalbe, Houlouvey, Sima, Yoandrhou, and Machicores.

The natives are called Malcagaches, or Madecasses. They are portly in their persons, and rise above the middle stature. The colour of their skin is different among one tribe it is of a deep black, and among another tawny: some have a copper-coloured tint; but the colour of the greater part is olive. All those who are black have woolly hair, like the negroes on the coast of Africa: those who have a complexion similar to that of the Indians and Mulattoes, have as look like as the Europeans. Their noses are not flat; they have a broad open forehead; their lips are thin; and their features are regular and agreeable.

These people generally display in their countenances a peculiar character of frankness and good-nature. They never shew a desire of learning any matters, but those which relate to the simplest wants of mankind; and this desire is always extremely moderate: they are very indifferent respecting knowledge which cannot be obtained without reflection. A general want of curiosity and a general apathy, renders every thing that requires attention insupportable to them. Sober, light, and active, they spend the greatest part of their lives in sleeping, and in amusing themselves.

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With respect to religion, they have neither mosques
or temples, and entertain a very imperfect notion of
Mahomet. They offer sacrifices of beasts and rice on
particular occasions, and many of them observe the
with sabbath. They have also some knowledge of
the principal events recorded in Sacred History, as the
creation of the world, the fall of man, the lives of
Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David; and hence some
have conjectured that they are descended from the Jews.
Perhaps the colony that first settled here were composed
of Arabians and Jews, who by a long promiscuous in-
course, have formed a religion partaking equally of
both. The Pagan inhabitants are idolaters, and, like
those on the continent of Africa, worship stocks and
stones. No historical accounts of this country are to
be depended on till the year 1642, when a French of-
ficer obtained permission from Cardinal Richlieu for
three years, exclusive of all others, to send ships and
traders to Madagascar, and the neighbouring islands, in
order to establish a colony, plantation, and commerce.
This gentleman erected a society for this purpose, under
the name of a French East-India Company, and the
grant was drawn out, with the addition of ten years
exclusive privilege, or, in other words, extended to the
year 1661. In the interim, that is immediately subse-
quent to the making out of the grant in 1642, the first
ship was sent under the command of Captain Coquet,
who was going to load ebony at Madagascar, on the
account of himself and some private merchants; but
he and others to take with him two governors, whose
names were Pronis and Fouquebourg, and twelve
other Frenchmen; these being commanded to land and
remain there, till the arrival of a ship from France,
which was to sail in November.

Coquet got to Madagascar in September, having, in
his way, anchored at the Isle of Bourbon, which he
took possession of in the name of the King of France;
sailing afterwards at the Isle of St. Mary, he did the
same; and arriving at the Bay of Antongil, in Mad-
agascar, he acted in a similar manner. Pronis and Fou-
quebourg were at length landed in the port of St. Lucia,
in the province of Manghabei.

The expected ship from France arrived on the first
of April, in the ensuing year. It was named the St.
Lawrence, and was under the command of Capt. Giles
Belmont. This officer brought seventy men with him
to reinforce Pronis. The inhabitants, jealous that the
French would obtain too firm a footing in their coun-
try, meditated an opposition; but their intentions were
prevented, or at least delayed, by the prudent conduct
and timely presents of Pronis. Upon this success, Pro-
nis sent twelve men to penetrate into the province of
Matatan, six of whom were cut off by the natives, and
the rest compelled to retreat; and soon after Captain
Belmont's son, and six sailors, were murdered in the
province of Vohitbang. This opposition was owing to
the secret intrigues of the leading men in Anossi, who,
from their maritime situation, did not dare to offend

the French themselves, but stirred up the people of
other provinces to oppose and murder them upon all
occasions.

In 1644, Pronis thought proper to remove from St.
Lucia to the Bay of Thologare, where he began to
fortify himself; and having reduced almost the whole
province of Anossi by force of arms, he built Fort
Dauphin, the situation being excellent; the harbour
commodious and finely sheltered, and the entrance
very convenient for shipping of any burthen. Behind
the fort, he erected several other buildings, with large
enclosures, which produced various sorts of fruits,
kitchen herbs, &c.

In the year 1650 the fort took fire by some unfore-
seen accident, and was totally destroyed. Soon after,
however, it was rebuilt, and strongly garrisoned; the
French being always at variance, and frequently at war
with the natives.

In the year 1651, the celebrated French governor,
Flacourt, at the head of eighty Frenchmen, and a great
number of armed negroes, ravaged the country to a
considerable distance from the fort, carrying off great
quantities of cattle, and destroying all the houses and
huts in his way. This occasioned the natives to con-
ceive an extraordinary aversion to the French; and
what added to their dislike was, that whenever any pris-
oner fell into the hands of the French, they looked
upon them all in an equal light, and sold them indis-
criminately to the then Dutch governor of the island
of Mauritius, not making any distinction between
deceans or lords, freemen or slaves; or shewing any
greater respect to their ladies, when captives, than to
women of a lower rank. The French finding, at length,
that the idea of conquering Madagascar was chimerical,
and that the danger and expences of maintaining a co-
lony, and keeping up a fortress here, were not recom-
pensed by the profits accruing from the settlement,
thought proper at once to abandon the island, and all
projects relative to it.

MAURITIUS, or MAURICE-ISLAND, is situated in
20 deg. 15 min. south lat. and 56 deg. 8 min. east
long. It is of an oval figure, about 150 miles in cir-
cumference, and has the advantage of an excellent har-
bour, capable of holding fifty sail of the largest ships,
secure against all winds; the water is 100 fathoms
deep at the entrance. The climate is at once both
healthy and agreeable. The island is watered with
several rivers, and the finest ebony in the world grows
upon its mountains. The soil, though not remarkable
for its fertility, affords pasture sufficient for vast num-
bers of black cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. Rice, to-
bacco, and all kinds of tropical fruits are produced here
in plenty. This island was discovered by the Dutch in
1598, who gave it the name of Maurice-Island, in hon-
our of Prince Maurice their stadtholder. It continued
some time in their possession, but at present it belongs
to

to the French, who have given it the name of the Isle of France.

The ISLE of BOURBON is situated in 21 deg. 9 min. south lat. and in 54 deg. 19 min. east long. It is of an oval figure, and about ninety miles in circumference. It has no harbour, but several good roads, though these are not always sufficient to shelter ships against the furious storms which generally happen at the shifting of the monsoons. On the southern extremity of the island is a large volcano, which continually throws out prodigious quantities of flame, smoke, and a sulphureous lava, and appears dreadful in the night to mariners, as the adjacent sea is full of sunken rocks. The climate, though extremely hot, is very healthy, being constantly refreshed with cooling breezes from the sea. The hurricanes already mentioned are often dreadful; they seem to shake the very foundations of the island, while the inhabitants are smitten with terror. Brooks and streams of water are found in almost every part of the island, by which the soil is rendered extremely fertile in fruits and pasture. Tobacco flourishes here exceedingly, though not a native plant of the island. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin in great plenty. Aloes, white pepper, and all the tropical fruits abound here. The pastures feed great numbers of black cattle, goats, and hogs. The rivers are well stocked with fish, and the coast with land and sea tortoises. Ambergris, coral, and shells remarkable for their beauty, are found on the shore. The French, on their expulsion from Madagascar, in 1672, retired to this island, where they have now several considerable towns. A governor is also established here, and their East-India ships stop at this island for refreshments. There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no description of them has yet been given.

Having thus described the principal islands in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, it remains that we pass round the Cape of Good-Hope, and survey those that are scattered in the Western, or Atlantic Ocean, that immense collection of water which separates Europe and Africa from America. The islands in the Atlantic Ocean are very numerous, but the principal are St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-Island, Fernandopo, Cape-Verd islands, Gorce, the Canariés, the Madciras, and the Azores.

ST. HELENA is situated in 16 deg. 4 min. south lat. and in 6 deg. 4 min. west long. It is a very high and steep rock, situated in the midst of the ocean, about twenty miles in circumference, and accessible only at the landing-place, in a valley on the east side of the island; but even here the waves dash with such impetuosity against the shore, that it is difficult landing;

and a battery of guns almost level with the water defends it. The only anchoring-place is in the road called Chapel-Valley Bay. Though the island appears at sea as a barren rock, the inland parts are agreeably diversified with vallies and plains, adorned with fruit-trees. The English plantations there afford potatoes, yams, plantains, bananas, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; but most part of the latter is generally destroyed by rats, so that the flour made use of there is wholly imported from England; and in a scarcity, they eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Some bullocks, hogs, and plenty of poultry, are found on this island, which belongs to the English East-India Company, being given to them by Charles II. There are about 200 families upon it, who greatly resemble the English both in their persons and manners. The East-India homeward-bound ships take in water and fresh provisions here; in exchange for shirts, drawers, or any light clothes, pieces of calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c. but the island is so small, and the wind so much against the outward-bound ships, that they very seldom see it. The Company's affairs there are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the Company, besides a public table, well furnished, for the entertainment of all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers.

ASCENSION-ISLAND is situated in 17 deg. of west long. and the 7th of south lat. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena. It received its name from being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and it is a mountainous, barren, uninhabited island, about twenty miles in circumference; but the East-India ships usually touch here, to furnish themselves with turtle, which are found in great plenty, and are very large, some of them weighing above 100 pounds each.

ST. MATTHEW is a small island lying in 6 deg. 1 min. west long. and 1 deg. 30 min. south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension-Island, and was discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time, but afterwards deserted it. As this island has little in it to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of water, it now remains uninhabited.

ST. THOMAS, PRINCES-ISLAND, ANABOA, and FERNANDOPO, are all situated in the Gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin. They were first discovered by the Portuguese, and are now in possession of the Portuguese, and furnish their shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by. We are informed, there are 15,000 Negro Christians in St. Thomas's, instructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worship, clean and well clothed;

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honour of the Portuguese government, at the same time
that it reflects disgrace on our West-India legislatures,
for their neglect in this particular.

CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS owe their appellation
to a cape of that name on the African coast, near the
Gambia, opposite to which they lie, at the distance
of 800 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west long. and
14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered by
the Portuguese in 1460, and are about twenty in num-
ber, of which the following are the chief, namely,
St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Ni-
colas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St.
Antonio, and are subject to the Portuguese; the others
are barren rocks. The air in general is very hot, and
some of them very unwholesome. Europeans, or
their descendents, and negroes, inhabit these islands.

ST. JAGO is the largest, most fertile, and best inha-
bitated of them all. It is 150 miles in circumference,
but many parts of it are mountainous, and a great deal
of the land is barren. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some
Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropi-
cal fruits; but the plant of most consequence is mad-
der, which grows in abundance among the cliffs.
Gardens and garden 'uff of all kinds abound here, as well
as hogs and poultry. The monkeys in this island are
 esteemed handsomer than those of any other part of the
world. They are exceeding small, and of a green col-
our, except their faces, which are black. The Portu-
guese viceroy resides in this island.

On the east side of the island stands BAYA, or
BRAYA (famous for an action between an English and
French (quadron in a former war) it has a good port, and
is seldom without ships; those outward-bound to Gui-
nea, or the East-Indies, from England, Holland, and
France, often touch here for fresh water and pro-
visions.

MAYO, or MAY, and SAL, abound in salt, and the
English trade with the inhabitants of the former for
vast quantities of this commodity. The salt is made
by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which, at
spring-tides, is received into a sort of pan, formed by a
sand-bank, extending along the coast for two or three
miles. The salt coits nothing but a small gratuity for
taking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and
carrying it on asses to the boats; the negro governor,
however, expects a small present from every commander
that loads with salt, and delights on being invited on
board their ships. The English vessels, which annu-
ally resort hither to lade with salt, frequently amount

to 100, and there is generally a man of war to protect
them. They likewise often take in a freight of asses,
which they carry to Barbadoes, and other British plan-
tations. The sea-water is so clear on this coast, that
an English sailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it
at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it
brought up by one of the natives, who are in general
expert at diving. The inhabitants of this island, even
the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak
the Portuguese language.

Fogo is remarkable for having in it a volcano,
which continually emits sulphureous exhalations, and
the eruptions and flame, like those of Mount-Etna;
sometimes burst forth with such violence, that the ad-
jacent parts are in a manner covered with pumice-
stones.

The inhabitants of all these islands are Europeans,
or descendents of families originally from Europe, and
a great number of negroes: these latter, who inhabit
the islands of Mayo, profess the Roman Catholic re-
ligion.

THE ISLAND OF GOREE is situated within cannon-
shot of Cape-Verd, in 14 deg. 43 min. north lat. and
17 deg. 20 min. west long. It was so called by the
Dutch, from an island and town of the same name in
Holland. It is a small spot, not exceeding two miles
in compass, but being deemed a place of importance,
from its situation for trade so near Cape-Verd, it has
therefore been a bone of contention between European
nations. The Dutch first took possession of it; and
from them the English took it in 1663; but the Dutch
retook it in 1665; the French subdued it in 1677,
and in their possession it remained till 1759, when the
British arms being every where triumphant, it was re-
duced by Commodore Keppel, but restored to the
French in 1763. It was retaken by the English in the
war of 1774, but at the peace of 1783 was again re-
stored to the French, in whose possession it now remains.

THE CANARIES, formerly called The Fortunate
Islands, are situated between the 12th and 19th deg.
of west long. and between the 27th and 29th deg.
of north lat. they lie about 150 miles south-west of Mo-
rocco. They are seven in number, viz. Grand Cana-
ria (or Great Canary, which gives name to all the rest)
Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Fuerteventura, and
Lanceroata. These islands were first discovered and
planted by the Carthaginians; but when the Romans
destroyed that republic, a stop was put to navigation,
particularly on the western coast of Africa, and these
islands were again buried in obscurity for many ages.
At last, in 1405, they were once more visited by the
Spaniards. When they first landed, the natives, who
were very numerous, spoke a different language from
any of the nations on the continent. They were robust,
active,

active, and well skilled in the management of bows, arrows, and darts. They were also idolaters, worshipping the sun and stars. When they became acquainted with the Spanish language, they could give no account of their ancestors, or from what country they came. In their stature and complexion, they resembled the natives of the north of Africa, but they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, nor did they know there was any country in the world besides their own. Having struggled for the preservation of their liberties till 1460, they were then forced to yield to the superior force of their invaders, who transported a great number of them into Spain, where they ended their days in slavery. Those who were suffered to remain on the island, endeavoured to secure their ancient estates by submitting entirely to the Spanish yoke, and are now remarkable for their probity and civility to strangers.

These islands enjoy a pure and temperate air, and the soil is so fruitful, that it frequently yields two crops in a year. They abound in the most delicious fruits, among which are grapes from whence that rich wine is made, known to us by the name of Canary, and of which it is said, that in time of peace 10,000 hogheads are annually exported to England. Cattle, &c. are very numerous here; and among the birds, are those little beautiful creatures that bear the country's name, and are now so common, and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those sung by them when confined in a cage in a foreign country.

TENERIFFE is about fifty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. The country is fertile, though much incumbered with mountains, particularly that called the Peak, which, according to the accounts of some navigators, may be seen in clear weather at the distance of 120 miles. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and, according to the account published in the Philosophical Transactions, near three miles perpendicular.

Its appearance at sun-set is very striking; when the sun was below the horizon, and the rest of the island appeared of a deep black, the mountain still reflected its rays, and glowed with a warmth of colour which no painting can express. There is no eruption of visible fire from it, but a heat-illness from the chinks near the top, too strong to be borne by the hand when it is held near them.

The air and climate are said to be remarkably healthful, and particularly adapted to afford relief in phtisical complaints. By residing at different heights in the island, such a temperature may be procured as is best suited to the constitution. Persons may continue where the air is mild and salubrious, as they may ascend till the cold becomes intolerable; but no person, it is said,

can live comfortably within a mile of the perpendicular height of the Peak after the month of August.

The road of Santa Cruz (says Captain Cook, who touched at this famous island in his last voyage) is situated on the south-east side of the island, before the town of the same name. It is said to be the principal road of Teneriffe for shelter, capacity, and the goodness of its bottom. The water to supply the ships, and for the use of the inhabitants of Santa Cruz, is derived from a rivulet that runs from the hills, which is conveyed into the town in wooden troughs, which troughs were repairing at the time Captain Cook visited the island, fresh water was extremely scarce.

It might naturally be concluded, from the appearance of the country about Santa Cruz, that Teneriffe is a barren spot; Captain Cook was convinced, however, from the ample supplies his people received, that it not only produced sufficient to supply its own inhabitants, but also enough to spare for visitors. The wine is the chief produce of the island, beef may be had at about three-pence sterling a pound. The cows, however, are small, lean, and boney. Sheep, goats, hogs, and poultry, may be had on terms equally reasonable. A great variety of fruits are to be had in plenty; as pears, figs, grapes, mulberries, mulberries, &c. besides others that were not then in season. The pumpkins, potatoes, and onions, which grow here, are excellent.

On this island, Indian corn is produced and sold for about three shillings and six-pence per bushel. The fruits and vegetables are, in general, very cheap. Though the inhabitants are but indifferently supplied with fish by the adjoining seas, they are engaged in a considerable fishery on the coast of Barbary, and the produce of it sells at a very moderate price.

Voyagers assure us, that Teneriffe is a more eligible place than Madeira for ships to touch at which are bound on long voyages: but the wine of the latter is infinitely superior to that of the former. The difference of their prices is almost as considerable as their qualities; for the best Teneriffe wine was sold for 2s. a pipe, whereas a pipe of the best Madeira was worth considerably more than double that sum.

The country rises behind the town of Santa Cruz gradually to a moderate height; afterwards it continues to rise south-westward towards the celebrated Peak of Teneriffe. But our voyagers were much disappointed in their expectations with respect to its appearance, and particularly as to its height.

Eastward of Santa Cruz, the island appears perfectly barren. Ridges of high hills run towards the sea, between which are deep vallies, terminating at mountains that run across, and are higher than the former. Mr. Anderson went on shore to one of these vallies, intending to reach the top of the remoter hills; but time would not permit him to get further than their base. The lower hills produce great quantities of the *Euphorbia Canariensis*. The people on the spot imagine

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juice to be so caustic as to corrode the skin; but Mr. Anderson convinced them to the contrary, by thrusting a finger into a plant full of it. The inhabitants dry their bushes of euphorbia, and carry them home for fuel. The city of Santa Cruz, though not large, is well built. The churches have not a magnificent appearance without, but they are decent and tolerably handsome within. Almost facing the stone pier, which runs into the sea from the town, is a marble column, lately erected, and decorated with human figures which reflect honour to the island.

The city of Laguna is situated about the distance of five miles from Santa Cruz. Mr. Anderson and three others took a view of it; but the sight of it did not redress their fears for their trouble, as the roads were very bad, and their cattle but indifferent. Though the soil is extensive, it hardly deserves to be dignified with the name of a city. There are some good houses, but the disposition of the streets is very irregular. Laguna is larger than Santa Cruz, but much inferior to it in appearance.

From Santa Cruz to Laguna, the road runs up a steep, barren hill; but lower down they saw some fig-trees and corn-fields. The corn, however, is not produced here without great labour, the ground being generally encumbered with stones. Nothing else presented itself deserving notice, except a few aloë plants growing on the side of the road.

In this island the laborious work is chiefly performed by oxen, mules, and horses being scarce, and reserved for the use of the officers. Oxen are also much employed here. Some hawks and parrots were seen, which were natives of the island; as also the sea-swallow, sea-gulls, partridges, swallows, canary-birds, and blackbirds. There are also lizards, locusts, and three or four sorts of dragon-flies.

A gentleman of acknowledged veracity informed Mr. Anderson, that a shrub is common here, agreeing exactly with the description given by Linnaeus of the shrub, as growing in China and Japan. It is considered as a weed, and large quantities of it are cut out of the vineyards every year. The Spaniards, however, who inhabit the island, sometimes make use of it, and ascribe to it all the qualities of the tea imported from China. The same gentleman mentioned to Mr. Anderson another botanical curiosity, which is called the *impregnated lemon*. It is a distinct and perfect lemon enclosed within another. There is also a certain tree growing here, which is deemed an excellent remedy in phibical complaints.

From near the top of the Peak smoke continually issues; but they have had no earthquake or eruption since 1704, when the port of Garraclieca was destroyed, being filled up with the burning lava that flowed into it; and houses are now built where ships formerly lay at anchor.

A very considerable trade is carried on at Teneriffe, 1000 pipes of wine being annually made there, which

is consumed in the island, or made into brandy, and sent to the Spanish West-Indies. Indeed, the wine is the only considerable article of the foreign commerce of Teneriffe, unless we reckon the large quantities of filtering-stones brought from Grand Canaria.

The inhabitants found here when the Spaniards discovered the Canaries, are no longer a distinct race of people, having intermarried with Spanish settlers: their descendants, however, may be known from their being remarkably tall, strong, and large-boned. The men are tawny, and the women are pale. The inhabitants of Teneriffe, in general, are decent, grave, and civil, retaining that solemn cast which distinguishes those of their country from others. The ancient inhabitants of this island were called Guanches. The origin of them is not certainly known, but their sepulchral caves are very remarkable. They had an uncommon veneration for the corpses of their ancestors, which were deposited in caves formed by nature in the rocks. They were preserved in goat-skins, bound round by belts of the same, so exactly and uniformly enclosing the body, as to excite admiration, each round being just proportioned to the part; and this method preserved the bodies. The eyes, which are closed, the hair, ear, nose, teeth, lips, and beard, are found entire. They are placed on wooden couches, which the natives had the art of rendering so hard, that they are impenetrable to iron. Some of the caves contained a or 300 bodies.

GRAND CANARIA, or GREAT CANARY, is about 150 miles in circumference. The capital, called Palma, is situated on the west side of the island; and has a castle, but its best defence is a vast number of sunken rocks, which render the approach to the shore very dangerous. It is an episcopal see; the inquisition, the supreme council, or assembly of the states of the seven islands, and several convents of monks, friars, and nuns, are established here.

PALMA is situated about fifty miles to the west of Teneriffe, and 200 west of the continent of Africa. It lies in 29 deg. north lat. and 18 deg. west long. It is about thirty miles long, twenty broad, and seventy in circumference. This island, besides sugar and wines, produces gun-dragon and pitch; pine-apples are also plentiful here. Poultry and animals are much the same here as in Canaria; except, indeed, among the animals, it particularly abounds with rabbits. It is subject to earthquakes; and in 1750, a large body of fire issued from a volcano in one of the mountains, and took its course with great rapidity to the town of Palma, from whence it spread to the sea, and there discharged itself.

On the north-east part is a lofty and spacious mountain called the Cauldron, from having a hollow in it. The descent within the cauldron, which proceeds gradually

dually from the summit, contains a space of about 30 acres, and on the declivity of the inside are several springs that form a stream which issues out from the extremity of the mountain. Near the sea shore, on the south side of the island is a medicinal well of hot water, and at a village called Uguar, is a cave, at the extremity of which is a curious grotto with the roof stuck with large flakes of slate stones, from between which constantly issues a flow of clear and wholesome water.

In the winter the air is so exceeding sharp up the mountain, that the inhabitants are obliged to keep fires burning night and day; whereas near the sea-side they only have them for cooking and other occasional purposes. In the months of July, August, and September, the heat near the sea shore is intolerable, while in the mountainous parts the air is pleasant and refreshing.

Their best vines grow in a soil called the Brenia, where it is said they make at least 12,000 casks of wine every year. The wines differ in their quality from those made in the other islands; but they are very rich, and have an excellent flavour. They have likewise great plenty of honey, and most kinds of fruit, the latter of which grow in such abundance, that they export great quantities of them to the other islands.

Palma, the principal town in this island, so called after its name, is tolerably large, and well inhabited. The houses are low, but spacious; and in one part of the town is a very handsome church. A considerable trade is carried on here in wines, which are exported to various parts, but particularly to the West-Indies.

There is another very neat town in this island, called St. Andrew's, where there are four engines for making sugar; but the land hereabouts is very poor, so that the inhabitants are supplied with grain, and other necessary articles, from the island of Teneriffe.

The chief port is called Palma; and is situated on the south side of the island. The road is about a quarter of a mile from the shore; and though it is open to the easterly winds, the ships ride with great safety.

The island of **HIERO**, having neither spring, fountain, nor well, is said to have been formerly supplied with water by means of a particular species of trees, which yielded a large quantity in the night, when their tops were always enveloped in a cloud; but now the inhabitants save the rain-water in cisterns, and, when that fails, filtrate brackish water through sand.

GOMERA is situated to the west of Teneriffe, in 28 deg. north lat. and 18 deg. west long. from London. It is about 30 miles long, 20 broad, and 60 in compass. This is a very plentiful island, being watered by many rivulets that flow from the mountainous parts, and give fertility to the vallies beneath: besides this, water may be had in any part of the island, by digging to the depth of about six feet. The inhabitants have

great plenty of all the necessaries of life, particularly cattle, poultry, wine, roots, fruit, honey, and eggs. There is but one small town, near the sea-shore, called after the name of the island.

FUERTEVENTURA is about 24 leagues distant from Grand Canaria. It is about 65 miles in length, and a very unequal breadth, consisting of two peninsulas joined by an isthmus of 12 miles over. On the north side there is a haven called Chabras, and another which is very commodious, towards the west. Wheat, barley, kine, goats, and orchel, are found in this island, which belongs to the lord of Lancerota.

The island of **LANCEROTA**, or Langarote, lies in 28 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 13 deg. 5 min. west long. It is situated about 18 leagues south-east from Grand Canaria, and is nearly 32 miles long, and 10 broad. The whole island is parted in the middle by a ridge of rocks, on which feed goats, sheep, camels, genets, and asses.

The vallies are dry and sandy, resembling the fields in England; but they yield tolerable good barley and wheat: the first harvest being about April, and the second in September. The principal commodities are goats flesh and orchel, and the whole is an estate of the king, belonging to the family of Herrera, the head of that family being always lord of Fuerteventura and Lancerota. The people, however, in both islands have the liberty of appeal to the king's judges in Grand Canaria. Boats go from hence weekly to Grand Canaria, Teneriffe, and Palma, laden chiefly with dried goats flesh, which is used in the manner of bacon, and is not bad eating.

This island was attacked in 1596, and taken by the English under the command of Leonidas, Earl of Cumberland, who, after ransacking it, departed from the island.

Lancerota is very high, and may be seen at a great distance, its appearance being black and barren. The principal port, which lies on the south-east side of the island, is called Porte de Naos, and the harbour is tolerably secure for small vessels; indeed, it is deemed the best belonging to the Canary Islands, and is much frequented for its conveniency in repairing and cleaning ships. This port is without any town, or indeed houses, except store-houses, magazines, and barracks for soldiers. The castle at the west end of the harbour is of no consequence, as a ship of force might easily batter it down. A channel divides Lancerota from the little island called Graciosa, which is uninhabited; and this channel is named the harbour of El Rio. Near this harbour is a salt-work in Lancerota, which turns to a tolerable account.

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at 100 indifferent houses.

The inhabitants of this island chiefly use rain water,
which is caught in pits and cisterns adapted for that
purpose, as they have but few wells or springs. The
breed of horses has dwindled and degenerated in this
island, as well as in Fuerteventura. Asses are preferred
as they are there, and for the same reasons. The
oxen, indeed, in both these islands, are used not only
for carrying burthens and riding, but for ploughing up
the land; so that they are deemed of general utility.

The want of food here occasions a want of birds;
the deficiency of water, a deficiency of ducks,
geese, &c. The different appearance of the cattle, at
different seasons of the year, is very singular; for
during the verdure of the spring they are plump, fat,
and sleek; but in autumn, when the grass and herbage
withered by the heat of the sun, they resemble
wild geese, have scarce spirits to work, and their flesh is
not so eat.

A venomous creature infests either Lancerota or
Fuerteventura, except the black spider. This, how-
ever, is sufficient to terrify the people, as its sting is
extremely painful, and very dangerous.

The seas which intersect and surround these islands
afford the inhabitants plenty of fish, particularly cod,
which is finer than what is caught on the banks of New-
foundland; and a very singular fish, called the picudo,
which is the bite of which is as venomous as that
of a viper; yet, when dressed, it is pleasant and
wholesome food.

The MADEIRAS, which consist of three islands,
situated between the 17th and 18th deg. of west
longitude, and between the 32d and 33d of north lat. they
are about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many
miles west of Sallee in Morocco.

Mattera, the principal island of the three, which
is given name to the others, is about 75 miles in
length, 60 in breadth, and 180 in circumference.
Although there is some reason to suppose that this island
was not unknown to the ancients, yet it lay concealed
from many generations, till the Portuguese discovered it
in 1519, took possession of it, and are, even at this
time, almost the only people who inhabit it. Accord-
ing to some authors, John Machin, an Englishman,
discovered this island in 1344; but, allowing this to
be true, it is certain that the English never made any
settlement. At their first landing, the Portuguese,
finding the country little better than a thick forest, gave
the name of Madeira, or Mattera, and, in order to
render the land capable of cultivation, set fire to the
woods. It is now very fertile, yielding corn, sugar,
honey, wax, and the most delicious fruits; particularly
oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and grapes. It is said
that this was the first place in the west, where the sugar
manufacture was set on foot, and indeed the produce

exceeds that of every other country, being extremely
beautiful, and possessing a natural scent of violets: but
the Portuguese, finding that the profit on this article
began to decline, have destroyed the chief part of their
sugar canes, and planted vineyards, which produce fev-
eral sorts of excellent wines, particularly Madeira,
malmsy, and tent, of all which the inhabitants make
and sell prodigious quantities. It is said that no less
than 10,000 hogheads are annually exported, the chief
part of which go to the West-Indies, particularly Bar-
badoes, where the heat of the climate adds greatly to
its perfection: it is afterwards sent to England. Bes-
ides numerous groves of cedar trees, with which the
whole island is adorned, it produces those which yield
dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. It abounds
also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all
sorts of fowls. The inhabitants excel even those of
Genoa in making sweetmeats, marmalades, and per-
fumed pastes, and likewise in preserving citrons,
oranges, &c.

The people here trade among themselves by barter.
The ordinary food of the poorer people, in the time of
vintage, is little else than bread and rich grapes. Were
it not for this abstemiousness, the danger of fevers in
the hot seasons would be rarely avoided; therefore,
even the rich in the hot months are very spare in their
diet, and drink but moderately.

The people in general affect great gravity in their
deportment, and usually go clad in black; but they
cannot part from the spado and dagger, which even
servants wear; so that you may see a footman waiting
at table with a sword by his side, at least a yard long,
and a great basket hilt to it.

The houses in general are plain, as the inhabitants
put themselves to no great expence either in erecting
or furnishing them. The windows are latticed instead
of being glazed, and are secured by wooden shutters at
night.

In marriages, affection is never once thought of here;
the principal inquiries are into family, descent, and cir-
cumstances. The women are prohibited from marry-
ing Englishmen, unless they consent to change their
religion, and turn Roman Catholics.

Murder is very frequent here; on account of the great
number of places deemed sanctuaries, and the ease with
which a murderer can thereby screen himself from jus-
tice. But if the criminal person is taken before he can
fly to sanctuary, the punishment is only either banish-
ment or confinement, both which may be evaded by a
pecuniary composition.

The clergy here are exceeding numerous, and gene-
rally rich; but none who are descended from Moors or
Jews are admitted to take orders. The churches are
made repositories for the dead. The corpse is curiously
dressed and adorned; yet, in the interment, store of
lime is used, in order to consume the body with all ima-
ginable dispatch, which usually happens in a fortnight;
so that there is then room for another corpse. The
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bodies of Protestants are not allowed to be buried, but must be thrown into the sea, unless a large sum of money is paid to the clergy, in which case they are permitted to be interred in consecrated ground.

The most considerable town in the whole island is situated at the bottom of a large bay, on the south part of it, and called Fonchial. It is defended towards the sea by a high wall and a battery of cannon, which, together with the large stones that cover the beach, and the violent surf that continually beats against it, renders the place very secure against the attacks of an enemy.

Of the other two islands, that called Porto Santo, which is only eight miles in circumference, lies at a small distance from Madeira, and is under the jurisdiction of the same bishop and governor. It is exceeding fertile, and abounds in excellent honey and wax. The other is scarce worthy notice, being not only of very small extent, but likewise entirely barren; for which reason the Portuguese have given it the expressive appellation of the Desolate Isle.

The AZORES, likewise called the Western Islands, are situated between the 25th and 32d deg. of west long. and between the 37th and 40th of north lat. lying almost in the mid-way between Europe, Africa, and America. They are nine in number, viz. Santa Maria, St. Miguel, Terceira, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the 15th century by Joshua Vanderberg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was by stress of weather driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish Islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them, to whom they now belong, and were by them called Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons which they found there.

The most considerable of these islands is St. Miguel, or St. Michael, being 100 miles in circumference. It is very fertile and populous, producing plenty of corn and wine, and containing upwards of 50,000 inhabitants, exclusive of ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns. Its

two principal towns and harbours are Ponta Delgada and Villa Franca. This island was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

All these islands have one or more harbours; but the best among them is in Terceira, which is very spacious, and guarded by two forts, that at the same time defend Angra, the capital. This city is the residence of the governor of the Azores, and the bishop. It also contains eight convents, several courts and offices, and five churches, besides the cathedral, and is a populous well built town.

Pico, which is nearly as large as St. Miguel, carries on a great trade in its excellent wines, and abounds with cedar, and a tough red wood, much valued, called Teixos.

The rest of the islands are equally fertile, and it may be observed of the Azores in general, that they enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air, but are subject to violent earthquakes, by which they have frequently suffered, and likewise by inundations. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on them, and even if they are carried there, will expire in a few hours.

Before we take leave of Africa, it may be necessary to remark, what we have hinted before, that notwithstanding the amazing discoveries of Columbus, anno 1492, there still remain some countries, either absolutely unknown, or very superficially surveyed. It is however, certain, that the rivers in this quarter of the globe bring down large quantities of gold, and that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country blessed with a variety of climates, some of them the finest in the world. But it must at the same time be acknowledged, that the moderns are acquainted only with the sea-coasts of Africa, and those very imperfectly; the internal parts being little known to us: nor have we any satisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, productions, or trade, which may in a great measure be ascribed to the rude and barbarous state wherein the natives have continued for a succession of ages, which together with the great danger that must attend penetrating into a country over-run with the most ferocious animals, render a complete survey of it absolutely impracticable.



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A NEW,
COMPLETE, AND AUTHENTIC
SYSTEM
OF
UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK IV.
AMERICA.

CHAP. I.

General Description of this Quarter of the World.

IN this third division of the terraqueous globe, several important objects present themselves to our consideration, namely, a description of the New World, comprehending the continent of America, the West-Indies, and various islands and places in the northern hemisphere.

Few discoveries have produced greater consequences than that of America, which, being separated from that of Europe, and the vast and boisterous oceans from the rest of the world, continued several thousand years unknown. Venice and Genoa had long possessed the valuable commerce of the East, then carried on by the Red Sea; and the consequence of that lucrative traffick, were become the greatest maritime powers of Europe; but though, by frequent voyages, several improvements had been produced in the practical part of navigation, and mathematical learning began to be esteemed in Europe; yet the knowledge of mankind was even then very imperfect, and hardly extended beyond their sensible horizon. However, from the subsequent relations, it will appear, that even the ages of ignorance are not destitute of men, whose geniuses, soaring far above the contracted sphere of their contemporaries, make discoveries in science thought impossible, and form designs which at once excite the envy and astonishment of

mankind. As this fertile and extensive country owes less to the hand of art, and more to that of nature than any other quarter of the globe; we shall therefore, previous to a geographical account of it, give our readers a circumstantial detail of its first discovery.

The 15th century seems to have been an æra allotted by Providence for changing the dispositions of mankind, and enriching the world with the most important discoveries; such as, the invention of printing, the making of gunpowder, the improvement of navigation, the revival of ancient learning, and the reformation of religion—events which will render that period famous to the latest posterity. It was towards the close of it, when Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, possessed of great knowledge, penetration, and skill in the mathematics, conceived the stupendous project of sailing westward to the Indies, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. This noble proposal being rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, Columbus, stung with indignation and disgust, retired from his country, and applied to the court of France; but the French, with their usual levity and self-sufficiency, laughed at and ridiculed both the projector and his design. A similar application was made to Henry VII. of England; but the cautious politics of that prince prevented his embarking in a great but uncertain undertaking. He met with no better encouragement from the Portuguese, who, contenting themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and dis-

covering

covering one cape after another, had no thoughts of venturing boldly into the open sea, and of risking the whole at once. Columbus, however, whose spirit was too great to be broken by these repeated disappointments, at length applied to the court of Spain, where, after eight years attendance, he met with success, chiefly through the superior penetration and interest of Queen Isabella, who patronized the plan, and raised money upon her jewels to defray the expence of the expedition.

In the year 1492, Columbus set sail with three ships only, 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 encounter with; the most affecting was, the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to indicate that the laws of nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him; and his sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return, but by his own firmness and perseverance, after a voyage of thirty-three days, he landed on one of the Bahama islands.

On Thursday, the 11th of October 1492, about ten at night, the admiral first discovered a light upon the island of Guanahani, or St. Salvador, as the admiral named it, in consideration that the light of it delivered both him and his men from perishing. About two in the morning, the ship called the Pinta, the best sailer of the three, and which, therefore, usually kept ahead of the admiral, gave the signal for land, which was seen with the naked eye, when they were scarce two leagues from the shore, by Roderick de Triana, one of the common seamen on board the Pinta, who had not, however, a reward that was promised to the first discoverer, it being adjudged that the admiral was the first, because he saw a light on the island the night before. The crew of the Pinta instantly sang the Te Deum, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God, and were joined by those of the other ships, with tears of joy, and transports of congratulation. This office of gratitude to heaven was followed by an act of justice to their commander: they threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, with feelings of self-condemnation mingled with reverence, and implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and insolence.

The day appearing, the ships came to an anchor very near the island, which they computed to be about fifteen leagues in length, and found it to be populous, well planted, and watered with a great lake, but generally flat, low land, without hills: the natives came down crowding to the shore, and seemed astonished at the sight of the ships; and the admiral believing there was no great danger to be apprehended from them, went on shore, richly dressed, in his boat, with the royal standard, and a naked sword in his hand; as did the other two captains in their boats with warlike

music and colours flying. They no sooner came ashore, but they kneeled down, gave God thanks for their success, and kissed the ground with tears of joy, after which the admiral stood up, and having raised the royal standard, called the island by the name of St. Salvador, taking possession of it in the name of the Catholic majesties, with great solemnity; after which his people recognized him their admiral and viceroy, and swore to obey him during the voyage.

The Indians, in the mean time, stood gazing at the Spaniards, without attempting to oppose them, when they were thus taking possession of their country; and the admiral ordered some strings of glass-beads, and toys of small value, that made a glittering show, to be distributed amongst the natives; at which they seemed infinitely pleased, and immediately hung the beads about their necks, testifying, by all the signs imaginable, the value they set upon these presents. They were all perfectly naked, of a middle stature, and olive complexion, their features just, only their heads of the largest; their eyes black as well as their hair, which was generally cut short about their ears, though others wore it long, and tied up; some of them also had their bodies painted with a kind of vermilion, and others only painted their faces with it. The principal ornament about them was a thin gold plate, in the form of a crescent, which hung from the nose over the upper-lip, and on their arms were spears, pointed with the bones of fish. When the admiral returned to his ships, they followed him; some swimming, and others in their canoes, a vessel made out of the body of a turtle, some of which would hold forty men, and others more than two. When they came on board, they brought parrots and cotton-yarn, and all the merchandise they had to exchange for European trifles. They seemed to set a value upon every piece of broken glass or earthen-ware, jumping into the sea, and swimming to shore with such trifles, with abundance of joy. They admired nothing more than the swords, and bright arms of the Spaniards, being at that time perfectly ignorant of the use of iron.

The admiral demanding, as well as he could be signified, from whence they had their gold-plates, he pointed to the south and south-west, where they perceived the Spaniards to understand, there were several rich countries well furnished with that precious metal. The admiral rowed in his boats round the island, to discover if there was any thing worth settling there, being followed by the islanders every where, who seemed to love him and his people, as if they were come from heaven. From this island he failed to another of the Bahama islands, which he called St. Mary of Conception, and having viewed this, and several more of these islands, and found nothing to invite him to stay here, he took seven of the natives with him, and set sail for the Island of Cuba, which lies to the southward of the Bahama islands, arriving there on Sunday, the 28th of October: here they found some houses on the shore,

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the people all fled up into the mountains on their
broach; whereupon two Spaniards and two Indians
ere sent up into the country to get intelligence; who,
urning again the 5th of November, reported they
elled about twelve leagues within the land, that
y came to a town consisting of fifty large timber-
uses, thatched, which contained about 1000 people;
o came with great respect, and kissed the two Spa-
rds feet, giving them boiled roots to eat. They
reated them also to remain in their country; and,
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en they saw them resolved to return to their ships,
ould accompany their guests thither; for the two In-
s had informed the natives there was no danger to
eared from the Spaniards. There were several other
ns the Spaniards reported they had seen in their
ney, where they were hospitably entertained, and
the country was well planted with oaks, pines,
ns, and cotton-shrubs, and sown with Indian corn.
it being demanded of the natives, if they had any
or precious stones, they pointed towards the east,
imating, that in a great country, called Bohio, and
ch the Spaniards afterwards named Hispaniola,
ere was plenty of these things. Whereupon the cap-
tained determined to sail eastward, and taking twelve of
natives of Cuba, men, women, and children, with
the husband of one of the women, and father of
of the children, who had been carried on board,
e in a canoe to the ship, and desired he might also
with them, and not be parted from his wife and
children; whereupon the captain ordered him to be
on board; and setting sail from Cuba the 5th of
ember, arrived the next day at the island of Bohio,
ur sixteen leagues to the eastward of Cuba; and
observing the country to resemble that of Spain in
particulars, he gave it the name of Hispaniola;
ed its principal port Nativity, built a fort, placed a
sion in it of thirty-three men, and then returned to
to give an account of his expedition.

The Spaniards court was then at Barcelona; he en-
d that city in triumph, and was received by the
with the utmost demonstrations of joy; and by
people with the loudest acclamations. He had the
our of publicly presenting the plan and of giving
account of his discoveries, to the king and queen of
in person. The Spaniards now were as eager
romote his designs, as they had before been dilatory.
et sail a second time, with a fleet of seventeen ve-
sels containing 1500 men. In this second voyage,
discovered Jamaica, and other islands; but the ad-
miration which first attended his actions, being changed
enry, his enemies prejudiced the court against him,
he was obliged to return to Europe to justify his
conduct.

After having cleared himself from the aspersions of
foes, he proceeded on his third, and most impor-
tant voyage; the success of which is thus described by
elegant pen of the learned Dr. Robertson. " On
1st of August 1498, the man stationed in the round

top surprised them with the joyful cry of land. They
stood towards it, and discovered a considerable island,
which the admiral called Trinidad, a name it still re-
tains. It lies on the north coast of Guiana, near the
mouth of the Orinoco. This river, though only of the
third or fourth magnitude in the New World, far sur-
passes any of the streams in our hemisphere. It rolls
towards the ocean such a vast body of water, and rushes
into it with such impetuous force, that when it meets
the tide, which on that coast rises to an uncommon
height, their collision occasions a swell and agitation of
the waves, no less surprising than formidable. In this
conflict, the irresistible torrent of the river so far pre-
vails, that it freshens the ocean many leagues with its
flood. Columbus, before he could perceive the dan-
ger, was entangled among those adverse currents, and
tempestuous waves; and it was with the utmost diffi-
culty that he escaped through a narrow streight; which
appeared so tremendous, that he called it La Boca del
Drago. As soon as the consternation which this occa-
sioned permitted him to reflect upon the nature of an-
appearance so extraordinary, he discerned in it a source
of comfort and hope; he justly concluded, that such
a vast body of water, as this river contained, could not
be supplied by any island, but must flow through a
country of immense extent, and of consequence, that
he was now arrived at that continent which it had
long been the object of his wishes to discover. Nor
was he mistaken; for it amply answered his expecta-
tions." Many reasons obliged him to return to Hispani-
niola, in his way to which he discovered the islands of
Cubagua and Margarita, which afterwards became re-
markable for their pearl fishery.

This great man, however, was obliged to submit to
innumerable mortifications; for such were the clam-
ours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court
of Spain, that after all his services in making one half
of the world known to the other, he was treated like a
traitor, and carried to Europe in irons. When he ar-
rived in Spain, the court began to be ashamed of their
ungenerous treatment of this great man, and orders
were instantly issued to set him at liberty. He
vindicated his conduct, in the presence of the
king and queen, in the most satisfactory manner,
and gave ample evidence of the malevolence of
his enemies. Ferdinand and Isabella expressed their
sorrow for what had happened, disavowed their know-
ledge of it, and joined in promising him protection
and future favour. This great man, however, retained
a deep sense of the indignity with which he had
been treated; the fetters that he had been loaded
with were constantly hung up in his chamber, and
he gave orders that when he died they should
be buried in his grave. But, notwithstanding this
ill treatment, which he had received, he under-
took another voyage, in order to make further
discoveries; in the course of which he underwent
great fatigues; and, returning to Spain, ended his life

at Valladolid, on the 20th of May 1506, in the 59th year of his age; dying, it is said, with abundance of resignation, under a sense, no doubt, that the most important services, attended by the most surprising successes, were thrown away upon an ungrateful nation: he saw they could not procure him a continuance of the fame he had so justly acquired, or a moment's repose in his old age; and that there was no rest, or real felicity to be found on this side the grave. After his death indeed, his Catholic majesty was so just to this great man; as to bury him magnificently in the cathedral of Seville, and to erect a tomb to his memory, with an inscription, importing,

A new-found world, Columbus brave
To Castile and to Leon gave.

Columbus had the glory of rendering one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious; as it was unfilled by cruelty or rapine, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him, and completed his plan. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase, by the blood of the natives, those advantages which Columbus had obtained by his wise conduct and moderation. The above-mentioned islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew their situation; and the insatiable avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them on to acts of the most shocking violence and barbarity against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained 3,000,000 of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de la Casas, a witness of those atrocious 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 in the thick of the forests, devoured by dogs, killed by gun-shot, or surprised and burnt in their habitations. The same want of regard either to justice or mercy marked the future proceedings of the Spaniards; impelled by a thirst for gold, Cortez and Pizarro made entire conquests of the rich kingdoms of Mexico and Peru, and, after numberless acts of the basest treachery and tyranny, reduced the surviving parties to the most abject bondage and subjection. These conquests were no less extraordinary for the trivial means by which they were accomplished, than for the shortness of time in which they were completed; for, from the departure of Columbus, in 1492, to the entire reduction of Chili; which happened in 1541, seven large kingdoms, inhabited by a vast number of warlike nations, were reduced under the Spanish yoke.

A General Description of the MANNERS, CUSTOMS, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, CHARACTER, &c. of the NATIVES of AMERICA.

WE now proceed to the study of those particulars respecting different nations, which has always been considered as one of the most important branches of human learning. Perhaps in America only, it is possible to acquire a thorough knowledge of mankind, unbiassed by prejudice, and untainted by corruption. Though divided into an infinite number of nations and tribes, they differ very little from each other in their manners and customs, and all form a striking portrait of the most distant nations. Whenever we examine with attention the manners of the Americans, we find, in some measure, the antiquities of all nations, and from which considerable light may be thrown upon many passages in ancient writers, both sacred and profane.

The Americans are tall, and have straight limbs: their bodies are strong, but of a species of strength rather adapted to support a series of hardship, than to perform laborious work: it is the strength of a beast of prey, rather than that of a beast of burden. Their bodies and heads are flatish, the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, and strong, as that of a horse. They have no beards. The colour of their skin is of a reddish brown, which, being admired among them, is preserved by the constant use of bears fat and paint.

The character of the Indians is founded upon the circumstances and way of life; on any serious occasion they are grave even to sadness; observant of those in company; respectful to the aged; of a temper cool and deliberate, they never speak before they have considered the matter, and are sure the person who spoke before them has entirely finished. Hence they have the greatest contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who continually interrupt each other, and frequently speak all together. Nothing is more surprising than their behaviour in their assemblies and public councils. Every man there is heard in his turn according as his years, his wisdom, or his services to his country have ranked him. No indecent condensation or ill-timed applause is ever heard. The young attend for instruction. Here they learn the history of their nation; here they are inflamed with the fame of those who celebrate the heroic actions of their ancestors; and here they are taught the interests of the country, and the manner in which they ought to be pursued. The laws of hospitality are sacred among them. Their generosity to their friends is unbounded; but to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise he has an opportunity of executing a horrible revenge. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity.

of the MANNERS, CUSTOMS, RELIGION, CHARACTERS, & CIVILIZATION OF AMERICA.

The study of those particular manners which has always been considered the most important branches of human knowledge, and which, in a country where it is possible to attain to a state of civilization, and untainted by the influence of an infinite number of different customs, and all forms of distant nations. Whoever wishes to know the manners of the Americans, and the antiquities of all nations, will find a valuable light may be thrown upon them by the ancient writers, both sacred and

and have straight limbs: they are a species of strength rather than of hardship, than to perform the strength of a beast of prey, or the effect of art; their features are tenacious fierce; their hair is that of a horse. The colour of their skin is of a red, and admired among them, it is of a bears fat and pain.

The Indians is founded upon their sense; on any serious occasions, they are observant of their dress; of a temper cool, and speak before they have well considered. I am sure the person who is rarely finished. Hence they are not for the vivacity of the conversation interrupt each other, and are silent. Nothing is more common in their assemblies, and there is heard in his manner wisdom, or his services are never heard. The young men, when they learn the history of their nation, are inflamed with the story of the heroic actions of their ancestors, and the interests of their country, in which they ought to be distinguished. Their hospitality is sacred among them, and their friends is unbounded. A stranger, or to those who are American is implacable. The appearance reconciled, and if he has an opportunity to engage. To such extremes of friendship or their enmity

of such indeed, in general, is the character of all un-
cultivated minds.

The prevailing passion of the Americans is liberty in its fullest extent. To this they sacrifice every thing; and their education is directed principally to cultivate and cherish this disposition. They know no punishment but death; and even when this is inflicted, it is rather a consequence of a species of war declared against a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed on a citizen or subject. This disposition is general, and though some tribes are found in America, with a head, whom they call a king, his power is rather persuasive than coercive, and he is revered as a father more than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice. The other forms, which may be considered as a species of aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there subsists a kind of hereditary nobility, who, when they come to years of discretion, are entitled to a seat and vote in the council of their nation, from which the rest are excluded. Their great council is composed of these heads of tribes and families, with which whose capacity has raised them to the said degree of consideration. These councils are public, and in them all matters which concern the state are proposed and determined. Here their orators are employed, and display those talents which distinguish them for eloquence and the knowledge of business, in both which some of them are admirable. Their principal business consists in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expressing their thoughts in a bold, figurative manner, stronger than the refined nations of Europe can bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive.

The same council of their elders regulates whatever regards the internal peace and order of the state. Their laws are few and quickly decided, having neither property nor art sufficient to render them perplexed or tedious. Criminal matters come before the same jurisdiction, when they are so flagrant as to become a national concern. In ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. The supreme authority of the nation bestows the action without concern, and never rouses its strength, nor exerts the fulness of a power more sacred than felt, but upon some signal occasion, when the power seems equal to the occasion. Every one is hallowed to execute the orders of their senate; nor ever was there an instance of disloyalty or rebellion known among this people. Governed as they are by manners, not by laws, example and education inspires them with the most religious regard for their constitution, and the customs of their ancestors. Family love, so rare among us, is a virtue among them, of which all partake. Friendships are found among them that may vie with those of fabulous antiquity; and where such friendships exist, the families concerned

congratulate themselves as upon an acquisition that promises to them a mutual strength, and to their nation the greatest honour and advantage.

This band of friendship connects the whole society; and the loss of any one of their people, whether by war or a natural death, is lamented by the whole town to which he belongs. No business however important is taken in hand, no rejoicing, however interesting the occasion, is heard, till all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed; and these are always executed with the greatest solemnity. The dead body is washed, anointed, and painted, so as in some measure to abate the horrors of death. It is then followed by the whole village with mourning and lamentations to the grave, and there interred in the most pompous ornaments of the deceased. His bow and arrows, together with the things he most valued, and provisions for the long journey he is to take, are placed by him in the grave. After the funeral, those who are nearly allied to him conceal themselves a considerable time in their huts to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolence are never omitted, nor are presents wanting on this occasion. After some time, they revisit the grave, they renew their sorrow, they clothe the remains of the body in new ornaments, and repeat the solemnities of the first interment.

But the most striking instance of their friendship, and, at the same time, the greatest instance of their regard to their deceased brethren, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls: a feast celebrated every eight or ten years. The day for this ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing necessary for celebrating it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation is exhausted on this occasion, and all the ingenuity of the Indians displayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feast, and be witnesses of the solemnity. All those who have died since the last feast of souls are now taken out of their graves. Those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

The horror of this general disinterment is painted in a striking manner, by the ingenious Laftau: "Without question, says that elegant writer, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived;—this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure in painting herself in a thousand shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered, others have a sort of parchment upon their bones, some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction, while others are swarming with the worms."

worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a spectacle, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing surely deserves our admiration more, than the eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tendernefs; handling the carcases, loathsome and disgusting as they are, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged by their insupportable stench, and without suffering any other emotions to arise, than those of regret for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives. When all the bodies they can possibly collect are brought to the great rendezvous of mortality, they are dressed in the finest skins they can procure. A feast is held on this solemn occasion, when their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses that took place between them are recounted. A large pit is dug in the ground, and the bodies re-interred with pomp, with mourning, and with lamentation. In this manner they endeavour to footh the calamities of life by the honours they pay to their dead, honours which are the more cheerfully paid, because each in his turn expects to receive them himself. Though among these savage natives this custom is impressed with strong marks of the ferocity of their nature; an honour for the dead, a tender feeling of their absence, and a revival of their memory, are some of the most excellent instruments for smoothing our rugged nature into humanity. In civilized nations such ceremonies are less practised, because other instruments for the same purposes are less wanted; but it is certain a regard for the dead is ancient and universal.

The principal occupations of a North American Indian are hunting and war. He is never considered as a brave and useful man among his tribe, till he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his hut with the scalp of an enemy. When their chiefs resolve upon a war, they do not always declare what nation they mean to attack; that the enemy upon whom they intend to fall may be off his guard. Sometimes whole years are suffered to elapse, that the vigilance of the enemy may be entirely suspended by the uncertainty of the danger: in the mean time, they are not idle at home. The principal captain summones the youth of the town to which he belongs, the war-kettle is set on the fire; the war-songs and dances commence; the hatchet is sent to all the villages of the same nation, and to all its allies, who are expected not only to adopt their enmities, but to have their resentment wound up to the same pitch of resentment with themselves: the fire catches, the war-songs are heard in all parts, and the most hideous howlings, without intermission, day and night, are heard over that whole tract of country. The women add their cries to those of the men, la-

menting the friends they have lost either in war, by a natural death, and demanding their places to be supplied by captives from the enemy. A variety of ceremonies succeed; none are forced into the war; but when they have given small oillets of wood to their war-captain, they are considered as inflamed, and then death to recede. All the warriors have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which give them a horrid appearance. They then exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women; who accompany them to a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of their inviolable friendship and esteem.

The requisite qualities of an Indian war are valour and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; patience and strength to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardships which always attend it. The nations of Indians in America are separated by vast desert frontiers, and hid in the bosoms of thick, gloomy, and almost boundless forests; these must be traversed before they meet an enemy, who often resides at so great a distance as it is reasonable to suppose must prevent either quarrel or danger. But it should be remembered, that the Indians take no pains to give their wars even a colour of justice. Their only motive for attacking an enemy are either to obtain the glory of the victory, or to procure captives, in order to increase the strength of their nation, or furnish them with victims for the exercise of their brutal fury.

The nation they intend to attack is sometimes wholly ignorant of any danger, and falls an easy prey to the unexpected fury of the invaders; but it more frequently happens that the nation devoted to destruction has notice of the design, and is prepared to take the same advantage of the least want of vigilance in the aggressors. They never fight in the open field but on some very extraordinary occasions. Secrecy is the soul of all their actions, and on this the success of the expedition entirely depends. During their tedious march they light no fire to warm themselves, or dress their victuals, but subsist wholly on the miserable pittance of a little meal mixed with water; they lie close to the ground during the whole day, and march only in the night, and even then with the greatest precaution. When they discover an army of the enemy, they throw themselves flat on their faces among the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted to resemble exactly. They generally let a part pass unmolested, and then rising a little, and setting up a most tremendous shout, which they call the War-hoop, they pour a storm of musket-bullets upon the enemy. The party attacked returns the same cry, and every man shelters himself behind a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party the moment they rise themselves from the ground to give the second fire. After fighting for some time in this manner, they leave their covert, and rush upon each other with small axes, which they dart with great

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have lost either in war, or in the enemy. A variety of small billets of wood to be considered as inflated, and in all the warriors have their coat, intermixed with down, which give them a more than exchange their clothes to dispose of all their finery to any them to a considerable last tokens of their esteem.

of an Indian war are very and to avoid a surpris, and endure the intolerable fatigue attend it. The nation separated by vast desert of thick, gloomy, and these must be traversed often resides at so great to suppose must prevail. But it should be remem- like no pains to give them. Their only motives are to obtain the glory of captives, in order to increase, or furnish them with a brutal fury.

attack is sometimes who falls an easy prey to the; but it more frequently to destruction has compared to take the same vigilance in the aggression held but on some very emergency is the soul of all the cesses of the expedition their tedious march they light or dress their victuals, but a little pittance of a little meal close to the ground during the night, and occasionally themselves flat on dered leaves, the colour altered to resemble exactly. The party attacked every man shelters himself the fire of the adverse party themselves from the ground-fighting for some time in a covert, and rush upon which they dart with great

ness and dexterity. The contest is soon decided, the conquerors satiate their savage fury with the horrid insults and barbarities on the dead bodies of the enemy, which they scalp, and treat in a manner shocking to humanity.

The fate of a North American Indian, who has the fortune to be taken prisoner, is still more severe, unless he has the good fortune to please the capricious humour of the enemy; it being customary to offer a reward to each cottage that has lost a friend, and he is either received into the family, or sentenced to death. In the former, the prisoner is adopted in the place of a father, son, or husband that is lost; and no other mark of captivity remains, than a prohibition of returning; to attempt this would be certain death: but if the prisoner is refused, it is no longer in the power of any one to save him. The nation is assembled; a scaffold is raised, and the prisoner is fastened to the cross. He immediately opens his death-song, and presumes on the ensuing scene of cruelty with a most intrepid courage, while his persecutors make ready for it to the utmost proof by every torment which the mind of man, ingenious in mischief, can invent. The prisoner suffers all their tortures with a constancy and resolution that appears more than human. Not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; and (astonishing to relate!) the women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, will even do the men in this horrid tragedy. It is shocking to dwell on a scene of cruelty, which degrades humanity to a degree below the ferocious beasts of the desert: let it suffice to say, that the torments inflicted should only be invented and executed by persons nursed in barbarity, and wholly destitute of the common feelings of mankind for objects in distress. These circumstances of cruelty, however, serve to shew, in the strongest light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity and eternal rage the passions of men may carry them, when untrammelled by the refinements of polished society, and unopposed by the benign dictates of Christianity; a religion that teaches compassion to our enemies, which is either known nor practised in other institutions; and which will tend to make us more sensible, than some appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of civilization, and the light of literature; which, if they have benefited the force of natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewise the sting of our natural vices, softened the ferocity of the human race, improved their intellectual powers, rendered men more useful members of society, and, in some measure, destroying the character of rational and accountable beings.

Religion is little known, and less practised by the American Indians: if we except the inhabitants of Mexico and Peru, who were civilized people, and of whom a further account will be given in the respective

descriptions of each kingdom. The Indians have no temples. Some of them have very little idea of a God: others entertain better notions; they hold the existence of a Supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all things that exist. Satisfied with this acknowledgement, they pay him no sort of worship. There are, indeed, nations who seem to pay some religious homage to the sun and moon; and as most of them have a notion of the existence of invisible beings who intermeddle in their affairs, they often mention demons and other spirits, particularly one whom they call Areskoui, or the god of war, whom they always invoke before they march against an enemy. They have also ceremonies that seem to shew they had once a more regular form of religious worship; for they make a sort of oblation of their first fruits; observe certain ceremonies at the new and full moon, and have in their festivals many things that very probably flowed from a religious origin, though they now perform them as things handed down from their ancestors, without knowing or inquiring into the reason. Though destitute of religion, they abound in superstitions. They are great observers of omens and dreams, and pry into futurity with the greatest eagerness. Hence their country abounds in diviners, augurs, and magicians; and on their predictions they firmly rely in all their affairs, whether they relate to health, to war, or to hunting.

Agriculture, and the whole care of the family, devolves upon the women: but though they bear the laborious weight of oeconomy, they are far from being the slaves they appear, and are not at all subject to the great subordination in which they are placed in countries where they seem to be more respected. On the contrary, all the honours of the nation are on the side of the women. They even hold their councils, and have their share in all deliberations which concern the state; nor are they found inferior to the part they act. Polygamy is practised in some nations, but it is not general. Incontinent before wedlock, but after marriage the chastity of their women is remarkable. The punishment of the adulterers, as well as the adulterer, is in the hands of the husband himself; and it is often severe, as it is inflicted by one who is at once the injured party and the judge.

The continent of America, often known by the name of the New World, extends from about 80 deg. north lat. to the Straights of Magellan; in 53 deg. south lat. Some geographers extend it to the southern extremity of Terra del Fuego, in the lat. of 53 deg. 42 min. but as that country is an island, it ought not to be considered in the dimensions of the American continent. The breadth is very various; in some places it stretches from the 35th to the 136th deg. of long. It is above 9000 English miles in length, and enjoys the principal climates of both hemispheres. It is bounded on the north by unknown countries; on the south by the

Southern Ocean; on the east by the Atlantic; and on the west by the Great South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. It consists of two large continents, joined together by a narrow neck of land, called the Isthmus of Darien; and distinguished by the epithets north and south. A great variety of islands are scattered on both sides of America; but the most remarkable are situated in a large gulf formed by the coasts of the northern and southern continents, and those of the Isthmus of Darien. Some of these islands are very large, most of them fertile, and the greater part full of inhabitants. They are called the West-Indies, and will be described in their proper place.

These continents are subdivided into a great number of parts; but before we proceed to lay down these subdivisions, and to describe the different countries, it will be proper to take notice of some mountains and rivers, which, as it were, disclaim to be confined within the limits of any particular province. The most remarkable mountains in South America, form that prodigious chain called the Andes, or Cordilleras. This ridge begins in the Terra Magellanica, the southernmost country of South America, traverses the kingdom of Chili, the provinces of Buenos Ayres, Peru, and Quito; where, contracting themselves, as it were, for a passage through the Isthmus of Darien, they again expand their ample dimensions, and continue their course through the provinces and kingdoms of Nicaragua, Guatemala, Costa Rica, St. Miguel, Mexico, La Puebla, and others; with several arms or ramifications for strengthening, as it were, the conjunction between the northern and southern continents of America. In the province of Quito the Andes form a double chain, called the Cordilleras of the Andes; and between these two ridges, the city of Quito, and a large extent of fertile lands are situated. The mountains which form the Andes extend above 5000 English miles in length: nor is their height less remarkable than their extent; their summits are always covered with snow, even in the midst of the torrid zone. Many of them are volcanoes, and the greater part of them mines of the most precious metals. North America has also several lofty and extensive chains, the principal of which are called the Allegany, or Apalachian mountains.

North America is watered by innumerable rivers, some of which are very remarkable, and will be described in their respective provinces. The river Mississippi, rising from unknown sources, runs a prodigious course from north to south, and receives the vast tribute of the Ohio, the Ouabache, and other immense rivers, navigable almost to their very sources, and laying open the inmost recesses of that continent. Near the heads of these rivers are five great lakes, or rather seas of fresh water, communicating with each other, and all with the ocean by the river St. Lawrence. These afford such an inlet for commerce, as must be productive of the greatest advantages, whenever the adjacent countries shall be fully inhabited by an indus-

trious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America is watered by the noble rivers of Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Patowmack, and several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation. Many parts are indeed so intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that great numbers of the planters may, without exaggeration, be said to have each a harbour at their own door.

South America has three of the largest rivers in the world, the river of the Amazons, the river Plata, and the river Oroonoko. The first has its source in the lake of Lauricocha, near the city of Guanaco, in 10 deg. south lat. In its course, it receives all the rivers and streams issuing from the eastern Cordilleras of the Andes, between its source, and the government of Popayan, and at last becomes rather a sea than a river, and falls into the ocean under the equinoctial. Its length, reckoning its windings and windings, is at least 3,300 miles. The river Plata rises in the audience of the same name in the eastern Cordillera of the Andes, and after running through many territories, and adding fertility to a great extent of country, falls into the ocean with such rapidity, that the water is fresh many leagues from the land. The Oroonoko has its source near Popayan, in Terra-Firma, and, after a course of 700 miles, falls into the sea in 9 deg. 13 min. north latitude.

The vast extent of South America, which lies on each side of the equator, occasions it to have a variety of soils as well as climates. Here are produced most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in other parts of the world, and many of them more valuable and in greater quantities. Europe has been supplied with such immense quantities of gold and silver from America, that those valuable metals become much more common than formerly; and the gold and silver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price they bore upwards of a century ago. This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other costly stones, which, by being brought in great numbers into Europe, have contributed likewise to reduce their value.

Spanish America, besides the chief part of the above-mentioned productions, abounds with a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use. They consist of cochineal, indigo, annatto, logwood, brazil, fustic, pimento, lignum vitae, rice, ginger, cocoa, sugar, cotton, tobacco, barbells, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chilibi, Jesuits-bark, mechoacan, saffras, sarsaparilla, castor, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, which, before the discovery of America, the Europeans bought of the Venetians and Genoese at an extravagant price. The soil of this continent is so fertile, that many exotic productions are raised here in great perfection. A variety of excellent fruits also grow wild here, as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicorns, cherries,

The eastern side of North America, the river of Hudson, Delaware, and several others, are famous for their navigation. Many of these rivers are navigable for many miles, and the planters may, with ease, have each a harbour at the mouth.

The largest rivers in the continent, the river Plata, and the Amazon, both have their source in the Cordillera of the Andes. The Amazon receives all the waters of the eastern Cordillera of the continent, and the government of Peru is situated on the banks of this river. The Amazon is a sea than a river, and the equinoctial winds, which blow from the north, are the cause of its rapidity. The Cordillera of the Andes, which is the source of many of the rivers of this country, falls into the sea, and the water is fresh many miles from the coast. Oronoko has its source in the mountains of Guayana, and, after a course of 1500 miles, falls into the sea in 9 deg. 13 min.

North America, which lies on the north side of the continent, is a country of great fertility. It produces a variety of fruits, trees, and woods, and is famous for its gold and silver. The quantity of gold and silver produced here is more than in any other part of the world, and many of the rivers are navigable for many miles. The quantity of gold and silver produced here is more than in any other part of the world, and many of the rivers are navigable for many miles.

The chief part of the above-mentioned commodities are produced in the northern part of the continent, and are carried to the coast by the rivers. The quantity of gold and silver produced here is more than in any other part of the world, and many of the rivers are navigable for many miles.

berries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants. America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by the Spaniards, English, and Portugese; for the French and Dutch having only the forts upon Surinam and Guiana, scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the northern continent. The Spaniards, who were the first discoverers of this country, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, North America, to the Straights of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brasil, which belongs to the Portugese.

Before the late unhappy war, Great-Britain was not in a claim to, and actually possessed Canada and Louisiana, which included all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's-Bay, on the north, to Mexico and its gulf on the south; regions which all Europe could not people in many ages; but no territory, how extensive soever, nor could the most boundless empire gratify the ambition of that aspiring nation; therefore, during the most solemn treaties, they consented to make gradual advances upon the English back settlements, and rendered their acquisitions more secure and permanent, by a chain of forts well supplied with all kinds of warlike stores. They laboured at the same time, by various arts, industriously to gain the friendship of the Indians, even by intermarriages, and they only trained these savages to the use of arms, but refused into them the most unfavourable notions of the English, and the superior strength of their nation.

The British colonies, thus hemmed in, and confined to a strip of land along the sea-coast, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and natural enemies of Great-Britain, began in 1755 to take the alarm. The British empire in America, scarcely raised from its infant state, was threatened with a total dissolution. In their distress, they solicited the assistance of the mother

country. The bulwarks and thunder of England, accompanied with powerful armies, commanded by a set of heroes, the Scipios of that age, were sent to their relief. A long war succeeded, in which the colonists took an active part, and success every-where attended the British arms; so that after a very bloody and obstinate contest, the French were driven from Canada and its dependencies, and obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana lying on the east side of the Mississippi. Thus at an immense expence, and with the loss of many brave men, our colonies were preserved and secured to us, whereby we had possession of a territory, which, from north to south, extended near 4000 miles in a direct line; but to the westward our boundaries reached to countries unknown, even to the native Indians; a tract supposed to be nearly equal to all Europe. But all our flattering prospects respecting the American possessions are now annihilated by the late unhappy war, which, after a continuance of eight years, with a prodigious expence of blood and treasure, terminated in their entire disunion from Great-Britain, and in the establishment of a new republic, styled, *The Thirteen United States of America*. This vast country is washed all the way by the Atlantic Ocean on the east, and by the Gulf of Mexico on the south.

The Spaniards, English, and French, possess the multitude of islands which lie between the two continents of North and South America. Three or four small islands indeed belong to the Dutch, but these, in any other hands, would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they are too inconsiderable to entitle the owners to a claim on America. The French, it is said, have lately ceded to Sweden the small island of St. Bartholomew.

In describing the situation, extent, and boundaries of the numerous colonies which now compose that great empire, we have totally rejected the accounts given us by partial French writers, as well as those of Salmon and other English geographers, if men deserve that name, who have wandered so widely from the truth, and who seem either unacquainted with the subject, or have been at no pains to consult the latest and most authentic materials. This we thought necessary to premise, that the reader may be prepared for the following Table, which he will find to differ widely from any book of geography hitherto published, being composed from the latest treaties and partitions, and the best maps and drawings; the surest guides in giving the geography of these important provinces.

We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the northern.



The following TABLES, taken from the latest and most authentic Materials, will exhibit the Situation of the Countries which compose NORTH-AMERICA with respect to each other, and the several Particulars relative to each.

Colonies.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
New Britain	850	750	318,750	Quebec	Great-Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec	Ditto
New Scotland	350	250	57,000	{ Halifax	Ditto
New Brunfwick }				{ Shelburne }	
New England	550	200	87,000	Boston	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York	Ditto
New Jersey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy	Ditto
Pennsylvania	300	240	15,000	Philadelphia	Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis	Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamsburgh	Ditto
North Carolina	700	380	110,000	{ Edenton	Ditto
South Carolina }				{ Charleston }	
Georgia	500	440	100,000	{ Savannah	Spain
East Florida }				{ St. Auguftine }	
West Florida }	1200	645	516,000	{ Penfacola }	Ditto
Louifiana }				{ New Orleans }	
New Mexico and California	2000	1000	600,000	{ St. Fee }	Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	{ St. Juan }	
				Mexico	Ditto

* It may be necessary to observe here, in order to prevent mistakes, that though the above Table, contains the territories now belonging to the United States of America, is strictly accurate; yet as New-England then comprises four provinces, viz. New-Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations with Connecticut; and Pennsylvania includes Delaware; those four, therefore when added to the rest begining at New-York, will compose the whole Thirteen Provinces claimed by, and appropriated to the Americans, when they withdrew their allegiance from Great-Britain, and asserted in Congress their independence, on the 4th of July 1776; and which provinces are generally arranged in the following order: New-Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
Terra Firma	1400	700	Panama	Spain
Peru	1800	500	Lima	Ditto
Amazonia	1200	960	Little known	
Guiana	780	480	Surinam, Cayenne	Dutch and French
Brazil	2500	700	St. Salvador	Portugal
Paraguay	1500	1000	Buenos Ayres	Spain and. Jesuits
Chili	1200	500	St. Jago	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	700	300	Not settled	Ditto

CHAP. II.

NEW BRITAIN.

Situation, Boundaries, Mountains, Rivers, Soil, Woods, Vegetables, Animals, Natives, and History.

THIS country, which lies round Hudson's-Bay, and is commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, is situated between 50 and 62 deg. of north lat. and between 50 and 95 deg. of west long. It is bounded by unknown lands and frozen seas about the north; by the Atlantic ocean and Baffin's Bay, on the east; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the south; and by unknown lands, on the west.

The mountains towards the north are exceeding high, and their tops perpetually covered with snow: as the winds blow from thence three quarters of the year, the winter all over this country is extremely severe and long.

The chief rivers are the Moose, Severn, Rupert, Nelson, Albany, and Black River. Hudson's-Bay, which includes several others, is the principal; its extent in length is about 690 miles, its northern boundary is traced at Davis's Streights; the other chief streights are those of Hudson and Belleisle.

The soil of this country is in general barren, owing to the great severity and rigour of the climate; even the hardy pine-tree is not seen, and the cold womb of the earth produces only some miserable shrubs; every kind of European seed brought hither has perished; and as the place from whence the seed comes is of great moment, it is therefore probable that the feed of corn brought from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway, might thrive better in this inhospitable climate.

The woods in this part of the world abound in moose-deer, elks, stags, rein-deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, ermins, martens, squirrels, wild-cats, and hares. The fowls found here are geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and many other sorts, both wild and tame. In the seas are found whales, morfes, seals, cod, and a white fish preferable to herrings; and the rivers and fresh waters furnish plenty of pike, perch, carp, and trout.

One general remark here may not be improper: it is obvious, that the animals of America are neither so large nor so fierce as those of Asia and Africa; and even those which are sent hither from Europe are found to degenerate. The tapretette, which is the largest animal found in the New World, does not exceed in size a well grown calf; whereas the Asiatic elephant often grows to above fifteen feet in height; and there

is still a greater disproportion between the lama of America, and the African camel. The tyger of Bengal has been sometimes known to measure twelve feet in length, while the congar, or tyger of America, does not exceed three; and the American toqua and toquarretti are despicable, in comparison of the Asiatic leopard and panther. It is observable, however, that though the quadrupeds of the new continent are greatly inferior in size to those of the old, they are much more numerous; the goat, exported from Europe to South America, will, in a few generations, become much less, as well as more prolific, and, instead of one or two kids at a time, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom and goodness of Providence is very conspicuous, in causing the smallest animals to multiply in the greatest proportion, and the most formidable to be less prolific; for had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion been endued with the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would not have been sufficient to check their outrage, and we should soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who now call themselves the masters of the creation, to the endangering the utter extirpation of the human species.

In summer the animals in the northern extremities of America are of a variety of colours, as in other parts of the world: but as soon as the winter approaches, they gradually change; the beasts, and many of the birds, becoming as white as the snow with which the ground is covered. Even the dogs and cats carried from England to Hudson's-Bay, are subject to the same alteration, and acquire a much longer, softer, and thicker fur, than they had in their own climate.

The lands near the south parts of Hudson's-Bay produce large timber and plenty of herbage, and, if properly cultivated, might yield corn. About Fort Nelson, the country, which is low and marshy, produces juniper, birch, poplar, and a small tree of the spruce or fir kind; but there is little other herbage, besides moss.

The Esquimaux Indians, who inhabit the inland parts of Labrador, are the most cowardly, ferocious, and untractable people in America. They lead a vagrant life, have no settled habitations, nor do we know of any villages or towns among them; but they are extremely numerous, and so mischievous, that often, during the night, they will cut the cables of ships, that they may enjoy their wrecks in the morning. They trade with the European vessels, exchanging the furs of their country for knives, scissors, pots, kettles, and other hardware; but they are never suffered to come on board in too great numbers, instances having been known where they have mastered the crew, and plundered the ship. The food of these, and the American Indians in general, consists chiefly in what they take by hunting and fishing. They clothe themselves in winter with beaver skins, which they oil and grease in the same manner as they do their own in summer,

summer, which prevents both the cold and heat from penetrating them. They wear a kind of buskins on their legs, and shoes of deer skins; they use also beaver skins and furs for their beds and covering in the night. A number of Indian men, and some women, come down annually, in about six hundred canoes, to Fort-Nelson, in order to trade with the English. These people are of a darker complexion, and smaller size, than those of Labrador, but they are much more gentle and tractable. They wear scarce any clothes in summer, but anoint themselves with bear's grease, or the oil of seals, which defends them from the attacks of musketoes, bugs, and other troublesome insects. Many of them come from very distant countries, and their voyages are rendered still longer, by being oblig'd to go on shore every day to hunt for provisions, their canoes, or kiacks, which they manage very dexterously, being only large enough to contain two persons, and a parcel of beaver-skins. The people of this country bear no resemblance in their shapes and faces to the southern Americans; but are much more like the Laplanders and Samoiets of Europe, from whom they are very probably descended.

The commerce with this country is carried on by a company consisting of nine or ten persons, called the Hudson's-Bay Company, who, in 1670, obtained an exclusive charter for trading to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to themselves, though comparatively with little advantage to Great-Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interest, not to say iniquitous spirit, has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and 130 seamen. They have several forts; viz. Prince of Wales's Fort, Churchill River, Nelson, New Severn and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay. In May 1782, the French took and destroyed these forts, settlements, &c. by which the company sustained a loss of near 500,000*l*. They export commodities to the value of 16,000*l*. and in return they bring home to the amount of 20,340*l*. which yield to the revenue 3,734*l*. This includes the fishery in Hudson's-Bay. Small as this commerce is, it affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantage to our manufacturers here; for as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such commodities of British manufacture are sent them, as we have great plenty of, some of which would not meet with a market elsewhere. In exchange for these, they have deer, beaver, and other skins, castor, feathers, whalebone, and blubber. Since our conquest of Canada, the trade of this company is less advantageous; but the profit it affords in its present restrained state, prove incontestably the immense benefit that would accrue to Great-Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's-Bay.

THE HISTORY OF NEW-BRITAIN

THESE northern countries and seas were not discovered till long after the other parts of the new world were known; and might perhaps still have remained in obscurity, had not the active genius of mankind prompted them to make discoveries of a very different nature. As early as the year 1576, a project started in England, for the discovery of a North-West passage to China; and the East-Indies. Frobisher only discovered the main of New-Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those tracts which bear his name; but failing in his principal attempt, the design was laid aside till the year 1585, when John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and surveyed the coasts of Labrador; but did not extend the discoveries of his predecessor. Hudson, a remarkable seaman, and experienced, made three voyages the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and the third in 1610. Fearless of dangers, and proof against the piercing cold of the climate, this intrepid mariner penetrated as far as 80 degrees and a half north latitude; he even wintered here, and would, in all probability, have finished the discovery, had not his voyage discontinued, and committed their brave commander, and seven of his faithful adherents, to the fury of the seas, in an open boat; where they were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable shore, destroyed by the savages. This was an irreparable loss to the public, as most of the discoveries he had made were buried with him. Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1613, and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in 1670. Captain Baffin in 1746, wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half; and Captain Christopher attempted further discoveries in 1761.

Besides these voyages, which satisfy us that we need not look for a passage on this side of the latitude of 60 degrees north, we are indebted to the Hudson's-Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws an additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonstration, how much farther north, at least some parts of their voyages, ships must go, before they can pass from one side of America to the other. The northern Indians, who come down to the company's factories to trade, had brought to the knowledge of our people a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of Copper-Mine-River. The company, being desirous of thoroughly investigating this matter, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, who, from his skill in the sciences, was extremely well qualified for the purpose, to proceed over land under the convoy of those Indians, for that river, which he had orders to survey, if possible, go down to its exit into the sea; to make observations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings both of it, and of what

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which satisfy us that we are on this side of the latitude indebted to the Hudson's Bay land; which throws matter, by affording what may go much farther north, at least, ships must go, before they can reach America to the other. To come down to the company, brought to the knowledge on account of much copper obtained the name of the company, being desirous of this matter, directed the man in their service, who was, was extremely desirous, to proceed over the Indians, for that purpose survey, if possible, near the sea; to make observations of longitudes; and to both of it, and of what

er occurred worthy of notice in the course of his

Mr. Hearne accordingly set out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill-River, on December 7, 1770, and on the 13th of June 1771 reached the Copper-Mine-River, and found it all the way, even to the exit into the sea, incumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself into it over a dry flat of the shore, the tide being then out, which seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about twelve or fourteen feet. This, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very small way within the river's mouth, so that the water it was not in the least brackish; Mr. Hearne is, however, sure of the place it emptied itself into being the sea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whale-bones and seal-skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents, and also by the number of seals which he saw upon the ice. It appears by the map which Mr. Hearne drew of this singular journey, that the mouth of the copper-mine lies in lat. 72 deg. N. and long. 65 deg. W. from Churchill-River, that is, about 119 deg. W. of Greenwich.

Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper-Mine to Churchill, lasted till June 30, 1772; so that he was absent upwards of a year and a half. The unparalleled hardships he suffered, and the essential service he performed, have met with a suitable recompence from his employers. This gentleman has been several years Governor of Prince of Wales's-Fort, on Churchill-River, where, in 1782, he was taken prisoner by the French; but he afterwards returned to his station. We now see, from the particulars of this extensive discovery, that the continent of North-America stretches from Hudson's-Bay, so far to the north-west, that Mr. Hearne travelled near 1,300 miles before he arrived at the sea; and that the whole of his track to the northward of 61 deg. N. lat. lay near 600 miles due west of the western coast of Hudson's-Bay; at the same time that his Indian guides were certain that a vast tract of land stretched still further in the same direction.

C H A P. III.

C A N A D A.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Rivers, Animals, Fish, Produce, Lakes, Inhabitants, Government, and Religion.

THIS country, after its reduction by the English, in the war of 1756, was formed into a British colony, called the Province of Quebec. It is situated between 61 and 81 deg. west long. and between 45 and 52 deg. north lat. its length is 600 miles, breadth 200, and contains 100,000 square miles. It is bounded

on the north and east, by New-Britain and Hudson's-Bay; on the south, by Nova-Scotia, New-England, and New-York; and on the west by unknown lands.

All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the Lakes, to the Pacific Ocean, which washes America on the west, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful: it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the distance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French. In some of these inhospitable regions, their nights are from one to six months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable snow; so that the miserable inhabitants live underground great part of the year; but when the sun revisits them, they have a day of equal length.

The climate of Canada varies greatly in this extensive tract; but along the banks of the river St. Laurence, it is prodigiously cold in winter, and exceeding hot in summer, as most of those parts of America commonly are, which do not lie too far to the northward. The rest of the country, as far as is known, being intersected with large woods, lakes, and rivers, is still colder. Notwithstanding the length and severity of the winters here, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts affords a pleasing view by its fertility, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grain, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco is also much cultivated here, and thrives well. The Isle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, are remarkable for the richness of their soil; and the meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle.

Some authors assert, that silver has been found in the mountains of Canada: this may be true, but we do not find that any great advantage has hitherto been made by it. Near Quebec, however, is a fine lead-mine; and coals are found in great plenty here.

The rivers in this province are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep, running through a prodigious tract of territory. The principal are, the Outawais, St. John's, Seguinay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all swallowed by the river St. Laurence, which has its source in the Lake Ontario, and, after a course of near 750 miles, falls into the sea at Cape Rosieres. It receives the Outawais at Montreal, forms several fine islands, and meets the tide above 400 miles from its mouth. It is navigable for large ships many miles above Quebec, and at Cape Rosieres, where it falls into the sea, it is above 90 miles in breadth, and is so deep, that, in the war of 1756, ships of the line contributed to reduce that capital. It has several falls or cataracts in its course, so that the navigation is interrupted; but the difficulties might be easily surmounted, and the navigation

continued

continued to Lake Ontario. In its progress it forms a great variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleasant. The French (now subjects of Great-Britain) have a great many settlements made on its banks, where the soil is very fruitful, and all the necessaries of life may with very little trouble be procured. It is not improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water which these countries environ.

Here are five lakes; that of Ontario, which is the smallest, is not less than 200 leagues in circumference, and therefore larger than any other piece of fresh water in the old world. The lake Erie, or Oswego, is longer, but not so broad, and about the same in extent. The lake Huron is much broader than either of the former, and about 300 leagues in circuit. The lake Michigan is about equal to that of Huron in circumference, but narrower and longer; and lake Superior far exceeds all the rest. It has several large islands, and is not less than five hundred leagues in circumference. A small flux and reflux have been observed, but not regulated by the course of the moon, but rising and falling as it were instantaneously; the surface of the rocks near the banks being covered and uncovered several times in a quarter of an hour, even when a calm prevails, and the surface of the lake is smooth and level. They are all navigable by vessels of very considerable burden, and all communicate with one another. The navigation is indeed stopped between lake Ontario and lake Erie, by the most tremendous cataract in the world, called the Falls of Niagara. The freight which connects the two lakes is here about two miles broad, but separated by an island into two streams, the largest of which is about half a mile in breadth. This stream, which forms the grandest part of the cataract, is crossed by a rock in the form of a half moon, from which the water tumbles near 160 feet perpendicularly. Imagination itself can hardly paint a more awful scene than this amazing sheet of water hurled headlong from so great a height on the rocks below. The traveller is struck with consternation at so tremendous a sight, while his ears are deafened with the prodigious roarings of the waters. The vapours arising from the cataract form a kind of cloud, or pillar of smoke, which in calm serene weather may be seen at a great distance; and when the spectator is in a proper position with regard to the sun, this cloud or vapour exhibits a beautiful rainbow. The noise of this cataract is plainly heard at fifteen miles distance. Many beasts and water-fowl lose their lives by attempting to cross the river at the island already mentioned, where the stream is extremely rapid, so that before they can reach the further shore, they are hurried over the precipice and dashed to pieces. Many of the Indians have met with the same fate either by drunkenness, or want of care. Perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited

hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. which these birds feed. These lakes, whenever the adjacent countries are settled by a civilized and mercerial people, must prove of the greatest advantage to the adjacent country indeed seems to have been intended by nature for the seat of a numerous and trading people. We have already observed, that the river of Laurence communicates with lake Ontario; and that river might be rendered navigable, a communication would be opened with the Atlantic Ocean, and consequently with all the parts of Europe.

As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada is upon the borders of the United States, and contains almost all the different species of animals, wood, and vegetables that are found in these colonies, we shall here speak of them at some length, in order to avoid repetitions. The animals make the most curious and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada, which abounds in stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martlets, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, large grey squirrels, hares, and rabbits. In the southern parts of it are found great numbers of wild bulls, various kinds of bucks, deer of a small size, goats, wolves, &c. and the marshes, lakes, and pools, throughout the country are filled with beavers, of which remarkable animals some further account will doubtless be expected.

The beaver is near four feet in length, its body greatly resembling that of a mountain rat. The fur is long, the eyes small, the ears short, round, and hairy on the outside, but smooth within. The legs particularly the fore ones, are short, and the nails of the fore feet stand obliquely, and are hollow like quills; but the hind feet are flat, and furnished with membranes or webs between the toes. The tail, which is almost oval, is a foot in length, an inch thick, four inches broad at the root, five in the middle, and three at the extremity. It is covered with scales, indented in such a manner as to be easily separated after the death of the animal. The jaws are amazingly strong, and each furnished with ten teeth, two incisive and eight molars. They live from fifteen to twenty years, and the female generally brings forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, never continues any length of time in the water, but cannot exit without frequently bathing in it. Beavers are of different colours, black, brown, white, yellow, and straw colour; the black and the white are the most valuable. The skin of the beaver is of two kinds, the dry and the green; the first is the skin before it has been applied to any use, and the second are the furs, several of which being sewed together, are worn by the Indians, who rub them over with unctuous substances, which render them pliable, and at the same time give the fine down which is manufactured into hats, &c. that oily quality proper for mixing with the dry tur, when worked. Of late years both the Dutch and the English have discovered the art of making excellent cloths, gloves, and

of deer, elks, bears, &c. These lakes, whenever settled by a civilized and improved of the greatest advantage seem to have been intended by a numerous and trading people observed, that the river is navigable, a communication with the Atlantic Ocean, and upon the cultivated provinces as Canada is upon the banks, and contains almost all the grain, wood, and vegetables that we shall here speak of to avoid repetitions. The curious and hitherto the natural history of Canada, which deer, bears, foxes, martlets, large grey squirrels, hares, southern parts of it are found, bulls, various kinds of goats, size, goats, wolves, &c. and woods, throughout the country of which remarkable animals doubtless be expected.

four feet in length, its ears short, round, and smooth within. The legs are short, and the nails are hollow like quills, and furnished with membranes. The tail, which is almost an inch thick, four inches in the middle, and three at the tip, with scales, indented in fish, separated after the death of the animal, and each of the two incise and eight molar teeth, and the female young ones at a time. It never continues any length of time that cannot exist without travellers are of different colours, low, and straw colour; the most valuable. The fur is of two kinds, the dry and the green; it has been applied to many of the furs, several of which are worn by the Indians, who use various substances, which render them in some time give the fine downy hats, &c. that only quality of the dry fur, when worked by the Dutch and the English has produced excellent cloths, gloves, and

stockings, from the beaver fur. The skin is not only thing for which this animal is valuable; it produces that useful drug called castoreum, contained in the bags formed by nature for this purpose only, in the lower part of the belly. The flesh of the beaver is said to be exceeding good eating; the tail is esteemed the most delicious dish that can be imagined. The capacity of these animals in erecting their huts, and providing against the approach of winter, is so amazing, that the savages suppose them rational creatures, who live in societies, and are governed by a leader or chief, and themselves. It must indeed be allowed, that the various accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitations, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of the season, are sufficient to shew the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even, in some instances, the superiority of the former. The Americans have two or three different ways of taking beavers; they sometimes shoot them, and at others take them in traps, which last method they prefer, because it does not damage the skin. There is a diminutive species of beaver, called the musk-rat, which resembles that animal in every respect but the tail, and affords a very strong musk.

The buffalo of Canada is larger than that of Europe, but their appearance is much the same; the body is covered with a black wool, which is very valuable, and the hide is as soft and pliant as chamois leather, but so exceeding strong, that the Indian bucklers, which are made of it, are almost proof against a musket ball. The elk is of the size of a horse or mule, and his colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. They delight in cold climates, where, during the winter, they live upon the bark of trees. When this animal is hunted, he becomes very violent; sometimes springing furiously on his pursuers, and trampling them to death. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to kill him. Wolves are exceeding scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country. The black foxes are also very uncommon here, but highly valued. Those of other colours are common; and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. The Canadian wood-rat, which is likewise of a fine silver colour, is as large again as the European rat, and has a fine bushy tail; the female has a bag under her belly, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and here she conceals her young when pursued. The pole-cat of Canada is entirely white, except the tip of the tail, which is as black as jet. When pursued, he lets fly his urine to annoy the assailants, which, it is said, infects the air for a quarter of a league round: hence he is called by the inhabitants the devil's brat, or the stinkard. There are two sorts of bears in this country; one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the first is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce; for he is

never known to attack a man, unless when wounded or oppressed by hunger. There is a carnivorous animal found here, called the Carcajou, which is of the cat kind, with a tail of such prodigious length, that Charlevoix declares he has twitted it several times round his body. It is said that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist its strong tail round its body, and tear open its throat in an instant. There are three sorts of squirrels in Canada; one of which is called the flying squirrel; it has, however, no wings; but on each side a loose skin, extending from the fore to the hind feet, to which it is connected. This the creature can stretch out like a sail, and the air which it contains, buoys him up in such a manner, that he can leap from tree to tree forty paces asunder. This little animal is easily tamed, and very lively, except when asleep, which is often the case; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's sleeve, pocket, or muff; he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among twenty persons. The Canadian roe-buck is a domestic animal; and the porcupine not so large as a middling-sized dog. We have been thus circumstantial in our description of these animals, because in their furs consist the chief commerce of the country, and to these we owe the materials for many of our manufactures.

The forests of Canada contain two kinds of eagles, the largest of which have a white head and neck, but the others are entirely grey. The falcons, goshawks, and terrels, are exactly the same as in Europe. The partridges are red, grey, and black, with long tails, which they spread out like a fan, and make a fine appearance: woodcocks are very scarce, but snipes and water-fowl are exceeding plentiful. Twenty-two different species of ducks are found in Canada, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but they are always at a distance from the inhabited part of the country. A Canadian raven is by some writers affirmed to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Thrushes and goldfinches, resembling those of Europe, are found here; but the chief singing-bird of Canada is the white bird, a species of ortolan, very shrewy, and remarkable for proclaiming the return of spring. The wood-pecker is a beautiful bird, but far exceeded by the fly-bird, which is supposed to be equalled by none of the feathered tribe; with all his plumage he is not larger than a cock-chaffer, and makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly: his legs are not thicker than a small needle; and from his bill, which is of the same size, a small sting proceeds, with which he pierces the flowers, and, by that means, nourishes himself with the juice: the head of the male is adorned with a beautiful black tuft; his breast is red, his belly white; his back, wings, and tail, green, while specks of gold, scattered all over the plumage, add greatly to its beauty, and an almost imperceptible down produces the most delightful shades that can be imagined.

The vast rivers and lakes in this country, particularly that of St. Laurence, contain a prodigious variety of fish, among which are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the gobeque, salmon trouts; turtles, lobsters, the chaourafou, the achigau, the gilt-head, and sturgeon. The seal, or sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature, and very large; some of them are said to weigh 2,000 pounds: a description of it will be given in our account of Greenland. The 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, which, when full grown, have the appearance of horns, and are very fine ivory. Some of the porpoises caught in the river St. Laurence are said to yield an hoghead of oil, and waistcoats are made of their skins, which, besides the excellent property of being exceeding strong, are musket-proof. The lencornet is a species of cuttle-fish, of an oval figure: there are two sorts of them, which differ only in size, some being as large as a hoghead, and others only a foot long; but the latter only are caught, which is done by torch-light. The chaourafou is an armed fish, resembling a pike, and covered with scales proof against a dagger: some of them are above five feet long, and about the thickness of a man's thigh: the colour is a silver grey, and there grows under the mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. This creature lives upon birds; to procure which, he conceals himself among the reeds, in such a manner, that nothing of him can be seen but the above weapon, which he holds erect above the surface of the water. The fowls, mistaking it for a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no sooner settled, than the fish opens his mouth, and darts so suddenly on the prey, that it seldom escapes. The gobeque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sturgeon is from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick; but there is a small species, the flesh of which is very delicate. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs in no material respect from those of the Nile. The achigau and the gilt-head are fish peculiar to the river St. Laurence.

Canada furnishes a variety of reptiles, among which the rattle-snake is the most remarkable. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and long in proportion: but the most remarkable part of this animal is the tail, consisting of several hollow joints, in each of which is a small round bone, that makes a rattling noise as the creature moves, and seems designed by Providence to give notice of its approach: it is asserted by authors, that a joint is added to this rattle every year. The bite of this snake is mortal, if the root of the rattle-snake plant, or some other specific, is not immediately applied to the wound. The above plant is a sovereign antidote against the poison, and grows in all places where the snake is found: it is either pounded or chewed, and applied to the wound as a plaster. This creature, however, seldom bites passengers unless trod

upon, or otherwise provoked. The Indians, who esteem its flesh a great delicacy, often hunt it; and when thus pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, placing its head in the centre, and then darts itself with the utmost violence against its antagonist, who receives the bite with the utmost calmness, assured of an immediate cure by the above root.

Such lands as have been properly cultivated in Canada, yield large and rich crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, and other grain. All kinds of fruits found in France, even melons and grapes, are produced here, and also the hop plant. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and feed numbers of great and small cattle.

The greatest forests in the world are in the uncultivated parts of North America, which are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing can be more magnificent to the sight: the trees lose themselves in the clouds, and their prodigious variety of species cannot be numbered. The forests of Canada, which are amazingly extensive, contain also a vast variety of trees, among which are two sorts of pines, the white and the red; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; the male and female maple; white and red elms, and poplars. The Iroquois Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, makes excellent vinegar; the white-thorn, the cotton-tree, the pod of which contains a very fine kind of cotton: several sorts of flowers are produced on the top of this tree, which, if shaken in a morning before the dew falls off, produce honey that may be boiled into sugar; the sun-plant, and an aquatic plant called atoca, the fruit of which is often made into an excellent confection.

The inhabitants on the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were very numerous before the late war; but the number of French and English settled in this province cannot be precisely ascertained, though they are supposed to be upon the decrease. Canada and Labrador were supposed, in the year 1783, to contain about 130,000 inhabitants. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; the most considerable at present are, the Iroquois, the Hurons, Miamis, Nokes, Oumamis, Outagamis, Sakis, Illinois, Onbaches, Otters or Loutres, Saranots, Sioux, Assiniboils, and Chirilineaux; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are exceedingly fond.

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Canada

Canada does not contain any remarkable towns,
though very considerable efforts have been made for
improving this extensive country. The principal places
are Quebec, Trois Rivieres, and Montreal.

Quebec, the capital of all Canada, and the see of a
bishop, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St.
Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about
seventy miles from the sea. It is built on a rock com-

posed partly of marble and partly of slate. The town
is divided into two parts, called the Upper and Lower
town. The fortifications, though not regular, are
strong. The fort, or citadel, in which the governor
resides, is a noble work; in the church of the Ursuline

is the tomb of Mons. Montcalm, who commanded
the French, and was killed at the battle of Quebec;
which also fell that young hero Wolfe, who com-
manded the English. The river, which from the sea

is four or five leagues broad, narrows on a sud-
den to about a mile in width. The harbour is flanked
by two bastions, raised twenty-five feet from the ground,
which is about the height of the tides at the time of the
spring-tides: it is safe, commodious, and about five fathom

deep. From Quebec to Montreal, in sailing up the
river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beauti-
ful landscapes, the banks being in many places bold
and steep, and shaded with lofty trees, and in others

strewed with villages, of which there are also many
on the islands, wherewith the channel of the river is
interspersed. After passing the Richlieu-Islands, in
the summer months, the air becomes so mild and tem-
perate, that the traveller thinks himself transported

to another climate. The town called Trois Rivieres, or Three Rivers,
is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and
takes its name from three rivers which join their
waters about a quarter of a mile below it, where they
empty into the river St. Lawrence. It is much frequented

by several nations of Indians, who come hither with
their furs and peltry. The adjacent country is plea-
sant and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. A considerable
number of handsome houses stand on both sides the
river. It gives name to a district.

Montreal stands at the foot of a mountain, in an
island ten leagues in length, and almost four in breadth,
crossed by the river St. Lawrence. While the French
possessed Canada, both the city and island of Montreal
were private property, and were so well improved,
that the whole island was a delightful spot, producing
every thing necessary for the conveniences of life.

Since the town has been in the hands of the English,
it has suffered extremely by fire. When reduced by
General Amherst, it was of an oblong form, well
walled, and surrounded by a wall flanked by eleven
bastions, which serve instead of bastions. The streets

were well laid out, and the houses built in a very hand-
some manner. The ditch is about eight feet deep,
and of a proportionable breadth, but dry. The forti-
fications have been much improved by the English.

The governor's palace is a large fine building. The
general hospital, and many elegant villas, decorate the
adjacent country, which produces all the vegetables of
Europe.

Respecting the government of Quebec, it will be
necessary to observe, that the French, before the war
of 1756, were very agreeably situated, being free from all
taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber,

and to sow and plant as much land as they could culti-
vate; and their rights and privileges were continued to
them by the capitulation, when the country was reduced
by the English. But by an act passed in 1774, his
Majesty was impowered to appoint a council, from
seventeen to twenty-three persons, resident at Quebec,

for managing the affairs of the province, who were
vested with authority to make ordinances for the peace,
welfare, and good government thereof. By this act,
all matters of controversy relative to property and civil
rights are to be determined by the French laws of
Canada; and the inhabitants are not only allowed to
profess the Romish religion, but the Popish clergy are

invested with a right to claim and attain their accu-
stomed dues from those of the same religion. This
law gave great offence to many persons both in England
and America, and is thought to have contributed in a
great measure towards spreading a spirit of disaffection

to the British government in the colonies. The city
of London objected in strong terms to the passing of
the bill into a law, declaring, that they conceived it to
be entirely subversive of the great fundamental princi-
ples of the British constitution, &c. and in one of the
petitions of the American congress to the king, they
remonstrated, that by the Quebec act, the limits of
that province were extended, the English laws abolished,

and the French laws restored, whereby great numbers
of British freemen were subjected to the latter; and
that an absolute government, and the Roman Catholic
religion, were also established by that act, throughout
those vast regions that border on the westerly and
northerly boundaries of the free Protestant English
settlements. But notwithstanding every argument and
petition brought in opposition to this obnoxious bill,
it passed both houses, received the royal assent, and now
subsists as a law in full force throughout the province.

Our settlements in North America were secured by
expelling the French, and at the same time the in-
habitants enabled to attend more closely to agriculture,
and the improvement of that country. While the
important conquest of Canada removed a rival power
from that part of North America, it put us in the sole
possession of the fur and peltry trade, the use and im-
portance of which is well known to the manufacturers
of Great-Britain, and enables us to extend the scale of
a general commerce.

The nature of the climate is severely cold in winter,
and the people manufacturing nothing, points out
what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine,
or rather rum, cloth, chiefly of the coarser kind, linen,
and

and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a species of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While the French were in possession of this country, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and trafficked with nations entirely unknown to any other Europeans. But their trade with these distant people was not the only service they did their country, they habituated the Indians to commerce, and induced them to visit the French in their settlements. Accordingly, people from all parts, even to the distance of a thousand miles, repaired to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and lasted near three months. Many solemnities were observed on this occasion, guards were placed, and the governor himself assisted to preserve order, in such a concourse of people, composed of so great a variety of savage nations. But it often happened that all attempts used to preserve tranquillity were in vain.

The Indians are so remarkably fond of spirituous liquors, that they often give all their merchandize for a small quantity of brandy; but, reflecting on their folly, are exasperated, and foment riots and disturbances. And what is very remarkable, many of the Indian nations actually passed by our settlement at Albany in the province of New-York, and continued their journey 250 miles further to Montreal, in order to purchase the very same commodities from the French, which they might have had from the English at Albany at a much cheaper rate; the French themselves having before purchased those goods from the English merchants settled in that country. So great an ascendancy had the French, by their polite behaviour and insinuating address, gained over the minds of the Indians.

Since we have been possessed of the whole country of Canada, our trade with that country employs thirty-four ships, and 400 seamen. The exports from thence, at an average of three years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amounted to 105,500*l*. and the imports from Great-Britain, consisting of a great variety of articles, are computed at nearly the same sum. It is unnecessary to make any remarks on the importance of this trade, which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, indispensably necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the productions of our other settlements in the East and West-Indies.

There are certain inconveniencies, proceeding from natural causes, which the trade and peopling of Canada are liable to, that no attention whatever will be sufficient to overcome; one of these is, the severity of the winter, which is so excessive from December to April,

that the greatest rivers are frozen over, and the snow often lies on the ground to the depth of four and five feet, even in those parts of the country which are situated three degrees of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. The falls in the river St. Laurence below Montreal, are another inconvenience; they render it difficult for very large ships to penetrate that emporium of inland commerce; but vessels from 300 to 400 tons arrive there every year. Hence will evidently appear, that our communication with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will always be interrupted in winter, till roads are formed that can be travelled on with safety from the Indians who often commence hostilities against us without previous notice; and these savage people, without provocation, frequently commit the most horrid cruelties for a long time with impunity. But when their barbarities and depredations have at length roused the resentment of the English, they will then even sue for a peace, which they know we always readily grant, this being obtained, they promise it shall endure as long as the sun and moon: hereupon a temporary cessation of hostilities takes place, till some fresh incident, too often accompanied with ill treatment received from our traders, gives them a fresh pretext for renewing their cruelties and insults in the neighbouring settlements.

The reader is referred to our general account of America, for the history of this province.

C H A P. IV.

NOVA-SCOTIA, OR NEW SCOTLAND

Boundaries, Situation, Extent, Rivers, Lakes, Soil, Produce, Exports, &c.

THIS country, by the French called Acadie, is bounded on the east by the bay of St. Laurence and the Atlantic ocean; on the south; the same ocean, on the north; the bay of St. Laurence, on the north; and Canada and New-England, on the west. It is situated between the 44th and 67th degrees of east long. and between the 44th and 49th of north latitude; being about 350 miles long, and 250 broad. This province was divided into two governments in 1784. That now styled Nova-Scotia is bounded, on the westward of the mouth of St. Croix river, by the same river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of Quebec; to the northward, by the bay of Chaleurs as far as the western extremity of the bay of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the south, by a line in the centre of the bay of Fundy from the said river St. Croix, to the mouth of the Miramiquet river, by the said river to its source; and from thence by a due line across the isthmus into the Bay

GEOGRAPHY.

is frozen over, and the fathoms to the depth of four and six fathoms of the country which are in London, and in the temperate parts falls in the river St. Lawrence, is another inconvenience; that very large ships to penetrate into the commerce; but vessels from there every year. Hence it is that our communication with the regions beyond it, will be interrupted, till roads are formed with safety from the Indian hostilities against us without the assistance of these savage people, without whom we cannot commit the most horrid rampage with impunity. But when their business is at length rounded up, they will then even find us now we always readily grant them a promise it shall endure for ever: hereupon a temporary truce takes place, till some fresh insult is accompanied with ill treatment, which gives them a fresh opportunity and insults in the negotiation.

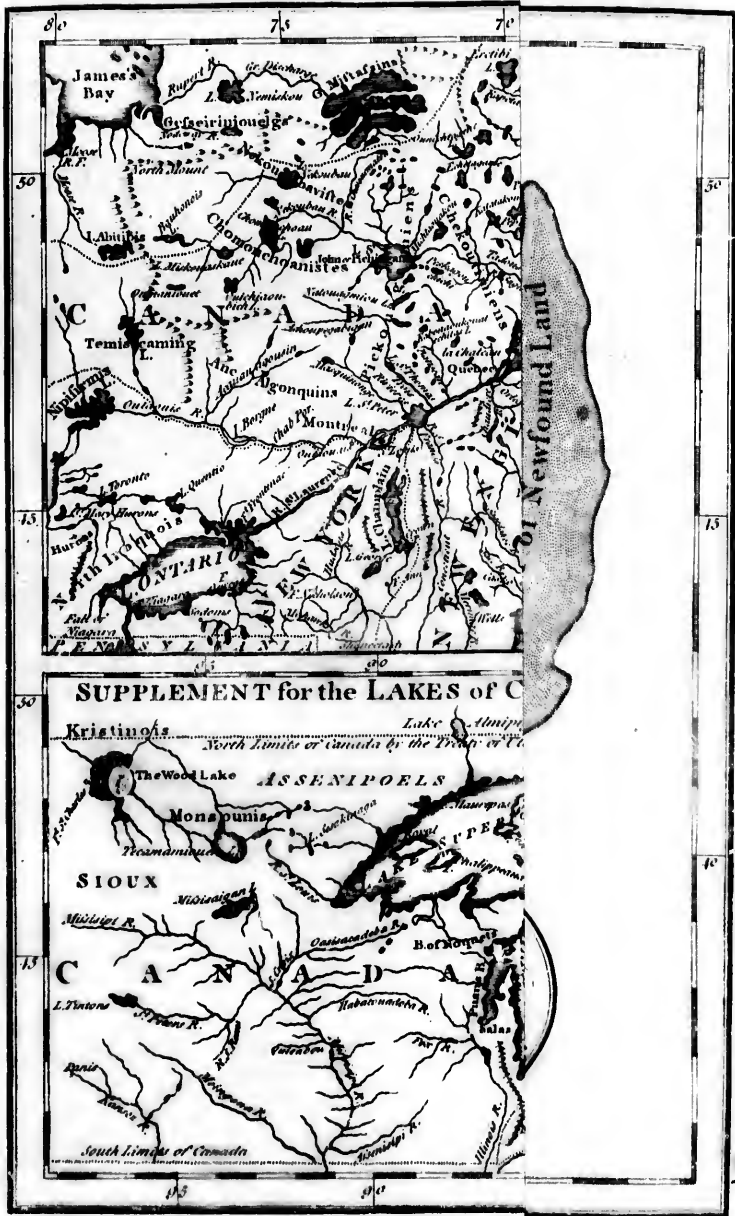
added to our general account of this province.

A P. IV.

OF NEW SCOTLAND

Extent, Rivers, Lakes, Soil, and Exports, &c.

The French called Acadia, between the Atlantic Ocean, on the south; the Gulf of St. Lawrence, on the north; and Canada and New France, on the west. It is situated between the 44th and 49th degrees of north latitude; being about 350 miles long, and between the 67th and 73rd degrees of west longitude. This province was divided into three parts in the year 1713. That now styled New Brunswick, on the westward of the mouth of the same river to its source, and the other two from thence to the southern extremity, the northward, by the Bay of Fundy, to the eastern extremity of the Bay of Fundy, and the Bay of Fundy, to the bay called Bay Verte; to the westward, by the said bay to the centre of the bay of Fundy, to the mouth of the said river to its source; and the other two across the isthmus into the Bay of Fundy.



Verte, to join the eastern lot above described: all lands within six leagues of the coast being included these limits. The rivers and lakes are very numerous. Of the former, the most considerable are those of St. John, Passamagadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north to south, and fall into the Bay of Fundy; and those of Rigouche, and Digouit, which run from west to east, and fall into the Gulf of St. Laurence; and that of Chebucto, which runs into the Atlantic. Of the latter, those called St. John and Freneuse are very large; but there are many which have not yet received any particular names. The river St. Laurence forms the northern boundary.

A great part of this country consists of the peninsula that is formed by the Bay of Fundy, Chenigto, and Green Bay; all the east of which, from Cape Sable on the west, to Cape Canso on the east, is lined with shoals and sands. Besides the bays above mentioned, there is a great number of others all along the coast, particularly the Bay of Chaleurs, and Chedibucto, on the north-east; the Bay of Illands, Chebucto, and La Here, on the north; and the Bay of Annapolis, on the south-side of the Bay of Fundy. In these bays, and other parts of the coast, are many fine roads and havens. The chief places are those of Rosieres and Gaspé on the north; Capes Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Port, St. Forgeroy, and Canso, on the east; Capes Blanco, St. Theodore, Dore, la Heve, and Negro, on the north; Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the south.

Though this country is situated within the temperate zone, its climate is rather unwholesome, which is generally ascribed to the sudden transition from heat to cold, which is found in this part of America; a seven months cold being sometimes succeeded by insupportable heat, without the intervening refreshing seasons of spring and autumn; besides this, the air is frequently rendered insufferably moist by fogs that come from off the sea, and sometimes in an instant envelop every object in an obscure gloom.

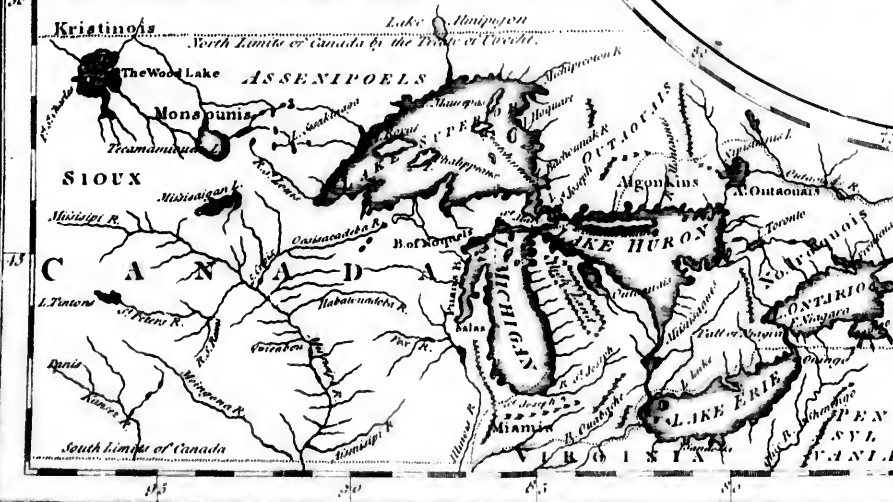
The soil of Nova-Scotia is not more favourable to vegetation than the climate is to health, the whole country being almost a continued forest. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Great improvements are said to be making in the new settlements and the Bay of Fundy: a great quantity of land hath been cleared, which abounds in timber, and ship-loads of excellent masts and spars have been shipped for England. Agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, has hitherto made little progress. As the soil is in general thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a thrivell'd kind, like rye, and the grass intermix'd with a cold spongy mofs. There are, however, some tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which are not inferior to the best land in New England; and the soil is for the most part adapted to the produce of hemp and flax.

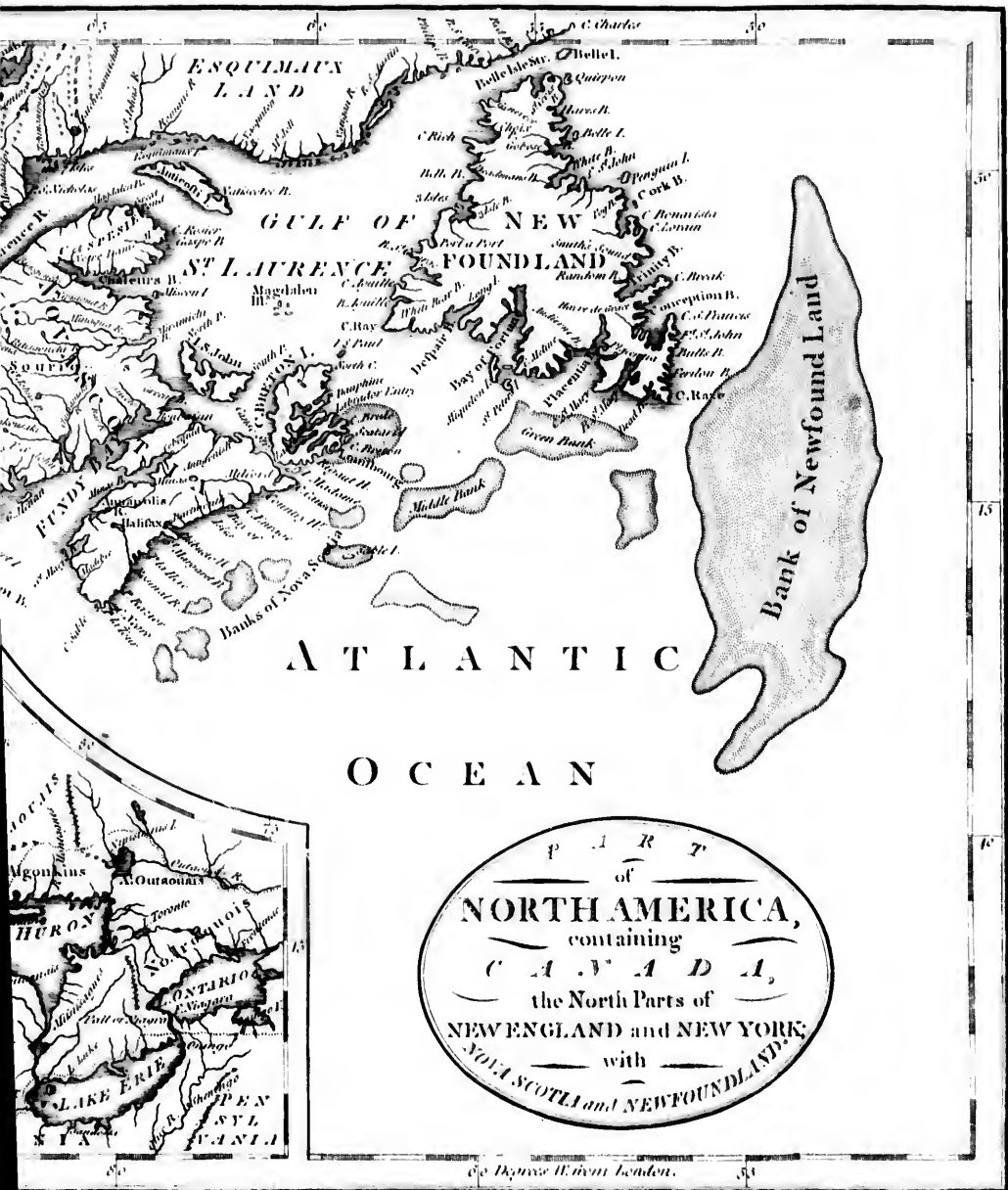
The animals found here are in common the same with those of the other American provinces, deer, beavers, otters, &c. wild fowl, and all species of game. European quadrupeds, and fowls, which have been sent there at different times, likewise succeed, and multiply prodigiously. At the close of March the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage to Nova-Scotia is the coast of Cape Sables, along which is a series of cod-fishing banks, and excellent harbours.

This country, unpromising as it is, and neglected for the more delightful tracts to the southward, was one of the first European settlements on the continent of North America. The first grant of lands in it were made by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it obtained the name of Nova-Scotia, or New Scotland. Since that period it has often changed masters, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English backwards and forwards. Before the French attempted any settlement in Canada, they had fixed themselves in Nova-Scotia; and certainly their industry and vigour, while they were in possession of this province, deserve applause; for though they had infinitely more difficulties to struggle with than the English have at present, they not only subsisted with very little assistance from Europe, but also increased exceedingly. But the province being confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, and experience during a long war having convinced them of the impropriety of suffering a colony of the enemy to remain here, a resolution was taken, in the year 1749, to form a settlement in this province at the expence of the government. Accordingly 3000 families were transported into Nova-Scotia. A town was erected on the bay of Chebucto, and called Halifax, in honour of the late Earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. The town of Halifax is 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 an excellent harbour, capable of receiving the largest ships of war, and where they may ride with the utmost safety in all winds. This town has a very flourishing appearance, when all the difficulties attending an infant settlement in this cold climate are considered. It is large and well built. It has a good entrenchment of timber, strengthened with a sort of the same materials, so as to be in little danger, at least from an Indian enemy. Three regiments are stationed here to protect the inhabitants from the insults of the savages, whose resentment, however excited, has been found implacable against the English. The number of inhabitants is said to amount to fifteen or sixteen thousand, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval stores, by their fisheries,



SUPPLEMENT for the LAKES of CANADA.





PART
of
NORTH AMERICA,
containing
CANADA,
the North Parts of
NEW ENGLAND and NEW YORK
with
SCOTLAND and NEWFOUNDLANDS

By Wm. Blount London.

and it being the residence of the governor, and the garrison.

Formerly the chief town in this province was called Annapolis-Royal; but, though once the capital, it is a small place, wretchedly fortified, worse built, and very thinly inhabited. There have been stationed here, ever since the reign of Queen Anne, the remains of a regiment very little recruited. But though this place never flourished, it stands on one of the best harbours in North America, capable of containing 1000 vessels at anchor, in the utmost security: it is protected by a fort and garrison. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the Bay of Fundy on the west side.

The emigration of loyalists from the United States to this province, since the conclusion of the American war, hath been very great. New towns have been erected by them; but particularly at Port Roseway, where a city named Shelburne now stands, which extends two miles on the water side, and one mile back, having wide streets, which cross each other at right angles. We are told it contains above 9000 inhabitants, exclusive of what is styled the Black Town, which stands about a mile from Shelburne, and is separated from it by a small fresh-water river; this town is inhabited by 1200 free blacks, who served on the king's side during the war. The harbour is deep, capacious, and secure, and the tide hath a great rise and fall.

Those loyalists who apply for land, obtain it in proportion to the property they possessed before the troubles commenced, allowing for such as have families to provide for. The governor lately appointed over New Brunswick is impowered, it is said, in his instructions, to "grant, without fee or reward, to such reduced officers as served in his provincial corps, during the late war in North America, and who shall personally apply for the same, the following quantities of lands, subject, at the expiration of ten years, to the same quit-rents as other lands are subject to in the province of Nova-Scotia, as also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement; that is to say, To every person having the rank of a field officer, 3000 acres; to every captain, 2000 acres; and to every subaltern, 1000 acres." The same proportion of land is allotted to the reduced officers of the navy.

The principal exports from Great-Britain to this country, consist of woollen and linen cloth, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. Our exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, amounted to about 26,500l. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amount to about 38,000l. The late increase of inhabitants induces us to suppose that they will erect saw mills, and endeavour to supply the West-India islands, with lumber of every kind, and likewise the

produce of the fishery, which will prove equally beneficial to both countries. The whole population of Nova-Scotia, with the islands adjoining, is computed at 50,000. This settlement being yet in its infancy, we can form no exact estimate of its utility, which, with its own prosperity and increase in the future, will in a great measure depend on the industry and wise conduct of the inhabitants.

CHAP. V.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Account of their Confederation.

OUR readers will find an account, in our review of the principal transactions in the history of Great-Britain, of the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of that war, between Great-Britain and the American colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the United States of America, and therefore need not repeat them in this place, but shall only mention, that on the 4th of July 1776, the Thirteen American provinces, by a solemn declaration, renounced their allegiance to the British crown, 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, &c. and from that time considered themselves as Free and Independent States, and have been recognized as such by all the belligerent powers. Each of the colonies, however, reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in matters not included in the articles of confederation; but every state is to abide by the determinations of the United States in Congress assembled, in all questions which are submitted to them by the confederation. Delegates from each state are to meet in Congress on the first of November in every year for managing the general interests. On the 30th January 1778, the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America, as Independent States. On April 19th, 1782, Holland acknowledged them as such; and on the 30th of November 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris, by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic Majesty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. On February 5th, 1783, Sweden acknowledged them as such; on the 25th of the same month, Denmark; on March 1783, Spain; and Russia, in July following.

By the report of the committee appointed by Congress for that purpose, the foreign debt of the United States, incurred by the late war, in obtaining

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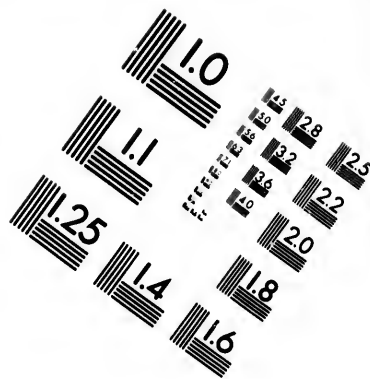
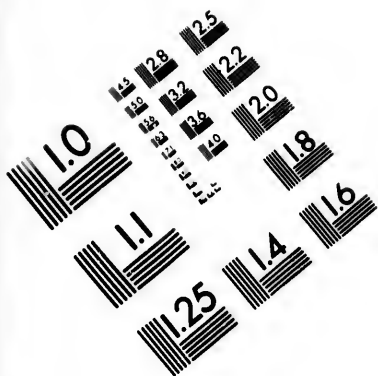
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STATES OF AMERICA

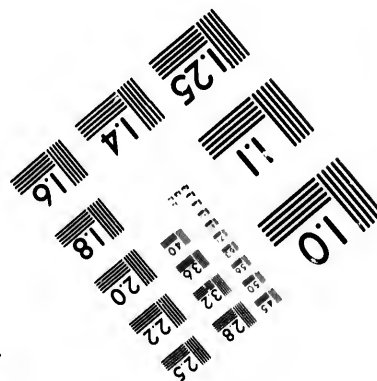
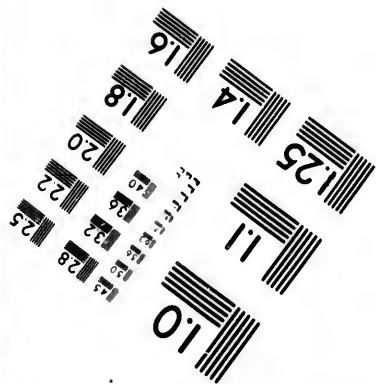
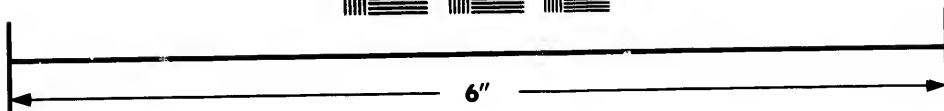
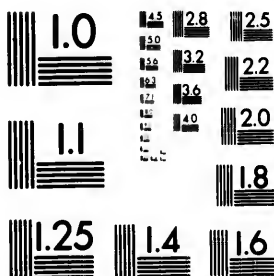
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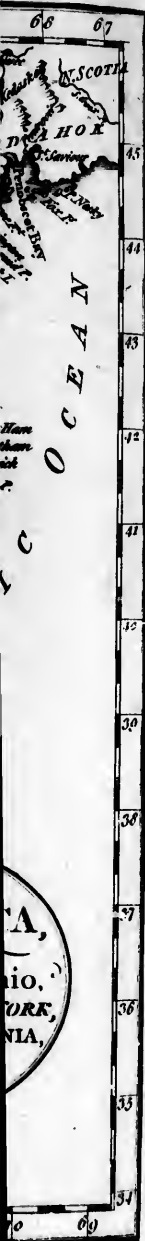
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at Independence, amounted to 7,885,085 dollars; the domestic debt to 34,115,290; the total of both, at 4s. 6d. each, is equal to 9,450,084l. sterling; the interest at six per cent, is 567,005l. On the other hand, the cost of the war to Great-Britain is moderately computed at 115,654,914l. and the national burthen by it, since January 1775, is 57,575l. During this ever-to-be-lamented war, the States of America, according to authentic estimates, lost by the sword and in prison 80,000 men; and the number of British soldiers killed in the service amounted to 43,633 men, according to the returns from New-York.

NEW ENGLAND.

Location, Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Rivers, Climate, Produce, Mines, Animals, Natives, Laws, Religion, Customs, Commerce, Manufactures, and Government.

THIS country is situated between 41 and 49 deg. north lat. and between 67 and 74 of west long. It is 550 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; and is bounded on the north-east by Nova-Scotia; on the south, by New York; on the east, by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the west by Canada.

DIVISIONS.	PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
the north division, } the government. . .	New Hampshire.	Portsmouth.
the middle division. . .	Massachusetts's colony.	Boston.
the south division. . .	Rhode-Island, &c.	Newport.
the west division. . .	Connecticut.	{ New-London. Hertford.

The principal rivers in this country are Connecticut, James, Patuxet, Menimack, Piscataqua, Saco, Casco, Kennebeck, Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

The most remarkable bays and harbours are those named by Plymouth, Rhode-Island, and Providence Plantations; Monument-Bay, West harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boston harbour, Piscataqua, and Casco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marble-Head, Cape Neddick, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small-Point.

Notwithstanding New England is situated near ten degrees nearer the equator than the mother-country, yet the winter begins sooner, and continues longer, than in us. But the summer is extremely hot, and even more so, than in places that lie under the same parallel in Europe: for the space of two months, however, the sky is perfectly clear, which renders the country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with English constitutions, than any other of the American provinces.

The length of their day at Boston, in summer and winter, is pretty nearly the same as in London.

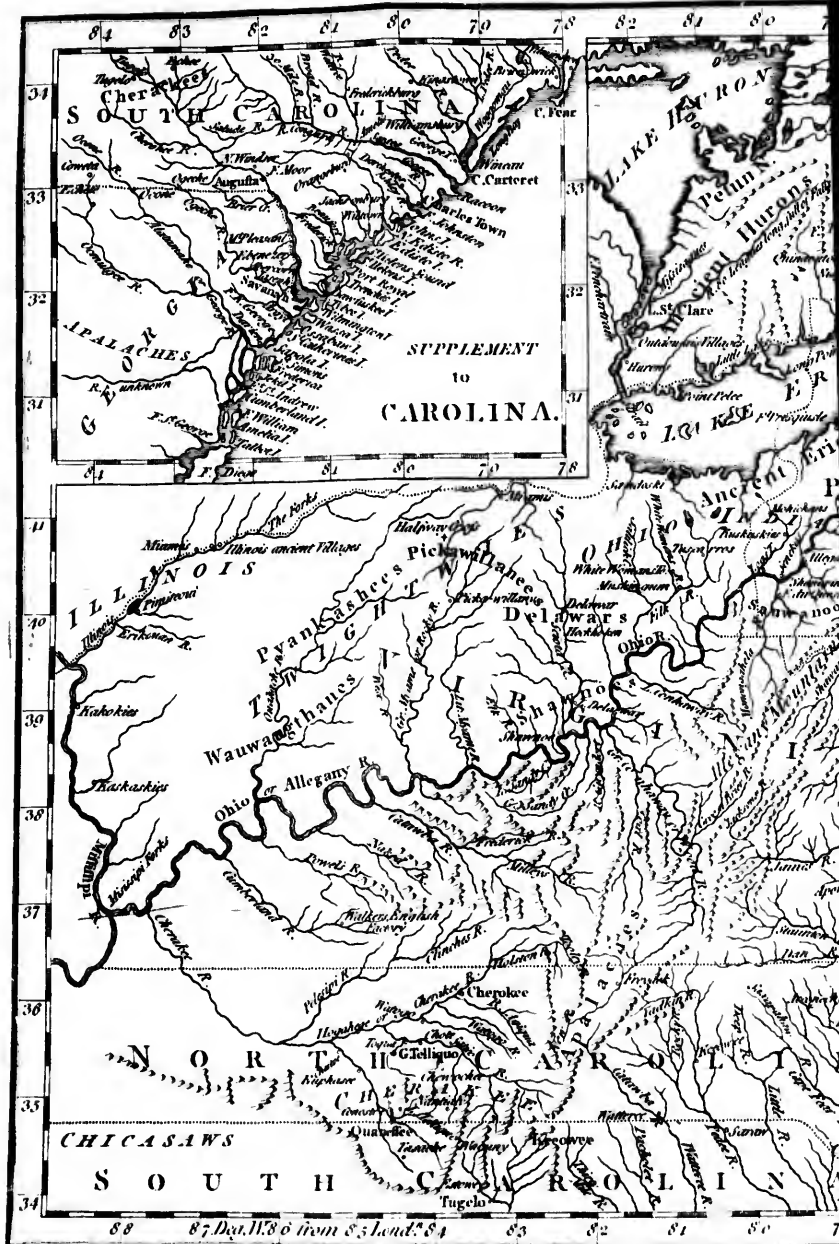
With respect to the soil, all the lands on the eastern shore of America are mostly low, and in some parts swampy; but further back they rise into hills. The north-east parts of New England are rocky and mountainous, and the earth shallow. Near Massachusetts-Bay, the soil is black, and as rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above three feet high. The soil of the uplands is less fruitful, being a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay: the low grounds abound in meadows and pastures: they commonly allot about two acres to the maintenance of a cow. The best meadows produce about a ton of hay to the acre; some produce two tons; but the hay is rank and four.

European grain has not been cultivated here with much success. The wheat is very subject to be blasted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy: but the Indian corn, which makes the food of the common people, flourishes here in high perfection. The New England people not only make bread of this grain, but malt, and brew it into beer, which is not contemptible, though their common drink is cyder and spruce-beer; the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of molasses. They also raise in New England a large quantity of flax and hemp: all the fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. It is not unusual to see seven or eight hundred fine peaches on a single tree; and seven barrels of cyder have, in one season, been pressed from the fruit of a single apple-tree.

This country is chiefly distinguished for the variety and excellence of its timber; particularly oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, salisfras, sumach, and other woods, used in dyeing or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ship-building. The oak is thought to be inferior to that of the mother-country; but the firs are of prodigious height and bulk, and furnish the royal navy of England with masts and yards: they also extract from them considerable quantities of pitch, tar, rosin, gums, and balm. The productions of their forests are of prodigious service to this country, where ship-building makes a very considerable branch of trade.

The iron mines of New England are truly valuable: the metal is of an excellent temper, and, if improved, may become a great national benefit: copper and lead are also found, but in no great plenty.

All kinds of European animals thrive here, and multiply exceedingly. Horned cattle are very numerous, and some of them very large. Oxen have been killed of eighteen hundred weight. Hogs also are numerous, and particularly excellent; some are so large as to weigh eighteen score. The horses are small, but extremely hardy. They have also a great number of sheep, and of a very good kind; but the wool,





PART
 of
NORTH AMERICA,
 comprehending
 The Course of the Ohio,
 NEW ENGLAND, NEW YORK,
 NEW JERSEY, PENNSYLVANIA,
 MARYLAND, VIRGINIA,
 CAROLINA & GEORGIA.

wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not near so fine as that of England: they however manufacture a great deal of it with success. Elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, bears, monies, martins, racoons, sables, wolves or wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other wild and tame animals, are found in this province, most of them in great abundance: but one of the most singular animals of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moose, or moose-deer. There are two species of this animal; the light grey moose, and the large black moose: the former often herd thirty or more together, is a very fine animal, and resembles the ordinary deer: the latter, or black moose, is a very stately creature, about twelve feet high; his body about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag, and his flesh is extremely grateful; the horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, where they spread twelve feet, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which spread about six feet. When he travises a wood or thicket, he lays his horns on his back, in order to prevent their being entangled in the boughs. These prodigious horns he sheds every year. The black moose does not spring or rise like the common deer in going; but one of the largest size has been seen, in his common walk, to step over a gate five feet high: when unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles, before he stands at bay; and, when closely pursued, generally takes to the water. The Indians hunt this creature, and generally with success, notwithstanding his great swiftness.

Few countries abound more with fowls, as turkies, geese, partridges, ducks, wigeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, black-birds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, ravens, crows, &c. Among a vast variety of reptiles, rattle-snakes, toads, and frogs, abound in the uncleared parts of the province, where, with the owls, they make in the summer evenings a most hideous noise.

Nor are the New England seas and rivers less prolific than the land. They abound in fish; and even whales of several kinds are found here: the whale-bone, however, is said to be less valuable than that of Greenland. A terrible fish, called the whale-killer, is also found in these seas: it is from twenty to thirty feet long, with remarkably strong teeth and jaws. Ten or twelve of these fish will attack a large whale, and often destroy him; but they frequently pay dear for their temerity; a single stroke from the tail of the whale being sufficient to put an end to the contest; and therefore they are very careful not to come within the reach of that part. At the mouth of the river Penobscot is a mackerel fishery; and vast quantities of cod are taken during the winter season.

The most populous and flourishing parts of Great-Britain, do not make a much better appearance than the cultivated parts of New England, which reach

above sixty miles back: with respect to population the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures carried on in them, this country greatly superior to any other of the colonies. Here are many gentlemen of considerable landed estates, which they let to farmers, or manage by their stewards or overseers; but the greater part of the people are composed of a substantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependence on any but Providence, and their own industry. These lands generally pass to their children in the manner of gavel-kind, which prevents the far greater part of them from being able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. This manner of inheriting has remarkable good effects: it keeps the people within bounds of their original happy mediocrity, or, if necessity urges, makes them more ready to go back into the uncultivated parts of the province, where land may be had at an easy rate, and in large portions. By this means, and from the form of their government they acquire a very free, bold, and republican spirit. The common sort of people in no part of the world are so independent, or possess so many of the conveniences of life: they are used, from their inclination to the exercise of arms; and they have a military which, considered as such, is by no means contemptible, but their military strength is now greatly augmented.

Dr. Douglas, a well-informed writer, who published at Boston an account of the British colonies in America about the year 1752, computes the number of inhabitants at 354,000; and proportions them in the following manner:

Massachusetts's Bay	200,000	in 1783,	they were	350,000
Connecticut	100,000	—	—	206,000
Rhode Island	30,000	—	—	60,000
New Hampshire	24,000	—	—	82,000
			<u>354,000</u>	<u>698,000</u>

so that, by this calculation, the number of inhabitants has so amazingly increased by new settlers from various parts of Europe, and by a very rapid population, that they at present amount to near 700,000, including Negroes, and a small number of Indians.

Throughout the whole populous and fertile province of Connecticut, the greatest care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept straight by means of a board; a practice learnt of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; so that deformity is very uncommon here. The men are in general well built, stout, and tall. The women are fair, handsome and genteel; and in their manners and behaviour reserved and modest. They are not deeply versed in the laws or mysteries of whist or quadrille, nor have they any great acquaintance with plays and operas; but they will converse freely upon matters relative to

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history, geography, and other literary subjects. They
are extremely hospitable to strangers and travellers
in this country.

In this part of America, the church of England is
far from being in a flourishing condition; in several
places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve
persons; and in the year 1768, the four provinces con-
tained upwards of 700 religious assemblies, of which
thirty-six only observed the forms of the church of
England; but the form of its worship having lately
undergone some material regulations in these parts,
reducing it to more moderate Anti-trinitarian prin-
ciples, so as to make it more nearly resemble that of
the Presbyterians, it is therefore thought that the pro-
fessors of that denomination will soon become more
numerous. The Connecticut province hath also pro-
vided a bishop for the Episcopalians among them, by
sending one of their number to Scotland, to be or-
dained by the non-juring bishops of the Episcopal
church in that kingdom, which ceremony was per-
formed at Aberdeen. Every particular society or
church of Dissenters is independent of all other eccle-
siastical jurisdiction; nor does there lie any appeal
from their punishments or censures. The ministers
of Boston depend entirely on the liberality of their
hearers for support, a voluntary contribution being
made for them by the congregation, every time divine
service is celebrated. It is but lately that they suf-
fered any member of the church of England to have a
share in the magistracy, or to be elected a member of
the Commons, or House of Representatives.

Their laws were formerly very severe against Quakers.
To bring one in, was a forfeiture of 100l. to conceal
one, 40s. an hour; to go to a Quaker's meeting, 10s.
to preach there, 5s. A Quaker, not an inhabitant, was
subject to banishment; and if he returned, death.
Eminent Quakers were sentenced to be whipped,
branded with the letter R. on the left shoulder, and
banished; if they returned, death: but these, and some
other severe ecclesiastical laws are now repealed, in
consequence of the diffusion of more humane and
rational principles. Calvinism, from the principles
of the first settlers hath been very prevalent in New
England, many of whose inhabitants formerly ob-
served the Sabbath with a kind of Jewish strictness;
but their rigorous observance of it hath of late been
much diminished. Since their independence, there is
an established religion in the province, but every sect
is allowed the free exercise of their religion, and is
entirely under the protection of the laws.

It is not improbable that this province will, in a
course of years, make a considerable figure in the re-
public of letters; since we find, that on the 4th of
May 1780; an act was passed by the Council and
House of Representatives of Massachusetts-Bay, for
incorporating and establishing a society for the cul-
tivation and promotion of the arts and sciences; it is
called, The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;

the first members were named in the act; and they
were never to exceed 200, nor to be fewer than
forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and
design of the institution of the said Academy, was, to
promote and encourage the knowledge of the An-
tiquities of America, and of the Natural History of
the country, and to determine the uses to which its
various natural productions might be applied; to pro-
mote and encourage medicinal discoveries; in mathe-
matical disquisitions, philosophical inquiries and ex-
periments; astronomical, meteorological, and geogra-
phical observations; improvements in agriculture, arts,
manufactures, and commerce; and, in short, to culti-
vate every art and science which might tend to ad-
vance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness of a
free, independent state. This act, which was calculated for
promoting the above-mentioned laudable purposes, was
framed and established as a law, since the commence-
ment of the late war between Great-Britain and the
colonies, and even while that destructive war was
carried on with great animosity on both sides.

No person can be arrested in this province, if there
are any means of satisfaction; nor imprisoned, unless
there be a concealment of effects. Adultery was
formerly death to both parties.

Boston is the chief town of the county of Middlesex,
and of all New England; it was formerly the chief of
the British empire in America. It stands on a penin-
sula at the bottom of Massachusetts-Bay, about eight
miles from its mouth, and is well fortified. The ap-
proach to the harbour by shipping is narrow; but with-
in it there is room enough for 500 sail to lie at anchor,
in a good depth of water. On one of the islands of the
Bay stands Fort William, the most regular fortress in the
British plantations: no ship can approach the town,
without passing directly under the guns of the fort.
About two leagues from the city is a light-house,
erected on a rock, which, in time of war, makes sig-
nals to the castle, and the castle to the town. At the
bottom of the bay, which is spacious enough to con-
tain a numerous navy, is a pier, near 2000 feet in length,
with a row of merchants warehouses on the north side.
The city lies in the shape of a half-moon round the
harbour, being in length about two miles, and in some
places near three quarters of a mile broad. There are
ten churches of different denominations, a fine town-
house, a printing-office, and several booksellers shops.
Here also the governor resides, the general assembly
and the chief courts of judicature are held, and here
are transacted the affairs of the whole province. There
is a market every Thursday, and fairs for three days
together, beginning on the first Tuesday in May, and
the last Tuesday in October. Above 600 ships have
been laden here in a year, for Europe and the British
plantations, with lumber, beef, pork, fish, &c. The
neck of land which joins the peninsula on which the
city is built to the continent, is not above fifty yards
wide. An adjoining district, called Charles-Town,

was destroyed since the commencement of the late civil war.

Cambridge Town, commonly called Newton, is situated on the northern branch of Charles River, about three miles from Bolton, in which are several good streets; but is most considerable for its university, consisting of three colleges. It is governed by a president, five fellows, and the treasurer, who have each of them a competent revenue settled on them.

Salem, Portsmouth, Newhaven, Newport, and the other towns of New England, are in general neatly built, and commodiously situated on fine navigable rivers, with good harbours, but have nothing remarkable in them.

New England is remarkable for its commerce; its own productions furnish a large quantity of goods for exportation; but this is far from forming the whole trade of this province, their ships are the chief carriers of all the colonies of North-America, especially to and from the West-India sugar islands. The principal commodities of the country are pig and bar iron, which, under the British government, was imported into England duty free; malts, yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they make large contracts for the royal navy; pot and pearl ashes, pipe staves, lumber, boards; all sorts of provisions, which they send to the French, Dutch, and British sugar islands; as corn, biscuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheese, apples, cyder, onions, dried mackerel and cod fish. They also send to those islands, cattle, horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe staves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calves skins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade, which was formerly very considerable, is now of small account. They have very valuable fisheries on their coast, in mackerel and cod, which employ a vast number of hands, and of which they are at great pains to reap the advantage. With the produce of these fisheries, they trade to Spain, Italy, the Levant, and the West-Indies, to a considerable amount annually.

The manufactures of this country are daily improving. They make coarse linen and woollen cloth for home consumption; hats are also made here, and sold in a clandestine manner, in all the other colonies, where they are eagerly purchased. Sugar-baking, the distillery, paper-making, and salt-works are in an improving state. The business of ship-building is one of the greatest and most profitable employments of this country. Ships are often built here upon commission; but the greatest number on their own account. The merchants of New England, as soon as a ship is constructed, load her with the produce of the country, as naval stores, fish, and train oil, and send her out on a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Levant; where, after disposing of the cargo, they engage with the merchants in carrying goods from one port to another, till an opportunity offers of selling the ship to advantage, which is generally done in a very short time. This lucrative branch of commerce is now on the decline. In the year 1738, they built at Boston

forty-one large ships, burden in all 6,324 tons; in 1749 only thirty; in 1749 they were reduced to fifteen, making in the whole no more than 2,450 tons of shipping. Since which we had no exact account, but it is supposed to continue much in the same manner. The ships and vessels built at the other towns in New England, are not included in this account.

Before the late unhappy differences, the value of British manufactures and Indian commodities sent from this province from the mother-country, on an average of three years, amounted to about 395,000*l.* and the imports to Great-Britain, about 370,500*l.* but both are greatly decreased, though the trade has been reviving for some time.

The history and government of New England demand our attention. This part of North America is at present divided into the four provinces of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut. In 1606, James I. had erected two companies by letters patent, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, being the north-east coast of America. However, as no settlements were made in consequence of this authority, the companies contented themselves with sending out a few ships to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish on their coast. Things continued in this state, till the accession of Charles I. when they were far from mending. This prince, who gave himself up entirely to church and churchmen, finished his ill conduct by placing Dr. Laud at the head of the church; this prelate, at the very time when religious dissensions, which England was torn in pieces, had become warm and furious, persecuted all sects of nonconformists with unrelenting severity; which, instead of raising terror, produced a sort of indignant hatred in the sufferers, who became every day more averse from listening to the least terms of agreement with surplices, organs, common prayer, or communion tables at the east end of the church; and there was no part of the known world whither they would not fly for liberty of conscience.

A number of the same persuasion had taken refuge in Holland at the beginning of James's reign; but even in that country, where every sect of religion is tolerated, they were equally unhappy. They were not persecuted indeed, but narrowly watched. In this state of indolent security, their zeal began to have dangerous augurs for want of opposition; and, being destitute of power and consequence, they became tired of the asylum, and desirous of residing where they had no superior. Accordingly, an agent was dispatched to England, who agreed with the company who had obtained a charter for an exclusive trade to North America, under the title of the Plymouth Council, for a tract of land in the New World for forming a settlement. The royal permission was also obtained, and a number of those restless people embarked for America, than better than a thick and gloomy forest.

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ment of New England near this part of North America, the four provinces of New England, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut, had erected two companies with a power to send colonies to be settled under the general authority of the north-east coast of America. The settlements were made by the companies sending out a few ships to trade for their furs, and to fish.

continued in this state, till when they were far from home, he gave himself up entirely to his ill conduct, and the church: this produced religious dissensions, and pieces, had become wars of nonconformists with the church, instead of raising terms of hatred in the sufferer.

was so odious to the greatest part, that one of the first persecutions in this country was exercised on a small party among themselves, who were hardy enough to mention that the civil magistrate had no power to use compulsory methods in the affairs of religion. The fury of unbridled zeal was let loose; and, after the people had been harassed by all the vexatious methods that could be devised, they were driven from their farms, and forced to fly for shelter to another district.

They settled to the southward of their brethren, near Cape Cod, where they formed a new government on their own principles, and built a town which they called Providence; and such is the connection between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode-Island, though small, became extremely populous and flourishing. In a word, as persecution gave rise to the first settlement in New England, so subsequent persecutions among themselves gave rise to new colonies, and thus facilitated the spreading of the people over the whole country; and, in process of time, America became the main asylum of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and such were the

This colony gave the name of New Plymouth to the place where they first settled. The number of adventurers was but small, they laboured at a bad season of the year, and were supported only by their own private means. The winter was dreadfully cold, and the country covered with wood, afforded very little for the refreshment of persons rendered sickly by a tedious voyage, or for the sustenance of an infant colony. The consequences were such as might have been expected; near half of them perished by the scurvy, by want, and the severity of the climate. They who survived, however, were not dispirited either by the losses or the hardships they were still doomed to endure. Supported by that vigour which then formed the character of Englishmen, and by the satisfaction of being beyond the reach of the arm of spiritual power, they reduced, by unremitting labour, the savage country to yield them a tolerable livelihood, and by degrees a comfortable subsistence. This establishment was made in the year 1620. In the mean time, the same class of people in England being harassed by the arm of ecclesiastical authority, many of them retired to their brethren in America. The colony now began to wear the face of prosperity, and, by the end of the year, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charles-Town, and Boston, of which the latter has since become the capital of New England.

It might be naturally expected that the inhabitants of New England, who had themselves so lately fled from persecution, would have been disposed to grant the greatest freedom to others in similar circumstances; but the truth is, they had no idea of such a freedom. Many of them were bigoted Calvinists; and, though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. The very doctrine of any kind of toleration was so odious to the greatest part, that one of the first persecutions in this country was exercised on a small party among themselves, who were hardy enough to mention that the civil magistrate had no power to use compulsory methods in the affairs of religion. The fury of unbridled zeal was let loose; and, after the people had been harassed by all the vexatious methods that could be devised, they were driven from their farms, and forced to fly for shelter to another district. They settled to the southward of their brethren, near Cape Cod, where they formed a new government on their own principles, and built a town which they called Providence; and such is the connection between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode-Island, though small, became extremely populous and flourishing. In a word, as persecution gave rise to the first settlement in New England, so subsequent persecutions among themselves gave rise to new colonies, and thus facilitated the spreading of the people over the whole country; and, in process of time, America became the main asylum of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and such were the

numbers which embarked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express licence from the government. It is said, that, for want of such a licence, Oliver Cromwell, and others of that party, were prevented from going to New England, after they had taken shipping with that intent.

These provinces, namely, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut, were empowered by their charter to establish such order, and form such laws as they thought requisite, provided they were not contrary to the laws of England. Strangers to the qualifications necessary in legislators, and violent enthusiasts, the first settlers imitated the ancient Jewish polity in almost every respect; they adopted the books of Moses as the laws of the land. These were ill suited to the occasion, and therefore were soon after laid aside. Few charters were ever more ample than those granted to the first settlers of New England. The colonists were indeed almost independent of their mother-country. Not only the power of making laws was vested in them, but they also enjoyed the privilege of choosing their own magistrates, the governor, the council, and the assembly. But it seems even these powers were not sufficient; for, towards the end of Charles the Second's reign, the Massachusetts colony were accused of violating their charter, as was the city of London, and deprived of it by a judgment in the King's Bench. From that time they continued without a charter till the Revolution; the bigotted reign of James the Second was a very improper season for Dissenters to apply for favours. But soon after his abdication, when English liberty was restored, the colonists of New England obtained a new charter, but much inferior in extensive privileges to the former. The appointment of the governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, were vested in the crown; the command of the militia was placed in the hands of the governor, as captain-general of the province; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, intrusted with the execution of the laws, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative in the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited. He was not obliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number; authentic copies of the several acts passed by the colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but, if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not afterwards repealable by the crown: no laws, ordinances, or elections of magistrates, or any acts of government whatever, were valid, without the governor's assent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300*l.* sterling were made to the king and council. But, notwithstanding these restrictions, the Massachusetts colony still enjoyed many valuable privileges: they not only chose the members of the assembly, or lower house of parliament, but that assembly,

sembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, which resembled the English house of lords; and the governor himself depended upon the assembly for his annual support. The ancient colony of Plymouth and territory called Main are united to the Massachusetts's government.

The colony of New Hampshire, as a royal government, was more dependent on the mother-country; the council, as well as the governor, were appointed by the crown. In other respects, the government of New Hampshire and that of Massachusetts-Bay were the same.

The colony of Connecticut never forfeited their charter; but enjoyed all the privileges granted at their first settlement.

There were originally three sorts of governments established by the English on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments. A royal government was properly so called, because the colony was immediately dependent on the crown, and the king remained sovereign of the colony. A charter government was so called, because a company, incorporated by the king's charter, was in a manner vested with sovereign authority. A proprietary government was so denominated, because the proprietor, either by purchase or gift, had a kind of regal authority.

In consequence of the independence of the colonies on the legislative authority of Great-Britain, the government of New England has been entirely changed. By an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the crown of Great-Britain, and declaring them free and independent, was, on the 25th of July 1776, publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town; and, in October 1780, a constitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, with a declaration of rights, was agreed to and established by the inhabitants of that province; the preamble to which represented, that "the end of the institution, maintenance, and administration of government, is, to secure the existence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furnish the individuals who compose it with the power of enjoying, in safety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the blessings of life; and that whenever these great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take measures necessary for their prosperity and happiness;" &c. It was in this constitution provided, amongst other things, that no peaceable subject should be hurt, molested, or restrained, in his person, liberty, or estates, for worshipping God in the manner and season most agreeable to the dictates of his own conscience: it was also enacted, that all religious societies, &c. should at all times have the exclusive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their support and maintenance; that no subordination of any sect or denomination to another should ever be established by law; and that

every denomination of Christians, demeaning themselves peaceably, and as good subjects of the commonwealth, should be equally entitled to its protection; it was likewise therein declared, that, as the liberty of the press is essential to the security of freedom in a state, it ought not therefore to be restrained in that commonwealth.

The legislative department is to be formed by a senate, and a house of representatives; each of which have a negative on the other; the senators, and members of the house of representatives, are to be elected annually; every male, of twenty-one years of age upwards, resident during one year in any particular town of the commonwealth, and possessed of a freehold estate in the said town of the annual income of fifty shillings, or any estate of 60*l.* value, is entitled to a vote for senators and representatives of the district of which he is an inhabitant. The senators are forty, viz. for Suffolk six, Essex six, Middlesex five, Hampshire four, Plymouth three, Barnstable one, Bristol three, York two, Duke's and Nantucket one, Worcester five, Cumberland one, Lincoln one, Berkshire two. The house of representatives is also chosen in certain proportions, and paid by the constituent body.

A supreme executive magistrate, who should be styled the governor of the commonwealth of Massachusetts, and also a lieutenant-governor, were directed to be annually chosen by the whole body of electors; they were to be assisted by nine counsellors, chosen by ballot, out of the senate. The secretary, treasurer, receiver-general, notaries-republic, and naval officers, are elected annually by the senators and representatives. The judiciary power is to be septennial, and the delegates to congress are to be chosen each year by and out of the senate and house of representatives, or general court. The governor has no control in the choice of officers, but has a negative on bills transmitted to him for assent from the general court.

New Hampshire and Connecticut have not long since finally settled their forms of government; for they at first, for the most part, adopted that of Massachusetts-Bay. The state of Rhode-Island adheres to their original charter as the rule of government, since it contains an ample grant of all legislative, judicial, and executive powers.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free of corruption. It is true, that from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed themselves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in a false, drawing manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New Englandman from his manner of speaking. But the same may be said with regard to a Pennsylvaniaian, a Virginian, or a Carolinian; for all have some phrases and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themselves, which distinguish them from their neighbours. Men

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The New Englanders are generally tall, stout, and
 built. They glory, and perhaps with justice, in
 that spirit of freedom, which induced their
 to leave their native country, and to brave the
 ivers of the ocean, and the hardships of settling a
 ernes. Their education, laws, and situation, serve
 spire them with high notions of liberty. Their
 is awakened at the first motion towards an in-
 on of their rights. They are indeed often jealous
 cels; a circumstance which is a fruitful source of
 rinary grievances, and of innumerable groundless
 ions, and unjust complaints against government.
 these ebullitions of jealousy, though censurable,
 productive of some political evils, shew that the
 ce of true liberty exists in New England; for jea-
 is the guardian of liberty, and a characteristic of
 republicans. A law, respecting the descent of

es which are generally held in fee simple, which
 substance is the same in all the New England states,
 the chief foundation and protection of this liberty.
 this law, the possessions of the father are to be
 ally divided among all the children, excepting the
 son, who has a double portion. In this way is
 erved that happy mediocrity among the people,
 ch, by inducing economy and industry, removes
 them temptations to luxury, and forms them to
 is of sobriety and temperance. At the same time,
 e industry and frugality exempt them from want,
 from the necessity of submitting to any encroach-
 on their liberties.

In New England learning is more generally diffused
 ong all ranks of people than in any other part of the
 e; arising from the excellent establishment of
 ools in every township.

Another very valuable source of information to the
 eople is the newspapers, of which not less than thirty
 usand are printed every week in New England, and
 ulated in almost every town and village in the
 untry.

A person of mature age, who cannot both read and
 rite, is rarely to be found. By means of this general
 establishment of schools, the extensive circulation of
 ewspapers, and the consequent spread of learning,
 ery township throughout the country is furnished
 th men capable of conducting the affairs of their town
 th judgment and discretion. These men are the
 annels of political information to the lower class of
 eople; if such a class may be said to exist in New
 ngland, where every man thinks himself at least as
 od as his neighbour, and believes that all mankind
 e, or ought to be, equal. The people from their
 hhood form habits of canvassing public affairs, and

commence politicians. This naturally leads them to
 be very inquisitive. It is with knowledge as with
 riches, the more a man has, the more he wishes to ob-
 tain; his desire has no bound. This desire after know-
 ledge, in a greater or less degree, prevails throughout
 all classes of people in New England; and from their
 various modes of expressing it, some of which are blunt
 and familiar, bordering on impertinence, strangers have
 been induced to mention *impertinent inquisitiveness* as a
 distinguishing characteristic of New England people.
 But this is true only with regard to that class of people
 who have confined themselves to domestic life, and have
 not had opportunity of mingling with the world; and
 such people are not peculiar to New England—they
 compose a great part of the citizens of every state.
 This class, it is true, is large in New England, where
 agriculture is the principal employment. But will not
 a candid and ingenious mind ascribe this inquisitiveness
 in these honest and well-meaning people to a *laudable*
 rather than to a censurable disposition?

A very considerable part of the people have either
 too little or too much learning to make peaceable sub-
 jects. They know enough, however, to think they
 know a great deal, when in fact they know but little.
 "A little learning is a dangerous thing." Each man
 has his independent system of politics; and each as-
 sumes a dictatorial office. Hence originates that rest-
 less, litigious, complaining spirit, which forms a dark
 shade in the character of New Englandmen.

This litigious temper is the genuine fruit of republi-
 canism; but it denotes a corruption of virtue, which is
 one of its essential principles. Where a people have a
 great share of freedom, an equal share of virtue is ne-
 cessary to the peaceable enjoyment of it. Freedom,
 without virtue or honour, is licentiousness.

Before the late war, which introduced into New
 England a flood of corruptions, with many improve-
 ments, the sabbath was observed with great strictness;
 no unnecessary travelling, no secular business, no visit-
 ing, no diversions were permitted on that sacred day.
 They considered it as consecrated to divine worship,
 and were generally punctual and serious in their attend-
 ance upon it. Their laws were strict in guarding the
 sabbath against every innovation. The supposed leve-
 rity with which these laws were composed and exe-
 cuted, together with some other traits in their religious
 character, have acquired, for the New Englanders, the
 name of a superstitious, bigotted people. But supersti-
 tion and bigotry are so indefinite in their significations,
 and so variously applied by persons of different princi-
 ples and educations, that it is not easy to determine
 whether they ever deserved that character. Leaving
 every person to enjoy his own opinion in regard to this
 matter, we will only observe, that, since the war, a
 catholic, tolerant spirit, occasioned by a more enlarged
 intercourse with mankind, has greatly increased, and
 is becoming universal; and if they do not break the
 proper bound, and liberalize away all true religion, of
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which there is much danger, they will counteract that strong propensity in human nature, which leads men to vibrate from one extreme to its opposite.

There is one distinguishing characteristic in the religious character of this people, which we must not omit to mention; and that is, the custom of annually celebrating fasts and thanksgivings. In the spring, the several governors issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their respective states, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladtime era in the husbandman's life, the governors again issue their proclamations, appointing a day of public thanksgiving, enumerating the public blessings received in the course of the foregoing year.

This pious custom originated with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers in New England; and has been handed down as sacred through the successive generations of their posterity. A custom so rational, and so happily calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFAC-TOR of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped will ever be sacredly preserved.

There is a class of people in New England of the baser sort, who, averse to honest industry, have recourse to knavery for subsistence. Skilled in all the arts of dishonesty, with the assumed face and frankness of integrity, they go about, like wolves in sheeps' clothing, with a design to defraud. These people, enterprising from necessity, have not confined their knavish tricks to New England. Other states have felt the effects of their villany. Hence they have characterized the New Englanders as a knavish, artful, and dishonest people. But that conduct which distinguishes only a small class of people in any nation or state, ought not to be indiscriminately ascribed to all, or be suffered to stamp their national character. In New England there is as great a proportion of honest and industrious citizens as in any of the United States.

The people of New England generally obtain their estates by hard and persevering labour: they of consequence know their value, and spend with frugality. Yet in no country do the indigent and unfortunate fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for their poor, and the necessitous stranger is protected, and relieved from their humane institutions. It may in truth be said, that in no part of the world are the people happier, better furnished with the necessaries and conveniences of life, or more independent than the farmers in New-England. As the great body of the people are hardy, independent freeholders, their manners are, as they ought to be, congenial to their employment, plain, simple, and unpolished. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artless sincerity, friendly, and unformal hospitality. Their children, those imitative creatures, to whose education particular attention is

paid, early imbibe the manners and habits of the country; and the stranger, with pleasure, receives the honest and decent respect that is paid him by the children as he passes through the country.

As the people, by representation, make their laws and appoint their own officers, they cannot be oppressed; and, living under governments which have few lucrative places, they have few motives to bribery, corrupt canvassings, or intrigue. Real abilities and moral character unblemished, are the qualifications requisite in the view of most people for officers of public trust. The expression of a wish to be promoted, in a direct way to be disappointed.

The inhabitants of New England are generally fond of the arts, and have cultivated them with great success. Their colleges have flourished beyond any others in the United States. The illustrious characters they have produced, who have distinguished themselves in poetry, law, divinity, the mathematics and philosophy, natural and civil history, and in the fine arts, particularly in poetry, evince the truth of these observations.

Many of the women in New England are handsome. They generally have fair, fresh, and healthful countenances, mingled with much female softness and delicacy. Those who have had the advantages of a good education (and they are considerably numerous) are genteel, easy, and agreeable in their manners, and are sprightly and sensible in conversation. They are taught to manage domestic concerns with neatness and economy. Ladies of the first rank and fortune make it a part of their daily business to superintend the affairs of the family. Employment at the needle, in cooking, and at the spinning-wheel, with them is honourable. Idleness, even in those of independent fortunes, is universally disreputable. The women in the country manufacture the greatest part of the clothing of their families. Their linen and woollen cloths are strong and decent. Their butter and cheese is not inferior to any in the world.

Dancing is the principal and favourite amusement in New England; and of this the young people of both sexes are extremely fond. Gaming is practised by none but those who cannot, or rather will not find a respectable employment. The gamester, the horse-jockey, and the knave, are equally despised, and their company is avoided by all who would sustain fair and irreproachable characters. The odious and inhuman practices of duelling, gouging, cock-fighting, and horse-racing, are scarcely known here.

The athletic and healthy diversions of cricket, football, quits, wrestling, jumping, hopping, foot-races, and prison-bags, are universally practised in the country, and some of them in the most populous places, and by people of almost all ranks. Squirrel-hunting is a noted diversion in country places, where this kind of game is plenty. Some divert themselves with fox-hunting, and others with the more profitable sports of fishing and duck-hunting: and in the frontier settlements, where

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...abound, the inhabitants make a lively sport in hunting them. In the winter-season, while the ground is covered with snow, which is commonly two or three months, skating is the general diversion. A great part of the miles throughout the country are furnished with sledges and sleighs. The young people collect in parties, and with a great deal of sociability resort to a place of amusement, where they regale themselves for a few hours with dancing and a social supper, and then retire. These diversions, as well as all others, are many times carried to excess. To these excesses, and a sudden exposure to extreme cold after the exercise of dancing, physicians have ascribed the consumptions which are so frequent in New England among the young people.

CH A P. VI.
N E W Y O R K .

Location, Extent and Boundaries, Rivers, Climate, Products, Cities, Towns, and Government.

THIS province is situated between 40 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and between 74 and 76 degrees of west longitude. It is about 300 miles in length, and 150 in breadth, bounded on the North by New England, on the West by Canada, on the South by Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and on the East by New England and the Atlantic Ocean. It contains 46,000 square miles. New York, including the island of the same name, Long-Island, and Staten-Island, is divided into ten counties, as follows:

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
New York	New York.
Albany	Albany.
Ulster	} None,
Duchess	
Orange	Orange.
West-Chester	West-Chester.
King's	None.
Queen's	Jamaica
Suffolk	Southampton
Richmond	Richmond

The principal rivers in New York are Hudson's and the Mohawks: the former has many excellent harbours, and is stored with a great variety of fish. Between the head and the estuary of the Mohawks river, is the natural or fall of Cohoes, where the water rushes down a precipice near seventy feet high. The only remarkable lakes in this province, are lake George, and part of the Champlain. The capes are, Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of the Raritan river; Montock Point, at

the east end of Long-Island; and Cape May, at the entrance of Delaware river.

The climate of this province is more temperate than that of New England, and the air is very healthy. The face of the country is low, flat, and marshy, towards the sea. The soil is remarkably fertile, and in general well cultivated. The vegetable productions are wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, oats, hemp, flax, and a vast variety of fruits in great abundance and perfection. The timber is nearly the same with that of New England, and large quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made from the refuse of the woods. The iron here is excellent, and found in great plenty.

New York stands between 40 deg. 40 min. north lat, and 74 deg. west long. on the fourth-west of York-Island; it is twelve miles long, and between two and three broad; extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's or the Iroquois river. The city is a mile long, and about a quarter of a mile broad. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. The inhabitants, who are chiefly the descendants of Dutch families, are computed at about 5000, and the whole province contains near 200,000. They are in general endowed with a liberal, generous, and hospitable turn of mind. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery.

Kingston is a pretty populous, well-built town, ninety miles up the river, where the *Æsopus* from New Jersey falls into it. Albany is 143 miles up the river, and but five miles below which it is parted into two branches. It contains between 3 and 400 families, and has a strong fort and garrison.

There is not much essential difference between the commerce of New York and New England. The principal commodities of the trade are wheat, flour, Indian corn, oats, beef, pork, furs, and skins. They have a considerable share in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the French and Spanish plantations. Their European trade is the same with that of New England, and they import the same species of commodities. From an average of three years, their exports amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great-Britain to 531,000l.; but whether they are the same since the late troubles in America, is not certainly known.

All religions were tolerated here, except the Jewish and Roman Catholic, and there professors enjoyed equal privileges. There was originally no established religion, except that of the Dutch, who followed the Presbyterian discipline, which was granted the inhabitants when the province surrendered to the English, can be called such. Here Protestants, according to the church of England, Dutch and English Presbyterians, German Calvinists, Lutherans, Baptists, Quakers, &c. have all their respective places of worship, and all live in harmony with one another, without discrimination or preference to any.

The synods of New York and Philadelphia, during their

their session at Philadelphia, in May 1788, resolved themselves into four synods, viz. the synod of New York; the synod of Philadelphia; the synod of Virginia; and the synod of Carolina. These synods are to meet annually in their respective states, whence they take their names; and once a year, by their commissioners, in general council, at Philadelphia.

There are a number of Presbyterian churches, commonly called *Seceders*, who have a separate ecclesiastical jurisdiction. These, as well as the other Presbyterians, and the Dutch reformed churches, hold the doctrines of the gospel upon the Calvinistic plan, without any essential differences.

The Dutch reformed churches in this state are divided into four classes, viz. the classis of New York, comprehending eighteen churches; the classis of Kingston, twenty-three churches; the classis of Albany, twenty-three churches; part of the classis of Hackinsak, four churches. These classes, together with the classes of Hackinsak and New Brunswick, in New Jersey, compose the Dutch reformed synod of New York and New Jersey. The classes consist of ministers and ruling elders; each classis delegates two ministers and an elder to represent them in synod. From the first planting of the Dutch churches in New York and New Jersey, they have, under the classis of Amsterdam, been formed exactly upon the plan of the established church of Holland, as far as that is ecclesiastical. A strict correspondence is maintained between the Dutch reformed synod of New York and New Jersey, and the synod of North Holland and the classis of Amsterdam. The acts of their synods are mutually exchanged every year, and mutual advice is given and received in disputes respecting doctrinal points and church discipline.

The principles and constitution of the Baptist churches are much the same as in Great-Britain.

The Episcopalian churches hold the same principles, have the same mode of worship and church government, and are in every other respect constituted upon the same plan with the church of the same denomination in England.

The Methodist interest, though small in this state, has greatly increased in the southern states since the revolution. They have estimated their number at 37,800. But their numbers are so various in different places, at different times, that it would be a matter of no small difficulty to find out their exact amount. The late famous Mr. John Wesley has been called the father of this religious sect. They warmly oppose the Calvinistic doctrines of election and final perseverance, and maintain that sinless perfection is attainable in this life. Their mode of preaching is entirely extemporaneous, very loud and animated, bordering on enthusiasm. They appear studiously to avoid connection in their discourses, and are fond of introducing pathetic stories, which are calculated to affect the tender passions. Their manner is very solemn, and their preaching is frequently attended with a surprising effect upon their

audiences. Their churches are supplied by their pastors in rotation.

The Shakers are a sect who sprung up in Europe. A part of them came over from England to New York in 1774, and, being joined by others, they settled Nissequama, above Albany, whence they spread their doctrines, and increased to a considerable number; but their interest is now fast declining. The late *Dea. Leese*, whom they styled the *Elect Lady*, was the founder of this sect. Her followers asserted, that she was a woman spoken of in the twelfth of the Revelation, and that she spoke seventy-two tongues; and although the tongues were unintelligible to the living, the conversation with the dead, who understood her language. They alleged also that she was the mother of all the Elect, and that she travelled for the whole world; that no blessing could descend to any person but only by and through her, and that in the way of her being possessed of these powers, by their confessing and repenting of their sins, according to her direction. The *Elect Lady* was to assert that she was immortal; that the day of judgment had commenced, and that she and her followers were already set to judge the world. But her death indisputably proved that she was not immortal as to bodily presence; and this circumstance, no doubt, has created suspicions in the minds of some of her followers respecting some other of her assertions and doctrines, and occasioned them to renounce the scheme.

Their worship, if such extravagant conduct may be so called, consists principally in dancing, singing, leaping, clapping their hands, falling on their knees, and uttering themselves in groans and sighs, in a sound resembling that of the roaring of water; turning round on their heels with astonishing swiftness, to shew, they say, the power of God. All these gesticulations are performed in the most violent and boisterous manner, and occasion, at intervals, a shuddering not unlike that of a person in a strong fit of the ague. Hence they are called, not improperly, *Shakers*.

Before we leave this head, we must mention, that in April 1784, the legislature of this state passed an act enabling all religious denominations to appoint trustees not less than three, or more than nine, who shall be a body corporate, for the purpose of taking care of the temporalities of their respective congregations, and for the other purposes therein mentioned.

The ministers of every denomination in the state are supported by the voluntary contributions of the people, raised generally by subscription, or by a tax upon the pews, except the Dutch churches in New York, Albany, Skeneclady, and Kingston, which have, except the two last, large estates confirmed by a charter. The Episcopal church also in New York possesses a very large estate in and near the city.

This province was originally settled by the Dutch and Swedes, some time before the Dissenters transported themselves into New England. They called it the New Netherlands, and continued in possession of it till

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who sprung up in Europe from England to New York and by others, they settled here, whence they spread the Dutch. This exchange produced a violent clashing among the political writers of those times: it was that the two provinces were far from being equal; that Surinam was more than double the value of the Netherlands; and, consequently, that the ministry made a very imprudent agreement; but time has recently shewn the mistake, and the superiority of the province of New York is universally allowed. The Netherlands had not been long in our possession when they were divided into provinces; and New York obtained its name from the King's brother, James, Duke of York, to whom his majesty granted it, with the powers of government, by letters patent, bearing date the 20th of March 1664. On the accession of Charles II. to the crown, this province became a royal government, and continued so till the Americans rejected their allegiance to the king of Great-Britain. The government of New York was administered by a governor, who had his commission from the crown. The legislative power was lodged in the governor, council, and house of representatives. The council consisted of 12 members nominated by the king: the house of representatives of 27 members elected by the people: in other respects, the government was as nearly conformable to the laws of England as possible. The members of representatives were elected every seven years; and no laws were valid till the royal assent had been obtained.

The supreme legislative power of this province has however, since 1777, been vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men; viz. 1. The assembly of the states of New York, to consist of 70 members: and, 2. The senate of the state of New York, to consist of 24 for four years; and are to meet once in each year for the dispatch of public business. Delegates to the congress, judges, &c. are chosen by ballot out of the senate and assembly. A governor is appointed to the supreme executive power, and to be assisted by four counsellors, chosen by and from the senate: he is to continue in office three years.

A want of good water is a great inconvenience to the citizens, there being few wells in the city. Most of the people are supplied every day with fresh water, conveyed to their doors in casks, from a pump near the end of Queen-Street, which receives it from a spring, almost a mile from the city. Several proposals have been made by individuals to supply the citizens by pipes, but none has yet been accepted.

New York is the gayest place in America. The cities, in the richness and brilliancy of their dress, are not equalled in any city of the United States; not even Charleston (S. C.) which has heretofore been called

the centre of the *beau monde*. The ladies, however, are not solely employed in attentions to dress. There are many who are studious to add to their brilliant external accomplishments, the more valuable and lasting accomplishments of the mind. Nor have they been unsuccessful; for New York can boast of great numbers of refined taste, whose minds are highly improved, and whose conversation is as inviting as their personal charms. Tinctured with a Dutch education, they manage their families with good economy and singular neatness.

In point of sociability and hospitality, New York is hardly exceeded by any town in the United States. If, however, in regard to these agreeable characteristics, the preference must be given to any one place, it decidedly belongs to Charleston. Some travellers have, in these respects, given Boston and Newport the preference to New York. Several causes have operated to diminish the sociability of the citizens of New York—particularly the change of inhabitants, by emigrations from Europe—the loss of property during the ravages of the war—and the unfavourable state of business—a great part of the time since the peace. These causes have operated no less unfavourably in some other parts of the union.

An inquirer, who would wish to acquaint himself with the true state of the people of New York, their manners and government, would naturally ask the citizens for their societies for the encouragement of sciences, arts, manufactures, &c. for their public libraries? for the patrons of literature? their well-regulated academies? for their female academy for instructing young ladies in geography, history, belles lettres, &c.? Such inquiries might be made with propriety, but could not, at present, be answered satisfactorily.

On a general view of this city, as described thirty years ago, and in its existing state, the comparison is flattering to the present age; particularly the improvements in taste, elegance of manners, and that easy unaffected civility and politeness, which form the happiness of social intercourse.

CHAP. VII.

NEW JERSEY.

Situation, &c. Divisions, Rivers, Towns, Trade, Religion, and Government.

THIS province is situated between 39 and 43 deg. of north lat. and between 74 and 76 deg. of west long. It is about 160 miles in length, and 60 in breadth; bounded by the Sound which separates Staten-Island from the Continent, and Hudson's river, on the north; by Delaware river and bay on the west and south-west; and on the south-east and east by the Atlantic Ocean.

It is divided into thirteen counties, as in the following table:

DIVISIONS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
East division, or East Jer- sey, contains	Middlesex . . .	Perth-Amboy, New-B.
	Monmouth . . .	None.
	Essex	Elizabeth, Newark.
	Somerfet	None.
	Bergen	Bergen.
West division, or West Jer- sey, contains	Burlington . . .	Burlington.
	Gloucester . . .	Gloucester.
	Salem	Salem.
	Cumberland . .	Hopewell.
	Cape May	None.
	Huntingdon . . .	Trenton.
Morris	Morris.	
Suffex	None.	

The air is healthy, and the climate nearly the same with that of New York; the soil is various; one part in four, at least, of the province, is barren, sandy land, but produces excellent pines and cedars; and the arable lands large crops of fine wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. together with a great variety of delicious fruits. There is a valuable copper mine in the county of Bergen, and excellent iron ore is found in other parts.

The principal rivers are Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic; on the latter is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock, over which the water falls, is near 70 feet perpendicular, and the breadth of the river 80 yards.

Perth-Amboy and Burlington are the chief towns; the former is situated at the mouth of the Raritan, near its efflux into Sandy-Hook Bay; the latter is pleasantly situated in a small island formed by the river Delaware, about 20 miles from Philadelphia. These towns were the seats of government; the governor generally resided in the latter. Perth-Amboy is as good a port as most on the continent; the harbour is safe, and will contain many large ships. Both have been lately made free ports for 25 years.

The foreign trade of this province is very small, owing principally to its vicinity to the large trading towns of New York and Philadelphia. The province is however in a very flourishing condition, and their paper currency, which some years ago amounted to upwards of sixty thousand pounds, has more credit than that of either Pennsylvania or New York; for the Pennsylvania bills are not received in payment in New York, nor the New York bills in Pennsylvania, whereas the New Jersey bills circulate through both these provinces.

The established religion is that of the church of England, but all religious sects are tolerated, and enjoy their respective places of worship without the least molestation. From a list of the houses appropriated to divine service, made by a member of the council in 1765, it appears, that there are in the province of New Jersey,

twenty-two episcopalian churches; fifty-seven houses belonging to the Scotch Presbyterians; nine to the Quakers; twenty-two to the Dutch Presbyterians; twenty-two to the Baptists; seven to the Moravians; one to the Separatists; and one to the Rogereans; in all 172. There is no establishment of any one religious sect in this province, in preference to another.

In 1746, Governor Belcher founded a college, Prince-Town, and procured it the privilege of conferring degrees, in the same manner as at Oxford and Cambridge. Before the late war, there were 80 and 100 students here, who came from all parts of the continent for the benefit of pursuing their studies.

The government of New Jersey is now vested in the governor, legislative council, and general assembly, which are to be annually elected. The governor and lieutenant-governor are to be chosen out of and by the general assembly and council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years. The members of the legislative council must be freeholders, worth 1000l. real and personal estate; and those of the general assembly 500l. Fifty pounds is a qualification for representatives, and all public officers.

This province was originally part of the New Netherlands, and given by Charles II. to his brother James, duke of York, who sold it, for a valuable consideration, to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret; these sold it again to others, who, in the year 1702, surrendered the government to Queen Anne. The number of inhabitants, by a list published in 1700, were about 100,000, but are supposed, since that time, to have increased to 130,000.

Many circumstances concur to render the character, manners, and customs of the people various in different parts of the state. The inhabitants are a collection of Low Dutch, Germans, English, Scotch, Irish, and New Englanders, or their descendants. National attachment and mutual convenience have generally produced these several kinds of people to settle together in a body; and in this way their peculiar national manners, customs, and character, are still preserved, especially among the lower class of people, who have little intercourse with any but those of their own nation. Religion, although its tendency is to unite people in those things that are essential to happiness, occasions wide differences as to manners, customs, and character. The Presbyterian, the Quaker, the Episcopalian, the Baptist, the German and Low Dutch Calvinist, the Methodist, and the Moravian, have each their distinguishing characteristics, either in their worship, their discipline, or their dress. There is still another very perceptible characteristic difference, distinguished from either of the others, which arises from the intercourse of the inhabitants with different states. The people in West Jersey trade to Philadelphia, and of course imitate their fashions, and imbrace their manners.

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to render the character of the people various in different parts. The inhabitants are a collection of English, Scotch, Irish, and German descendants. National prejudices have generally been removed, and the people to settle together. Their peculiar national manners are still preserved, especially of people, who have little

of their own national prejudices is to unite people in all to happiness, occasions, manners, customs, and even the Quaker, the Episcopalian, the German and Low Dutch, and the Moravian, have each their peculiarities, either in their words or dress. There is still an essential difference, distinguished by the different States. The Quakers to Philadelphia, and the Germans to imbibe their manners.

inhabitants of East Jersey trade to New York, and to imitate their fashions and manners according to those of New York. So that the difference in regard to the fashions and manners between East and West Jersey, is nearly as great as between New York and Philadelphia. As to all these, the differences common in all countries, arising from the various occupations of men, such as the mechanic, the divine, the lawyer, the physician, the merchant, the clownish, the decent, and the respectable farmer, of whom have different pursuits, or pursue the same differently, and of course must have a different set of ideas and manners: when we take into view all these differences (and all these differences exist in New Jersey, in many of them in all the other states) it cannot be expected that many general observations will apply. It is, however, in truth, to be said, that the people of New Jersey are generally industrious, frugal, and hospitable. There are comparatively but few men of fortune in the state, nor can it be said that the people generally have a taste for the sciences. The lower ranks, in which may be included three-fifths of the inhabitants of the whole state, are ignorant, and are generally neglectful in the education of their children: there are, however, a number of gentlemen of the first rank in abilities and learning in the civil offices of the state, and in the several learned professions.

It is not the business of a geographer to compliment ladies; nor would we be thought to do it when we say that there is at least as great a number of industrious, neat, amiable, genteel, and handsome women in New Jersey, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as in any of the thirteen states. Whether an adequate degree of solid mental improvement, answerable to the personal and other useful qualities we have mentioned, is to be found among the fair of this state, is a more weighty concern. Perhaps it may be said with justice, that in general, though there is not the same universal taste for knowledge discernible among the ladies here, as in some other of the states, owing to a great measure, to the state of society, and the means of improvement, there are, however, many significant instances of improved talents among them, not surpassed by those of their sisters in any of the other states.

Among the several religious sects in America, that of the Dumplers, or Dunkards, is one of the most harmless, and perhaps the most extraordinary, that has ever appeared since the establishment of Christianity. They reside at a small town called Ephrata, situated on the frontiers of the province, between two little hills, in the most delightful situation that can well be imagined, if nature had created it for the indulgence of contemplation. A German hermit, who settled on the spot where Ephrata is now built, was the founder of this extraordinary sect. The Germans of both sexes, who first saw the hermit, soon accustomed themselves to his way of thinking, and consequently to his manner of living; industry became part of their duty, and divided

their time with devotion. Their gains they throw into one common stock, which supplies all their exigencies, private as well as public. Their females are cloistered by themselves in a separate part of the town, the situation of which is delightful, and screens them from the north wind. Both their dress and diet are very simple. They hold free-will; deny the doctrine of original sin; disclaim all violence; observe the Sabbath very strictly; their prayers and sermons are extempore; the Christian virtues are the subjects of their discourses; they imagine the souls of departed Christians are employed in converting others who had been ignorant of the gospel; and, lastly, they deny the eternity of hell torments. These people live in harmony and mutual affection, and their hospitality to strangers is unbounded, but they never accept any recompense.

There are, in this state, about fifty Presbyterian congregations, subject to the care of three presbyteries, viz. that of New York, of New Brunswick, and Philadelphia. A part of the charge of New York and Philadelphia presbyteries lies in New Jersey, and part in their own respective states. To supply these congregations, there are at present about twenty-five ministers.

There are upwards of forty congregations of Friends, commonly called Quakers; who are in general sober, plain, industrious, good citizens. For an account of their religious tenets, see Pennsylvania.

There are thirty associated congregations of Baptists in New Jersey, whose religious tenets are similar to those already mentioned under Connecticut.

The Episcopalian interest consists of twenty-five congregations.

There are, in this state, two classes belonging to the Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jersey. The classis of Hackensack, to which belong thirteen congregations; and the classis of New Brunswick, to which belong fifteen congregations. We have already given an account of their church government, discipline, &c.

The Moravians have a flourishing settlement at Hope, in Suffex county. This settlement was begun in 1771, and now consists of upwards of 100 souls.

The Methodist interest is small in this state. The Swedes have a church in Gloucester county; and there are three congregations of the Seventh-Day Baptists. All these religious denominations live together in peace and harmony; and are allowed, by the constitution of the state, to worship Almighty God agreeably to the dictates of their own consciences; and are not compelled to attend or support any worship contrary to their own faith and judgment. All Protestant inhabitants, of peaceable behaviour, are eligible to the civil offices of the state.

There are two colleges in New Jersey one at Princeton, called Nassau-Hall, the other at Brunswick, called Queen's College. The college at Princeton was first founded by charter from John Hamilton, Esq. President of the Council, about the year 1738, and enlarged

larged by Governor Belcher in 1747. The charter delegates a power of granting to "the students of said college, or to any others thought worthy of them, all such degrees as are granted in either of our universities, or any other college in Great-Britain." It has twenty-three trustees. The governor of the state, and the president of the college, are, *ex officio*, two of them. It has an annual income of about 9000. currency; of which 2000. arises from funded public securities and lands, and the rest from the fees of the students. The president of the college is likewise professor of eloquence, criticism, and chronology. The vice-president is also professor of divinity and moral philosophy. There is besides a professor of mathematics and natural philosophy; and two masters of languages. The four classes in college contain about seventy students. There is a grammar school, of about thirty scholars, connected with the college, under the superintendance of the president, and taught by two masters.

Before the war this college was furnished with a philosophical apparatus, worth 5000. which (except the elegant orrery constructed by Mr. Rittenhouse) was almost entirely destroyed by the British army in the late war, as was also the library, which now consists of between 2 and 3000 volumes.

The college edifice is handsomely built with stone, and is 180 feet in length, fifty-four in breadth, and four stories high; and is divided into forty-two convenient chambers for the accommodation of the students, besides a dining hall, chapel room, and a room for the library. Its situation is exceedingly pleasant and healthful. The view from the college balcony is extensive and charming.

This college has been under the care of a succession of presidents eminent for piety and learning; and has furnished a number of civilians, divines, and physicians, of the first rank in America. It is remarkable, that all the presidents of this college, except Dr. Witherpoon, who is now president, were removed by death very soon after their election into office.

The charter for Queen's College, at Brunswick, was granted just before the war, in consequence of an application from a body of the Dutch church. Its funds, raised wholly by free donations, amounted, soon after its establishment, to 4000.; but they were considerably diminished by the war. The students are under the care of President Hardenberg. The grammar school, which is connected with the college, consists of between thirty and forty students, under the care of the trustees. This college has lately increased both in numbers and reputation.

There are a number of flourishing academies in this state. One at Trenton, in which are about eighty students in the different branches. It has a fund of about 1500. per annum, arising from the interest on public securities. Another in Hackinsak, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of 100 scholars. Instruction and board are said to be cheaper here than in any part of the state. There is another flourishing academy at Orangedale, in the county of Essex, consisting of nearly

as many scholars as either of the others, furnished with able instructors, and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabeth Town, and consists of upwards of twenty students in the languages, and is increasing. There is also an academy in Burlington, in which young ladies and gentlemen are taught the English language grammatically, geography, and other learned languages. Besides these, there are grammar schools at Newark, Springfield, Morristown, Boon town, and Amboy. There are no regular establishments for common schools in the state. The usual mode of education is, for the inhabitants of a village or neighbourhood to join in affording a temporary supply for a school-master, upon such terms as is mutually agreeable. But the encouragement which these occasional teachers meet with, is generally such, as that a person of abilities adequate to the business will not take it; and, of course, little advantage is derived from these schools. The improvement in these common schools is generally in proportion to the wages of the teacher.

M. Briffot de Warville, in his "New Travels through the United States of America," has given us the following interesting account of the school of negroes at Philadelphia:

"There exists, then, a country (says he) where the negroes are allowed to have souls, and to be endowed with understanding capable of being formed to virtue and useful knowledge; where they are not regarded as beasts of burden, in order that we may have the privilege of treating them as such.—There exists a country where the blacks, by their virtue and their industry, rebelye the calumnies which their tyrants elsewhere lay against them; where no difference is perceived between the memory of a black head whose hair is craped by nature, and that of a white one craped by art. I have had a proof of this to-day. I have seen, heard, and examined these black children. They read well, repeat from memory, and calculate with rapidity. I have seen a picture painted by a young negro, who never had a master: it was surprisngly well done.

"I saw in this school, a mulatto, one-eighth negro, it is impossible to distinguish him from a white boy. His eyes discovered an extraordinary vivacity; and this is a general characteristic of people of that origin.

"The black girls, besides reading, writing, and the principles of religion, are taught spinning, needle-work, &c. and their mistresses assure me, that they discover much ingenuity. They have the appearance of decency, attention, and submission. It is a nursery of good servants and virtuous housekeepers. How criminal are the planters of the islands, who form but a debauchery and ignominy creatures so capable of being fashioned to virtue!

"It is to Benezet that humanity owes this useful establishment—to that Benezet whom Chastelleux has not blushed to ridicule, for the sake of gaining the infamous applauses of the parasites of despotism.

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The life of this extraordinary man merits to be known to such men as dare to think, who esteem more the benefactors of their fellow-creatures, than their oppressors, so basely idolized by many during their

Anthony Benezet was born at St. Quintin, in Picardy, in 1712. Fanaticism, under the protection of a bigot king, directed by an infamous confessor, and an infamous woman, spread at that time its ravages in France. The parents of Benezet were Calvinists; they fled to England, and he embraced the doctrines of the Quakers. He went to Philadelphia in commerce, the business to which he had been educated. But the rigidity of his principles and his taste not agreeing with the spirit of commerce, he quitted that business in 1736, and accepted a place in the academy of that society. From that time all his moments were consecrated to public instruction, the relief of the poor, and the defence of the unhappy negroes. Benezet possessed an universal philanthropy, which was not common at that time; he regarded, as his brothers, all men, of all countries, and of all colours; he composed many works, in which he collected all the authorities from Scripture, and from other writings, to discourage and condemn the slave trade and slavery. His works had very much influence in determining the Quakers to emancipate their

It was not enough to set at liberty the unhappy blacks; it was necessary to instruct them—to find them school-masters. And where should he find men willing to devote themselves to a task which prejudice rendered painful and disgusting? No obstacle could arrest the zeal of Benezet; he set the first example himself; he consecrated his little fortune to the foundation of this school; his brethren lent some assistance; and by the help of the donations of the Society of London, the school for blacks at Philadelphia enjoys a revenue of 200l. sterling.

He consecrated his fortune and his talents to their instruction; and in 1784, death removed him from his holy occupation, to receive his reward. The tears of the blacks, which watered his tomb, the sighs of his fraternity, and of every friend of humanity which attended his departing spirit, must be a prize more precious than the laurels of a conqueror.

Benezet carried always in his pocket a copy of his works on the slavery of the blacks, which he gave and recommended to every one he met, who had not seen them. It is a method generally followed by the Society of friends. They extend the works of utility; and it is the true way of gaining proselytes.

This philanthropic Quaker was preceded in the same career, by many others, whom I ought to mention. He celebrated George Fox, founder of this sect, went from England to Barbadoes in the year 1673, not to

preach against slavery, but to instruct the blacks in the knowledge of God, and to engage masters to treat them with mildness.

" The minds of men were not yet ripe for this reform; neither were they when William Burling, of Long-Island, in 1718, published a Treatise against Slavery. He was a respectable Quaker: he preached, but in vain; the hour was not yet come.

" Ought not this circumstance to encourage the friends of the blacks in France? Sixty years of combat were necessary to conquer the prejudice of avarice in America. One year is scarcely passed since the foundation of the Society at Paris; and some apostates already appear, because success has not crowned their first endeavours.

" Burling was followed by Judge Sewal, a Presbyterian of Massachusetts. He presented to the General Assembly a Treatise entitled, 'Joseph sold by his brethren.' He discovers the purest principles, and completely overturns the hackneyed arguments of the traders, respecting the pretended wars of the African princes.

" It is often said against the writings of the friends of the blacks, that they have not been witnesses of the sufferings which they describe. This reproach cannot be made against Benjamin Lay, an Englishman, who, brought up in the African trade, afterwards a planter at Barbadoes, abandoned his plantation, on account of the horror inspired by the frightful terrors of slavery endured by the negroes. He retired to Philadelphia, became a Quaker, and ceased not the remainder of his life to preach and write for the abolition of slavery. His principal treatise on this subject appeared in 1737. He was thought to have too much zeal, and to have exaggerated in his descriptions. But these defects were expiated by a life without a stain, by an indefatigable zeal for humanity, and by profound meditations. Lay was simple in his dress, and animated in his speech; he was all on fire when he spoke on slavery. He died in 1760, in the 80th year of his age.

" One of the men most distinguished in this career of humanity, was a Quaker, named John Woolman. He was born in 1700. Early formed to meditation, he was judged by the Friends worthy of being a minister at the age of twenty-two. He travelled much to extend the doctrines of the sect; but was always on foot, and without money or provisions, because he would imitate the apostles, and be in a situation to be more useful to the poor people, and to the blacks. He abhorred slavery so much, that he would not taste any food that was produced by the labour of slaves. The last discourse that he pronounced, was on this subject. In 1772, he undertook a voyage to England, to concert measures with the Friends there, on the same subject; where he

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died of the small-pox. He left several useful works, one of which has been through many editions, entitled 'Considerations on the Slavery of the Blacks.'

An Account of the METHODS used to abolish SLAVERY in America.

"WOOLMAN and Benezet had in vain employed all their efforts to effect the abolition of this traffic under the English government. The mistaken interest of the mother-country caused all the petitions to be rejected in the year 1772; yet the minds of men were prepared in some of the colonies; and scarcely was independence declared, when a general cry arose against this commerce. It appeared absurd for men defending their own liberty, to deny liberty to others. A pamphlet was printed, in which the principles on which slavery is founded, were held up in contrast with those which laid the foundation of the new constitution.

"This palpable method of stating the subject was attended with a happy success; and the Congress, in 1774, declared the slavery of the blacks to be incompatible with the basis of republican governments. Different legislatures hastened to consecrate this principle of Congress.

"Three distinct epochs mark the conduct of the Americans in this business—the prohibition of the importation of slaves—their manumission—and the provision made for their instruction. All the different states are not equally advanced in these three objects.

"In the northern and middle states, they have prohibited for ever the importation of slaves; in others, this prohibition is limited to a certain time. In South Carolina, where it was limited to three years, it has lately been extended to three years more. Georgia is the only state that continues to receive transported slaves. Yet, when General Oglethorpe laid the foundation of this colony, he ordained, that neither man nor slaves should ever be imported into it. This law, in both its articles, was very soon violated.

"We must acknowledge however, that the Americans, more than any other people, are convinced that all men are born free, and equal: we must acknowledge, that they direct themselves generally by this principle of equality; that the Quakers, who have begun, who have propagated, and who still propagate this revolution of sentiment, have been guided by a principle of religion, and that they have sacrificed to it their personal interests.

"Unhappily their opinion on this subject has not yet become universal, interest still combats it with some success in the southern states. A numerous party still argues the impossibility of cultivating their soil without the hands of slaves, and the impossibility of

augmenting their number without recruiting them Africa. It is to the influence of this party, in the General Convention, that is to be attributed the article which tarnishes that glorious monument of human reason, the new federal system of the United States. It was this party that proposed to bind the hands of the new Congress, and to put it out of power for twenty years to prohibit the importation of slaves. It was said to this august assembly, Sign the article, or we will withdraw from the union. To avoid the evils, which, without meliorating the fate of the blacks, would attend a political schism, the Convention was forced to waver from the grand principle of universal liberty, and the preceding declaration of Congress. They thought it their duty to imitate Solon, to make, not the best law possible, but the best circumstances would bear.

"But, though this article has surprised the friends of liberty in Europe, where the secret causes were not known; though it has grieved the society in England, who are ready to accuse the new legislation of a cowardly defection from their principles; yet may regard the general and irrevocable proscription of the slave-trade in the United States, as very near hand. This conclusion results from the nature of things, and even from the article itself of the new constitution now cited. Indeed, nine states have already done it; the blacks, which there abound, are considered as free. There are then nine asylums for them to escape to from Georgia; not to speak of the neighbourhood of the Floridas, where the slaves from Georgia take refuge, in hopes to find better treatment from Spaniards; and not to speak of those vast forests and inaccessible mountains which make part of the Southern States; and where the persecuted negro may easily find a retreat from slavery. The communications with the back country are so easy, that it is impossible to prevent the fugitives; and the expence of reclaiming is proportioned to their value. And though the Southern states do not in appearance oppose these reclamations, yet the people there hold slavery in such horror, that the master who runs after his human property, receives little respect, and finds little assistance. Thus the possibility of flight creates a new discouragement to the importation, as it must lessen the value of the slave, induce to a milder treatment; and finally tend, with the concurrence of other circumstances, to convince the Georgian planter, that it is more simple, more profitable, and less expensive, to cultivate by the hands of freemen. We are right then in saying, that the nature of things in America is against the importation of slaves.

"Besides, the Congress will be authorised in twenty years to pronounce definitively on this article. By that time, the sentiments of humanity, and the calculation of reason, will prevail; they will no longer be forced to sacrifice equity to convenience, or have any thing to fear from opposition or schism."

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CHAP. VIII.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Section, &c. Divisions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Towns, Inhabitants, Penn's Settlement and Government.

THE province of Pennsylvania is situated between 39 and 44 deg. of north lat. and between 74 and 80 deg. of well long. It is about 300 miles in length, and 100 in breadth; bounded, on the north, by the country of the Iroquois, or five nations; on the south, by Maryland; on the east, by the Delaware river, which separates it from New Jersey; and on the west by the Pennsylvania river. It is divided as in the following table.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Philadelphia.....	Philadelphia.
Chester.....	Chester.
Bucks.....	Newtown.
Berks.....	Reading.
Northampton.....	Easton.
Lancaster.....	Lancaster.
York.....	York.
Cumberland.....	Carlisle.

To these we may add Bedford, a county westward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchased by Mr. Penn, from the Indians, in 1768, and established in 1771.

Besides these, the three following counties, situated in the Delaware, formed, in some measure, a separate government, having an assembly of their own, though the same governor with the province of Pennsylvania. It is now distinct, and called the Delaware state, having a president, council, and house of assembly; judges, and other officers of state, civil and military.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Newcastle.....	Newcastle..
Kent.....	Dover.....
Suffex.....	Lewis.....

} on Delaware.

The air of Pennsylvania is clear, sweet, and healthy. In the fall, or autumn, begins about the 20th of October, and lasts till the beginning of December, when the winter sets in and continues till March; during which the weather is often so very severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad at Philadelphia, is frozen over. The spring commences in March, and continues till June, when the weather is more unsettled than in the other seasons. The months of July, August, and September, are the summer months, when the heat would be intolerable were it not mitigated by frequent cool breezes. During the summer the wind

is generally at south-west, but in the winter at north-west, which, by passing over the frozen mountains and lakes of Canada, renders the cold so excessive at that season. The soil is not greatly different from that of New York, but something more fertile; nor is there so much sandy and useless land in Pennsylvania as in New York. Some rice, but no great quantity, is cultivated here; and there are some tobacco plantations, but the produce is not equal to that of Virginia. In all parts of our plantations, from New York to the extremity of Florida, the woods are full of vines of different species. They are very thick at the bottom, and bear great plenty of grapes, but very small. From these the Indians procure a sort of wine, with which they often regale themselves. The timber produced in Pennsylvania is of the same species as that of New England; but here, and in all the southern colonies, it is not so proper for shipping as that of the northern colonies; it is less compact, and splits with a much smaller force. These properties render it less valuable in ship-building, but more useful for pipe-staves, and wainscoting.

The principal rivers in this province are the Delaware, the Susquehanna, and the Schuylkill. The Delaware is navigable more than 200 miles above the city of Philadelphia. The Susquehanna is also navigable a great way up the country. The Schuylkill is navigable for boats above 100 miles. These rivers, with the numerous creeks and harbours in Delaware bay, are extremely favourable both to the foreign and inland trade of Pennsylvania.

This province has many towns that deserve particular notice; but the city of Philadelphia stands unrivalled in British America, and when completed will, in point of plan and regularity, exceed any in Europe. The city forms a parallelogram, or long square, two miles in length, and one in breadth; extending from the river Delaware to the Schuylkill, forming, as it were, a connection between these two navigable rivers. The plan of this elegant city was drawn by William Penn, at once the founder and legislator of this flourishing colony. Part of the plan is already executed, and will in all probability soon be completed. Every quarter of the city will then form a square of eight acres; having in the centre a square of ten acres, surrounded by the town-house, and other public buildings. The high-street is an hundred feet wide, and extends the whole breadth of the town, from one of the above rivers to the other. Parallel to the high-street run nineteen others, which are crossed by eight more at right angles, all of them thirty feet wide, and communicate by canals with the two rivers; which add at once to the beauty and wholesomeness of the city. According to the original plan, every person who possessed 1000 acres in any part of the province, was to have his house either in one of the fronts facing the river, or in the high-street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Besides the above.

above.

above privilege every owner of 5000 acres, was entitled to an acre of ground in the front of his house, and all others half an acre for gardens and court-yards. The town-house is a stately, spacious, and regular building, and would be an ornament to any capital in Europe. The other public buildings, which consist chiefly of structures dedicated to religion, besides the military barracks, markets, and almshouses, are proportionally grand. The quays are spacious and noble; the principal quay is 200 feet wide, furnished with cranes, and other conveniences for loading, and unloading ships; and the water is so deep, that a ship of 500 tons burden, may lay her broadside to the quay. The proprietor's seat, where the governor usually resides, is situated about a mile above the town, and is the first private building both for magnificence and situation in all British America. But the noblest institution in Pennsylvania, is the academy established some years since in Philadelphia. Very considerable subscriptions were raised both in England and Scotland for completing this noble design, and it bids fair in time to rival the most celebrated seminaries of learning in the mother country. The number of inhabitants in Philadelphia is computed at 30,000. The meetings of the general congress of America were held in this city from the year 1774 till 1777, when the British troops took possession of it, but the king's forces retreating to New York in 1778, the congress again made Philadelphia their residence.

There are several towns besides the capital in the county of Philadelphia; the most considerable are, Germantown, so called from being inhabited wholly by Germans; Frankfort, Abington, Dublin, Radnor, and Amerland. In the county of Bucks, are Bristol, Falls-Town, and Pensbury. In the county of Chester, are Chester, Chichester, and Marcus Hook. Newcastle, Haverfordwest, Merioneth, and St. George, are found in the county of Newcastle; Dover, Cranebrook, Marden; and Mespeliven plantations, in the county of Kent; Lewis in the county of Suffex; and Lancaster in the county of that name.

The inhabitants in the province of Pennsylvania, are not less than 350,000, half of whom are Germans, Swedes, or Dutch. It is certainly very right policy to encourage the importation of foreigners into Pennsylvania, as well as into our other colonies. By this we are gainers without diminishing the inhabitants of Great-Britain. But it has been frequently lamented, that these people are suffered to remain foreigners, and likely to continue so for many generations; they have erected schools of their own, printed books, and even the common newspapers in their own language; by which means, together with their possessing large tracts of land without any intermixture of English, they continue, as it were, a separate people. At the same time, their remarkable industry, frugality, and abstemious method of living, enable them to increase their tract of country to the ruin of the Americans;

so that there is some danger of the whole colony coming in time wholly foreign in language, in manners, and perhaps in inclinations. It seems therefore necessary that some regulations should take place with regard to their settlement, and some means be pursued in order to naturalize them effectually. But it may however, be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of Pennsylvania, are an industrious and hardy people; most of them are substantial, though few of the persons possessed of landed property are rich. They are all well lodged, well fed, and, when their circumstances are considered, well clothed; and at a more reasonable rate than can be well imagined, as the inferior manufactures most of their wearing apparel, both of linen and woollen.

A great number of wealthy merchants inhabit the city of Philadelphia. Nor will this appear surprising when the great trade they carry on is considered. Their commerce is not confined to the provinces of America, it is extended to the French, Dutch, and Spanish colonies; to the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; to Great-Britain, and Ireland; and to Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Many of the branches of trade are very profitable, and cannot begeth of enriching a frugal and industrious people. Besides the quantity of commodities produced by this province and brought down the rivers Delaware and Schuylkill, the Dutch employ several hundred waggons, each drawn by four horses, in bringing the produce of their farms to the markets of Philadelphia. In the year 1774, 303 vessels entered at this port, and 291 cleared outwards. The commodities formerly exported to Great-Britain, and other markets, besides timber, ships materials, for sale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, consisted of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500. But after the conclusion of the late war, trade had greatly increased, that the duty in Philadelphia upon imported goods of a 4 percent. *ad valorem*, produced from the 1st of March 1784, to the 1st of December 1784, 132,000*l.* which, supposing their value not undervalued, nor any indirect methods used to save the duty, makes their value amount to the amazing sum of 3,168,000*l.*

This province, together with New Jersey and New York, composed what was formerly called the New Netherlands, and was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. After the country was taken by the English, Admiral Penn, who in conjunction with the Venables, had some years before taken the island of Jamaica, being greatly in favour with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of the tract of country now called Pennsylvania, from that monarch. Upon the Admiral's death, his son, the celebrated founder and legislator of Pennsylvania, claimed the royal promise, and after a tedious court solicitation, obtained the

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ent in right of his father. Conscious that the only
method of rendering the grant he had obtained from
fairly valuable to himself, was to make both the
country and its government as agreeable as possible to the
settlers, he began with purchasing the soil, at a low
price, indeed from the Indians, as the original possessors,
whom it was of very little value. By this cheap act
of justice at the beginning, he rendered all his future
dealings with these people successful. Prepossessed
with a favourable opinion of him as to his designs,
they were so far from giving any disturbance to the set-
tlers, that they were ready to give them assistance when-
ever it was wanted.

Having thus wisely secured the Indians, he applied
himself to execute the other part of his plan, that of
improving the country. This he found greatly facilitated
by the uneasiness of his brethren the Quakers in
England, who, by refusing to pay tithes and other
church dues, suffered a kind of persecution from the
Bishops. Their high opinion and regard for Penn, who
indeed an honour to their new church, made them
more ready to follow him over a wide and pathless
sea, to settle in a country then little better than a
howling wilderness, and in a climate whose properties
were unknown. Nor was he himself wanting in any
thing that had the least tendency to encourage and sup-
port the resolution they had formed. He expended
great sums of money in transporting, and finding them
all necessaries; and not aiming at a sudden profit,
but at great man disposed of his lands at a very small pur-
chase; soil for 1000 acres, and 1s. quit-rent for every
acre, were the reasonable terms on which he bestowed
them. At this time land is granted at 12l. for every
100 acres, with a quit-rent of 4s. reserved. Near
Philadelphia land lets at 20s. the acre, and even at
several miles distance from that city, sells at 20 years
purchase. By pursuing such a generous plan, the
colony of Pennsylvania was soon established, and has
since been rapidly increasing.

But what crowned all his proceedings was the noble
charter of privileges, by which he made them as free
as any people in the world; and which has since in-
duced such vast numbers of people of different per-
suasions and different countries to abandon their native
land, and put themselves under the protection of his
laws. All his institutions were founded on the solid
basis of civil and religious liberty, considered in its full
extent. No laws can be made without the consent
of the people given by the suffrages of their repre-
sentatives in the general assembly. Even matters of
benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have
extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The
rights of widows and orphans were to be inquired into
by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes
between man and man were not to be subjected to the
delay and chicanery of the law, but to be decided by
wise and honest arbitrators. In short, such was the ex-
cellent spirit of the laws framed by William Penn, that

had he been a native of Greece, his statue would have
been placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus.

Religious liberty was founded on the same ample
basis. Christians of all denominations might not only
live unmolested in the colony, but even have a share in
the government. In a word, the diversity of people,
religions, nations, and languages here, is prodigious;
and what is still more wonderful, they live together in
harmony.

In consequence of the plan for a new constitution
agreed on at the Convention of Philadelphia in 1776,
the commonwealth, or state of Pennsylvania is now
governed by an assembly of the representatives of the
freemen of the same, and a president and council; the
supreme legislative power is vested in a house of repre-
sentatives of the freemen of the state; and the supreme
executive power is vested in a president and council of
twelve. It was likewise agreed, that the house of rep-
resentatives should consist of persons most noted for
wisdom and virtue, to be chosen annually by the free-
men of every city and county. The president of the
supreme executive council may appoint and com-
mission judges, naval officers, a judge of the admiralty,
attorney general, and other officers, civil and military;
he is likewise empowered to hold the office of com-
mander in chief of the forces of the state, but shall
not command in person, except advised thereto by the
council, and then only so long as they shall approve.
All trials to be by jury; and that freedom of speech,
and of the press, to be allowed. All persons in public
offices are required to declare their belief in one God,
the creator and governor of the universe, the rewarder
of the good, and the punisher of the wicked; and are
also to acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New
Testament to be given by divine inspiration. This plan
of government contained a variety of other particu-
lars; amongst which, we shall only mention the
following; viz. that the freemen are to elect annually,
by ballot, for each city and county, two persons, to be
called the council of censors, whose business it is
to examine into the conduct of the legislative and
executive powers. The other is, the training and
arming the freemen and their sons for the defence of the
commonwealth, under such regulations, restrictions,
and exceptions, as the general assembly should by law
direct, with liberty for the people to choose their own
officers, &c.

In a plan for the establishment of public schools, and
the diffusion of knowledge in Pennsylvania, by Dr.
Benjamin Rush, professor of chemistry in the Univer-
sity of Philadelphia, lately published, there is this ob-
servation in a note, "There are 600 schools in the
small state of Connecticut, which have in them 25,000
scholars;" and mark the good effects of education
"only two natives of this state have been condemned
in the course of the last 25 years: is there any county
in England, either great or small, can make such a glo-
rious

rious boast? The German Lutherans in Pennsylvania take uncommon pains in the education of their youth; not one of this society has submitted to the ignominy of a legal punishment of any kind in the course of the last 17 years." The writer of the above intelligence hereupon very pertinently remarks, that, "in all cases whatever, no argument can possibly overthrow or exceed real matter of fact. What can we think then of those persons (continues he) who, so far from contributing to the support and encouraging of Sunday schools, have been weak or wicked enough to write against them? If ever a reformation can be effected on the morals of the people, it must be done by instilling better principles into, and inuring to better habits, the rising generation. And how can this be better done for the poor than in Sunday schools?"

Of the great variety of religious denominations in Pennsylvania, the Friends, or Quakers, are the most numerous. George Fox is called the father of this religious sect, because he first collected them into a society in England, about the middle of the 17th century. The true appellation of these people is Friends; that of Quakers was early and invidiously given them by way of contempt. They came over to America as early as 1656, but were not indulged the free exercise of their religion in New England.

They were the first settlers of Pennsylvania in 1682, under William Penn, and have ever since flourished in the free enjoyment of their religion. They believe that God has given to all men sufficient light to work their salvation, unless it be resisted: that this light is as extensive as the seed of sin, and saves those who have not the outward means of salvation; that this light is a divine principle, in which dwells God, the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost. They maintain that the Scriptures are not the principal ground of all truth and knowledge: nor yet the primary rule of faith and manners; but because they give a true testimony of the first foundation, they are and may be esteemed a secondary rule, subordinate to the Spirit, from whom they derive all their excellence. They believe that immediate revelation has not ceased, but that a measure of the Spirit is given to every person. That as, by the light or gift of God, all spiritual knowledge is received, those who have this gift, whether male or female, though without human commission or learning, ought to preach; and to preach freely, as they have freely received the gift. All true and acceptable worship of God, they maintain, is by the inward and immediate moving of his Spirit; and that water baptism and the Lord's supper were commanded only for a time. They neither give titles, nor use compliments in their conversation, or writings, believing that *whatsoever is more than yea, yea, and nay, nay, cometh of evil*. They conscientiously avoid, as unlawful, kneeling, bowing, or uncovering the head to any person. They discard all superfluities in dress or equipage; all games, sports, and plays, as unbecoming the Christian.

'Swear not at all' is an article of their creed, likewise observed in its utmost extent. They believe it unlawful to fight in any case whatever; and think that their enemy *smite them on the one cheek, they ought to smite him the other also*. They are generally honest, punctual, and even punctilious, in their dealings; providing for the necessities of their poor; friends to the humane, and of course enemies to slavery; strict in their discipline; careful in the observance even of the punctilios in dress, speech, and manners, which their religion enjoins; faithful in the education of their children; industrious in their several occupations. In whatever peculiarities and mistakes those of other denominations have supposed they have fallen into, at the point of religious doctrines, they have proved themselves to be good citizens. Next to the Quakers, the Presbyterians are the most numerous, concerning whom we have nothing to add to what we have already said under New York.

The Protestant episcopal church of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and South-Carolina, met in convention at Philadelphia, October 1785, and revised the book of common prayer, and administration of the sacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, and published and proposed the book, thus revised, for the use of the church. The revision was made in part, in order to render the liturgy consistent with the American revolution, and the constitutions of the several states. In this they have discovered their liberality and their patriotism. In Pennsylvania and the southern states this revised book is pretty generally used by the episcopal churches. In New York and New Jersey it has not been adopted.

There are upwards of sixty ministers of the Lutheran and Calvinist religion, who are of German extraction, now in this state; all of whom have one or more congregations under their care; and many of them preach in splendid and expensive churches; and yet the Lutheran minister, who arrived in Pennsylvania about fifty years ago, was alive in 1787, and probably is still 1793, as was also the second Calvinistical minister.

CHAP. IX.

DELAWARE.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Divisions, Rivers, Soil, Productions, Chief Towns, &c.

THIS province is situated between 38 deg. 30 min. and 40 deg. north lat. and 1 deg. 45 min. west long. is 92 miles in length, and 16 in breadth. It is bounded, on the north, by the territorial or boundary line, which divides it from Pennsylvania; east, by Delaware river and bay; south, by a due east and west line, from Cape Henlopen, in lat. 38 deg. 30 min.

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P. IX.

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*Climate, Divisions, Rivers,
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min. to the middle of the peninsula, which line
 sides the state from Worcester county in Maryland;
 west, by Maryland, from which it is divided by a line
 down from the western termination of the southern
 boundary line, northwards up the said peninsula, till it
 either forms a tangent to the western part of the
 periphery of the above-mentioned territorial circle:
 containing about 1400 square miles.

The climate is in many parts unhealthy. The land
 is generally low and flat, which occasions the waters
 to stagnate, and the consequence is, the inhabitants
 are subject to intermittents.

The Delaware state is divided into three counties,
 viz. Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex; its chief towns are,
 Wilmington and Newcastle, Dover, Milford, and
 Lewistown.

The rivers are, Choptank, Nanticok, and POCO-
 NOK; all have their sources in this state, and are
 navigable for vessels of 50 or 60 tons, 20 or 30 miles
 to the country. They all run a westwardly course
 to Chesapeake Bay. The eastern side of the state,
 along Delaware bay and river, is indented with a great
 number of small creeks, but none considerable enough
 to merit a description.

With respect to soil and productions, the south part
 of the state is a low flat country, and a considerable
 portion of it lies in forest. What is under cultivation
 is chiefly barren, except in Indian corn, of which it
 produces fine crops. In some places rye and flax may
 be raised, but wheat is a stranger in these parts.
 There nature is deficient in one resource, she is
 generally bountiful in another. This is verified in
 the tall, thick forests of pines, which are manufactured
 into boards, and exported in large quantities into every
 part of the three adjoining states.—As you pro-
 ceed north the soil is more fertile, and produces wheat
 in large quantities, which is the staple commodity of
 the state. They raise all the other kinds of grain
 common to Pennsylvania. The state has no mountain
 but one, except Thunder Hill, in the western part of
 Newcastle county, and is generally level, except some
 small parts, which are stony and uneven.

The chief towns are the following: **DOVER**, in the
 county of Kent, is the seat of government. It stands
 on Jones' creek, a few miles from the Delaware river,
 and consists of about 100 houses, principally of brick.
 Four streets intersect each other at right angles, in the
 centre of the town, whose incidencies form a spacious
 square on the east side of which is an elegant state-
 house of brick. The town has a lively appearance,
 and drives on a considerable trade with Philadelphia.
 Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing
 is five or six miles from the town of Dover.

NEWCASTLE is thirty-five miles below Philadelphia,
 on the west bank of Delaware river. It was first settled
 by the Swedes, about the year 1627, and called Stock-
 holm. It was afterwards taken by the Dutch, and
 called New Amsterdam. When it fell into the hands

of the English, it was called by its present name. It
 contains about sixty houses, which have the aspect of
 decay, and was formerly the seat of government.—
 This is the first town that was settled on Delaware
 river.

WILMINGTON is situated a mile and a half west of
 Delaware river, on Christiana creek, twenty-eight miles
 southward from Philadelphia. It is much the largest
 and pleasantest town in the state, containing about 400
 houses, which are handsomely built upon a gentle
 ascent of an eminence, and shew to great advantage
 as you sail up the Delaware.

Besides other public buildings, there is a flourishing
 academy of about forty or fifty scholars, who are
 taught the languages, and some of the sciences, by an
 able instructor. This academy, in proper time, is in-
 tended to be erected into a college. There is another
 academy at Newark, in this county, which was in-
 corporated in 1769, and then had fourteen Trustees.

MILFORD, the little emporium of Sussex county, is
 situated at the source of a small river, fifteen miles
 from Delaware bay, and 150 southward of Philadel-
 phia. This town, which contains about eighty houses,
 has been built, except one house, since the revolution.
 It is laid out with much taste, and is by no means dis-
 agreeable. The inhabitants are Episcopalian, Quakers,
 and Methodists.

DUCK CREEK, is twelve miles north-west from
 Dover, and has about sixty houses, which stand on
 one street. It carries on a considerable trade with
 Philadelphia—and certainly merits a more pompous
 name. A mile south from this is situated Governor
 Collins's plantation. His house, which is large and
 elegant, stands a quarter of a mile from the road, and
 has a pleasing effect upon the eye of the traveller.

The trade of this state, which is inconsiderable, is
 carried on principally with Philadelphia, in boats and
 shallops. The articles exported are principally wheat,
 corn, lumber, and hay.

With respect to religion, there are, in this state,
 twenty-one Presbyterian congregations, belonging to
 the Synod of Philadelphia—Seven Episcopal churches
 —Six congregations of Baptists, containing about 218
 souls—Four congregations of the people called Quakers;
 besides a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one
 of the oldest churches in the United States, and a
 number of Methodists. All these denominations have
 free toleration by the constitution, and live together
 in harmony.

In the convention held at Philadelphia, in the
 summer of 1787, the inhabitants of this state were
 reckoned at 37,000, which is about twenty-six for
 every square mile. There is no obvious characteris-
 tical difference between the inhabitants of this state
 and the Pennsylvanians.

At the revolution, the three lower counties on
 Delaware became independent by the name of *The
 Delaware State*. Under their present constitution,
 which

which was established in September 1776, the legislature is divided into two distinct branches, which together are styled *The General Assembly of Delaware*. One branch, called the *House of Assembly*, consists of seven representatives from each of the three counties, chosen annually by the freeholders. The other branch, called the *Council*, consists of nine members, three for a county, who must be more than twenty-five years of age, chosen likewise by the freeholders. A rotation of members is established by displacing one member for a county at the end of every year.

All money bills must originate in the house of assembly, but they may be altered, amended, or rejected by the legislative council.

A president or chief magistrate is chosen by the joint ballot of both houses, and continues in office three years; at the expiration of which period, he is ineligible the three succeeding years. If his office becomes vacant during the recess of the legislature, or he is unable to attend to business, the speaker of the legislative council is vice-president for the time; and in his absence, the powers of the president devolve upon the speaker of the assembly.

A privy council, consisting of four members, two from each house, chosen by ballot, is constituted to assist the chief magistrate in the administration of the government.

The three justices of the supreme court, a judge of admiralty, and four justices of the common pleas and orphans courts, are appointed by the joint ballot of the president and general assembly, and commissioned by the president—to hold their offices during good behaviour. The president and privy council appoint the secretary, the attorney-general, registers for the probate of wills, registers in chancery, clerks of the common pleas, and orphans courts, and clerks of the peace, who hold their offices during five years, unless sooner removed for mal-conduct.

The house of assembly name twenty-four persons in each county for justices of peace, from which number the president, with the advice of his council, appoints and commissions twelve, who serve for seven years, unless sooner dismissed for mal-administration. The members of the legislative and privy councils are justices of the peace for the whole state.

The courts of common pleas and orphans courts have power to hold chancery courts in certain cases.

The clerk of the supreme court is appointed by the chief justice; and the recorder of deeds, by the justices of the common pleas; for five years, unless sooner dismissed.

All the military and marine officers are appointed by the general assembly.

The court of appeals consists of seven persons—the president, who is member, and presides by virtue of his office, and six others, three to be chosen by the legislative council, and three by the house of assembly. To this court appeals lie from the supreme court, in

all matters of law and equity. The judges hold their office during their good behaviour.

The justices of the several courts, the members of the privy council, secretary, trustees of the office, clerks of the common pleas, and all persons concerned in army or navy contracts, are ineligible either house of assembly. Every member, before taking his seat, must take the oath of allegiance, subscribe a religious test, declaring his belief in the Father, in Jesus Christ, and the Holy Ghost; and in the inspiration of the Scriptures.

The house of assembly have the privilege of impeaching delinquent officers of government, and impeachments are to be prosecuted by the attorney-general, or other person appointed by the assembly, and tried before the legislative council. The punishment may extend to temporary or perpetual disability to hold offices under government, or to such other penalties as the laws shall direct.

There is, in Delaware, no establishment of one religious sect in preference to another, nor can a preacher or clergyman, while in his pastoral employment, hold any civil office in the state.

In treating of the HISTORY of this province, it will be proper to observe, that the Dutch, under the pretence of a purchase made of Henry Hudson, took possession of the lands on both sides the river Delaware; and as early as the year 1623, built a fort at the place, which has since been called Gloucester.

In 1627, by the influence of William Uffling, a respectable merchant in Sweden, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over, furnished with all the necessaries for beginning a new settlement, and landed at Cape Henlopen; at which time the Dutch had just quitted the country. The Dutch, however, returned in 1630, and built a fort at Lewistown, by the name Hoarkill. The year following the Swedes built a fort near Wilmington, which they called Christen or Christiana. Here also they laid out a small town, which was afterwards demolished by the Dutch. The same year they erected a fort higher up the river, upon Tenecum island, which they called New Gottenburgh; they also, about the same time, built forts at Chester, Elsinburgh, and other places. John Printz then governed the Swedes, who, in 1646, deputed his son-in-law, John Pappoia, and returned to Sweden. Pappoia soon followed his father-in-law to his native country, and John Ryfing succeeded to the government.

In 1655, the Dutch, under the command of Peter Stuyvesant, arrived in Delaware river, from New Amsterdam (now New York) in seven vessels, with 6 or 700 men. They dispossessed the Swedes of their forts on the river, and carried the officers and principal inhabitants prisoners to New Amsterdam, and thence to Holland. The common people submitted to the conquerors and remained in the country.

GEOGRAPHY.

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On the first of October 1664, Sir Robert Carr ob-
ed the submission of the Swedes on Delaware
Four years after, Colonel Nicolls, Governor
New-York, with his Council, on the 1st of April,
ointed a *scout* and five other persons, to assist
tain Carr in the government of the country.

In 1672, the town of Newcastle was incorporated
the government of New-York, to be governed by
illiff and six assistants; after the first year, the four
t were to leave their office, and four others to be
en.

The bailiff was president, with a double
; the constable was chosen by the bench. They
power to try causes not exceeding ten pounds,
out appeal. The office of *scout* was converted
that of sheriff, who had jurisdiction in the cor-
tion and along the river, and was annually chosen.
ry were to have a free trade, without being obliged
ake entry at New York, as had formerly been the
office.

Wampum was, at this time, the principal currency
the country. Governor Lovelace, of New York,
proclamation, ordered that four white grains and
the black ones, should pass for the value of a stiver or
ny. This proclamation was published at Albany,
out, Delaware, Long-Island, and the parts ad-
cent.

In 1674, Charles II. by a second patent, dated June
granted to his brother, Duke of York, all that
nty called by the Dutch *New Netherlands*, of which
three counties of Newcastle, Kent, and Suffex
re a part.

In 1683, the Duke of York, by deed, dated August
th, sold to William Penn, the town of Newcastle,
th the district of twelve miles round the same; and
another deed, of the same date, granted to him the
remainder of the territory, which, till the Revolution,
s called the Three Lower Counties, and has since
en called the Delaware State. Till 1776, these
ee counties were considered as a part of Pennsyl-
nia, in matters of government. The same gover-
prefided over both, but the assembly and courts
judicature were different: different as to their
salituent members, but in form nearly the same.

C H A P. X.

M A R Y L A N D.

Situation, &c. Divisions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Inhabitants, Discovery of it, Former and Present Government.

THIS province is situated between the 75th and
80th deg. of west long. and between the 37th and
40th of north lat. It is about 140 miles in length, and
85 in breadth; being bounded by Virginia, on the

south; by the Apalachian mountains, on the west; by
Pennsylvania, on the north; and by the Atlantic
Ocean, and another part of Pennsylvania, on the east.

The Bay of Chesapeak divides Maryland into two
parts, viz. the eastern and western.

DIVISIONS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
The eastern division contains the coun- ties of.....	Somerset.....	Somerset.
	Dorchester.....	Dorchester.
	Talbot.....	Oxford.
	Cecil.	
The west division contains the coun- ties of.....	St. Mary's.....	St. Mary's.
	Charles.....	Bristol.
	Prince George....	Masterkent.
	Calvert.....	Abington.
	Ann Arundel.....	Annapolis.
Baltimore.....	Baltimore.	

Maryland is a healthy country, and enjoys a clear
air; the summers are excessively hot, and the winters
are equally cold, but short. The soil is extremely
good, when cultivated. The chief vegetable pro-
duction is tobacco, but great quantities of hemp and
flax, Indian corn and grain, with most kind of fruits,
are now produced here. The trees are oaks, black
walnuts, poplars, cedars, and chestnuts. The hills
are in general of easy ascent, and yield iron ore.
The woods contain prodigious herds of wild swine.

The chief rivers are, Potomack, Pocomac,
Patuxent, Severn, Cheptrouk, Sassafras, Wicomicoc,
and St. George. These and several others are navi-
gable for large ships, and add greatly to the fer-
tility of the soil. The chief bays are those of Ches-
apeak and Delaware, and the most noted cape that of
Henlopen, at the entrance of Delaware-Bay.

The inhabitants of Maryland were some years ago
computed at 80,000, but are now supposed to amount
to 220,700. Its commerce pretty nearly resembles
that of Virginia, and will therefore be considered under
that head. We shall only mention here, that, besides
tobacco, their exports are, salted pork, iron, flax, and
hemp. In 1782, a college was founded at Chester-
Town, in this province, under the name of Washing-
ton-College, in honour of General Washington, Com-
mander in Chief of the American forces, during the
late war.

Maryland was discovered in the year 1606, when
Virginia was first planted, and for some time was
esteemed a part of Virginia, till King Charles I. in
1632, granted all that part of Virginia which lay north
of Potomack river to the Lord Baltimore, of the
kingdom of Ireland, and his heirs. The year fol-
lowing about 200 Popish families, some of con-
siderable distinction, embarked with his lordship, to
enter into possession of this new territory. These
settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding
which distinguishes gentlemen of every religion, bought
their

their land at an easy price of the native Indians, and for some time lived with them in the greatest harmony and friendship. Their generous method of proceeding gained the confidence of the natives; they ceded to them one half of their principal town, and soon after gave up the whole to these strangers. The Indian women taught the English the manner of making bread of their corn; the men took the English with them when they went either to hunt or fish; they assisted them in the chase, and sold them the game they took themselves for a trifling consideration; so that the new settlers had a sort of town ready built, ground ready cleared for their subsistence, and no enemy to disturb them in the quiet possession of the country: but envy, the growth of every clime, instigated the neighbouring planters in Virginia to destroy the happiness of the Baltimore colony. They spread ill-grounded reports among the Indians, in order to render them jealous of their new friends. Alarmed at the consequences of a war with the savages, the Popish settlers erected a fort with the greatest expedition, and took every other method in their power to secure themselves from the brutal fury of the Indians, but at the same time treated them with every act of kindness in their power. These precautions and friendly dispositions had the desired effect; the Indians, awed by their preparations, and soothed by the generous treatment they received, laid aside their hostile intentions, and the malicious designs of the Virginian planters were rendered abortive.

The flourishing state of this infant colony, and the uninterrupted peace they had enjoyed in their new settlement, induced many of the Roman Catholic families in England, the severity of whose treatment increased in proportion as the power of the royal cause declined, to leave their native soil, and join their brethren in Maryland. They were encouraged and supported by the governor, and the colony continued to receive fresh reinforcements, till the English constitution was overturned, and Cromwell seized the reins of government. Baltimore had nothing to hope from the protector; he had always been a warm friend to the royal party, and therefore expected to fall with the cause of his master. He was not deceived; he was deprived of his rights; and a new governor substituted in his room. Under this government Maryland continued till the Restoration, when Lord Baltimore was re-instated in his lawful possessions, which he cultivated with his former wisdom, care, and moderation.

Not satisfied with procuring ease and security for his own sect, he was desirous of extending the benefits of his mild and equitable administration to others. Accordingly, he procured an act of assembly to be passed, for allowing a free and unlimited toleration for all who professed the Christian religion, of whatever denomination. This liberty, which was

never violated, encouraged a great number, not only of the church of England, but Presbyterians, Quakers, and all kinds of Dissenters, to settle in Maryland. But though Lord Baltimore had received his charter from Charles I. though he had always been attached to the royal cause, though he was guilty of no mal-administration, yet the bigoted and tyrannical council of James the Second, who wanted dissentment to distinguish friends from enemies, deprived this noble family of their rights and possessions, the Revolution, however, Lord Baltimore was re-put in possession of the profits of his province, which were not inconsiderable, though he was not re-stituted to the right of government; which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman Catholic. But soon as his descendants had conformed to the church of England, they were re-instated in all their rights fully as the legislature thought fit for them to be enjoyed by any proprietor.

The government of Maryland exactly resembles that of Virginia, except with regard to the appointment of the governor, which belonged to the proprietors; but he was confirmed by the king. The customs also belonged to the crown, and the governor appointed to collect them were independent of the government of the province. The Roman Catholic religion was at first the only one professed in the country. At the Revolution, the original constitution was reversed, the Protestant religion was established, and the Papists excluded from all offices and power, and even the penal laws of England were adopted against them. The church of England was established by law, and the clergy were paid in tobacco; every Christian male sixteen years old, negroes male and female, above that age, was obliged to pay forty pounds of tobacco, or pay the value in cash, if he raised no tobacco; it was levied by the sheriff, among other public burdens, and yielded about 1000. sterling, at a medium, to each; and dissenting clergy were not exempted.

But by the declaration of rights, and the constitution established and agreed to in the convention of delegates at Annapolis, in August 1746, the legislature is now to consist of the senate and the house of delegates; the latter to be annually chosen, viva voce by the freeholders in every respective county, five delegates each; Baltimore town and the city of Annapolis, two each: the delegates for the senate are to be elected in like manner every five years, two for each county, out of whom fifteen senators are to be chosen by ballot; nine for the western, and six for the eastern shire. The executive power is lodged in a governor and five council, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly, who may appoint the chancellor, judges, field officers, &c. but the sheriffs and justices of the peace are chosen by the freeholders in each county. A freehold of fifty acres or property to the value of 300. gives a right of suffrage

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twenty-one years of age. Before any person can be
appointed to any office of profit or trust, a declaration
in his belief in the Christian religion must be subscribed
to him.

CHAP. XI.
VIRGINIA.

Location, &c. Divisions, Population, Climate, Produce, Animals, Birds, Fish, Vegetables, Rivers, Trade, Inhabitants, Buildings, and Government.

VIRGINIA is situated between the 75th and
90th deg. of west long. and between the 36th and
40th of north lat. It is about 750 miles in length, and
100 in breadth; bounded by Carolina, on the south;
the river Potomack, which divides it from Mary-
land, on the north-east; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the
east; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the west.
It is properly divided into four parts: the north, the
middle, the south, and east.

In the north division are the counties of Nor-
folk, Lancaster, Westmoreland, Richmond,
Stafford; containing the parishes of Wincomoca,
Christ-Church, and St. Paul's.

In the middle division are the counties of Essex,
Middlesex, Gloucester, King and Queen, King Wil-
m, New Kent, Elizabeth, Warwick, York, Princeps-
burg; containing the parishes of Farnham, Christ-
church, Abingdon, Stratton, St. John's, St. Peter's,
Elizabeth, Denby, York, and Lynhaven.

In the south division are the counties of Norfolk,
Sussex, Stafford, Isle of Wight, Surry, Prince George,
Charles, Henrico, James; containing the parishes of
Elizabeth, Chutakuk, Newport, Southwark, Wyanoke,
Yellower, Brillol, James Town, and Williamsburg.

In the east division, between Chesapeak-Bay and the
Ocean, is the county of Accomac; with its parish of the
same name.

With respect to population, Mr. Jefferson, in his
letter to Virginia, allows a duplication of souls here
in twenty-seven years and a quarter. He takes
the space of 118 years inclusive, from 1654 until the
year 1772, when the tythes of Virginia had increased
from 7,209 to 153,000; which estimate, he says, is
probated by the particular uniformity of the in-
mediate enumeration, taken in 1700, 1748, and
1759. According to this increase, he supposes the in-
habitants of Virginia alone will amount to between
7,000,000 within ninety-six years.

The climate of this province is subject to violent
and sudden changes, in consequence of the air and
seasons depending greatly on the wind as to heat and
cold, dryness and moisture. The north and north-

west winds are piercing cold, and either clear or
stormy; the south-east and south, hazy and sultry hot,
but in winter the air is clear and dry. The frosts
are short, but so severe, that rivers, three miles in
breadth, are frequently frozen entirely over. The
spring is about a month earlier than in England;
in April the rains are frequent; in May and June the
heat increases; and the summer nearly resembles ours,
the heat being mitigated with gentle sea-breezes that
begin to blow about nine in the morning, increasing
and decreasing as the sun rises or falls. In July and
August these breezes cease, when the air becomes
stagnant and sultry hot: in September the weather
generally changes suddenly, and heavy rains fall, which
produce a terrible effect on the health of the in-
habitants. Storms of thunder and lightning are very
frequent here, but they seldom are attended by any
mischief. It is a general observation in regard to all
these colonies, that as they become inhabited, and
the lands cleared, the air is improved, and rendered
more salutary; for the whole country, before it was
planted, was one continued forest, interspersed with
swamps or marshes.

As to the face of this country, it is generally low,
and flat towards the sea, and for 100 miles within, so
that there is scarce a hill or stone to be seen, except
here and there some rocks of iron ore, and some banks
of a kind of petrified oyster shells. In the inland
parts the soil is light and sandy; but towards the sea-
coast, and on the banks of rivers, it is generally very
rich, yielding very good corn, and tobacco.

Virginia has, in common with the chief part of the
American provinces, elks, bears, wolves, foxes, a
species of panther, or tyger, red deer, musk rats, ra-
coons, beavers, and wolves; but the most curious
animal found in that country is the opossum, which is
about the size of a cat, and, besides the belly common
to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to it-
self, hanging beneath the former. This additional
belly has a large aperture towards the hinder legs,
which discovers a number of teats on the usual part of
the common belly. Upon these, when the female of
this animal conceives, the young are formed, and,
when arrived at their appointed size, drop from thence
into the second belly, from whence they go out at
pleasure, and into which they are received whenever
there is the least appearance of danger. Horses, cows,
sheep, and hogs, were animals unknown in America,
till introduced from Europe, and now, particularly in
Virginia and the southern colonies, they run wild in
prodigious numbers.

In this province, are several sorts of eagles, hawks,
and owls. The white owl is esteemed a great curiosity,
all the feathers of the back and breast being perfectly
white, except a black spot underneath the throat.
Their turkeys are exceeding large, some of them
weighing forty pounds. The partridges are not so big
as those of England, but their flesh finely flavoured,

as are every other sort of wild fowl. The Virginian nightingale, which takes its distinguishing epithet from this province, is adorned with a plumage of bright crimson and blue, and sings most delightfully; but his note is thought to be exceeded by the mocking bird, which is likewise an inhabitant of Virginia. The natural note of this bird is prodigiously fine, besides which, as its appellation implies, it attains that of the linnæus, lark, nightingale, &c.

Fish of all sorts are found here in vast quantities, and three species of them are remarkable, viz. the sting-grass, the toad-fish, and tobacco-pipe-fish. The first takes its name from a sting in its tail; the second, from its swelling to a monstrous size when taken out of the water; and the third, from its resemblance to a tobacco-pipe. In February, March, April, and May, shoals of herrings come up, even into the brooks, some of which are about the size of ours, but, in general, they are much larger.

Snakes, particularly the rattle-snake, and lizards, abound here; and in summer great number of worms are found in the waters, which having a sort of horn or screw on their heads, force their passage into the bottoms and sides of ships, whenever they find the coat of pitch, tar, or lime worn off.

The principal vegetable production in Virginia, as in Maryland, is tobacco. The culture of this plant, which in its excellent quality surpasses that of all other countries, so engrosses the attention of the inhabitants, that they only rear corn sufficient for their own use. The next object of their attention, is hemp and flax, great quantities of which are exported from this country; rice is likewise cultivated, but very sparingly. The forests yield oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypresses, sweet bay-trees, chestnuts, hickory, walnut, dog-wood, elder, hazel, chinkapines, locust-trees, sassafras, elm, ash, and beech. A great variety of sweet gums and incense distil from several of these trees, and others produce pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, plank-timber, masts, and yards. The trees in general are much looser than ours, and no underwood or bushes grow beneath, so that travellers may cross the forests on horseback, and always find a comfortable shelter from the intense heat of the climate in the middle of summer. Besides excellent pasture, many places produce a species of grass, called silk grass, the fibres of which are as fine as flax, and much stronger than hemp. The plains and vallies are adorned with an almost perpetual succession of flowers, among which are the finest crown imperial in the world, the cardinal flower, and the tulip-bearing laurel-tree.

The principal rivers in this country are James river, York river, Rappahannock, and Potomack, all of which rise in the Apalachian mountains, and, running along the borders of this province from the north-west to the south-east, fall into the bay of Chesapeake, which is near 300 miles in length, 18 in breadth in some places, and seven in others; in most places

the water is nine fathoms deep. James river is usually about two miles in breadth, and navigable at least 27 leagues. York and Rappahannock rivers are not so large; but Potomack is navigable for 200 miles.

Here are quarries of stones, mines of coals and lead, and vast quantities of iron ore.

The Virginians, before the late war, carried on a great trade with the West-Indies in lumber, pitch, tar, corn, and provisions; and with Great-Britain in flax, hemp, iron, pipe-staves, and planks: but its principal articles of export, and chief manufacture, was tobacco; and it is computed that this province, together with that of Maryland, exported, of tobacco alone, to the amount of value of 768,000*l.* into Great-Britain, which, at 8*l.* per hoghead, makes the number of hogheads amount to 96,000. Of these it is supposed about 13,500 hogheads are consumed at home, the duty on which, at 26*l.* 1*s.* per hoghead, amounts to 351,675*l.* The remaining 82,500 hogheads are exported by our merchants to other parts of Europe, and their value returned to Great-Britain. This, however, was not the only advantage we reaped from so extensive a branch of commerce: in the prosecution of it no less than 330 sail of ships, and 7,960 seamen were employed; so that not only our wealth, but the refinements of our national strength were braced by it. The whole of our imports from Maryland and Virginia were said to amount to 1,040,000*l.* annually, while our exports to those places, which consisted of the same articles with which we furnished our other colonies, came to 865,000*l.*

The number of white people in Virginia are said to be 100,000, and the negroes nearly twice that number. The better sort of people among them are cheerful, hospitable, and genteel; but they have, with too much justice, acquired the character of being once vain and ostentatious.

The American Indians on the frontiers of Virginia are of a middling stature, straight and well proportioned with the finest limbs in the world; nor is there a dwarf or misshapen person among them. Their colour is that of copper, rendered darker by greasing themselves, and being exposed to the weather. They have black eyes, and their hair is coal-black, which the men cut into several shapes, and both men and women grease so that it shines. The better sort wear a kind of coronet four or five inches broad, and open at the top composed of a sort of beads, and some a wreath of dyed furs; they have also bracelets on their necks and arms; but the common people go bare-headed, and they stick large shining feathers in their hair. Their clothes are a large mantle, carelessly wrapped round their bodies, and sometimes girt closely with a girdle. The common sort only pass a piece of cloth or skin round their middles, and put a piece of cloth or skin between their thighs, which turns over the string at each end. Their shoes, when they wear any, are made of an entire piece of buckskin. The dress of the women

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men differs little from that of the men, only the
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ly go naked as far as the navel downwards, and
wards to the middle of the thigh; their breasts are
and small, and never hang down as those of
black women on the coast of Guinea. Instead
keeping their children warm, they dip them over
and ears in cold water as soon as born, and then
them to a board with something soft, in which
they remain till their limbs begin to acquire
strength, when they are set at liberty, and suf-
fer to crawl about in the best manner they can.

The chief part of the inhabitants of Virginia are
members of the church of England, and the rest are
Baptists and Presbyterians. In each parish there is a
church built with brick, stone, or timber, and decently
furnished with all things necessary for the celebration of
the service. When the parishes are large there is a
chapel of ease, and sometimes two, for the convenience
of the parishioners. The annual income of the ministers
settled at 16,000l. of tobacco each, besides perqui-
tes, which they are allowed to make. Formerly, the
parish and churches were under the immediate inspection
of a commissary, appointed by the Bishop of London,
the power of induction, upon the presentation of
candidates, was lodged in the hands of the governor.

Virginia is adorned by several magnificent public
buildings, but the only towns worthy the least notice
are Williamsburg and James-Town. The former was
the seat of the government, assembly, and chief courts,
and contains a college, called William and Mary Col-
lege, having been founded by William III. who gave
10,000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with
power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2,000l.
per year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all
tobacco exported to the other plantations. It consists
of a president, six masters or professors, and other
officers, who are named by the governors or visitors.
The Hon. Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to
this college for the education of Indian children. Be-
sides this college, there are some other handsome edifi-
ces in Williamsburg, as the town house, the church,
a magazine for arms and ammunition, a public prison,
a fort, and a play-house.

James-Town is situated about 26 miles above the
mouth of the river of that name; it was once the
capital, and the seat of government, but is now dwindle
d into an inconsiderable village.

This was the first colony planted in America by the
English. It has been already observed that Sebastian
Cabot, in the year 1497, discovered the northern con-
tinent of the New World; but nothing was done
towards settling a colony till the reign of Queen
Elizabeth. Sir Walter Raleigh, one of the most ex-
traordinary geniuses of his own, or perhaps any other
ages, was the first Englishman that attempted a set-
tlement in America. He was the only person who had

any idea of the nature of foreign trade, or was capable of
forming a right conception of the advantage of settle-
ments in a distant country. Animated with the idea of
future greatness, and desirous of increasing the pow-
er and commerce of his native country, he applied to the
queen for a patent; and having got together a company
composed of several persons of distinction, and many
eminent merchants, they agreed to settle a colony, and
open a trade in that part of the world, which, in
honour of Queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia.

Towards the close of the 16th century, several
attempts were made for settling this colony, but with-
out success. The three first companies who sailed into
Virginia, perished through hunger and diseases, or
were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced
to almost the same situation; and being dwindled to a
small remnant, had set sail for England, in despair of
living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by
fierce and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Che-
sapeake-Bay, they were met by Lord Delaware, with a
squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing
necessary for their support and defence. At his per-
suasion they returned; and by his wise management
and engaging behaviour, the government of the colony
was settled within itself, and began to appear formida-
ble to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted
the government of this unpromising colony, from the
best motives, was obliged, by the decline of his health,
to return to England. However, he left behind him
his son, as deputy, with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George
Simmers, the Hon. George Percy, and Mr. Newport,
for his council. They erected James-Town, the first
place built by the English in the New World; they
cleared large tracts of land, and raised a sufficient
quantity of corn and vegetables for their support.
The value of this colony now began to be known in
England; and great numbers of people transported
themselves to Virginia, which was considered as one of
the genuine sources of wealth. During the dreadful
troubles in the reign of Charles I. many of the royal
party fled to Virginia, and under the conduct of Sir
William Berkeley held out for the crown, till the par-
liament, rather by stratagem than force, found means
to reduce them.

After the Restoration, the history of this colony has
very few interesting events: a kind of rebellion, indeed,
broke out in Virginia, on account of the mismanage-
ment of the government, and some restrictions laid
upon trade. The insurgents were headed by one Bacon,
a young gentleman bred to the law; but the unexpected
death of their leader restored the peace of the colony,
and prevented the dreadful consequences of a civil war.

At the first establishment of this colony, the govern-
ment was adapted to the principles of the English
constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty
which every Englishman considers as his birthright.
It was directed by a governor and council appointed by
the crown; but, as the inhabitants increased, the in-
convenience

conveniency of this government became more conspicuous: the people complained, and it was found necessary to give them a share in the government. Accordingly a new branch was added to the legislature: the people were allowed to elect their own representatives for each county into which the colony is divided, with privileges resembling those of the commons of England: and thus two houses, called the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, continued on its former footing; the members were appointed by the crown; they held their posts during pleasure; were styled honourable, and answered, in some measure, to the British house of peers. The lower house was the guardian of the liberties of the people; and the governor represented the king. Thus the government of Virginia bore a striking resemblance to the British. When any bill had passed the two houses of assembly, it was sent up to the governor, who gave his assent or negative as he thought proper; but it did not acquire the force of a law, till it had been transmitted to England, and received his majesty's approbation. The upper house of assembly, besides making a part of the legislature, formed also a privy-council to the governor, who, without their consent, could do nothing of moment: it sometimes acted also as a court of chancery.

With regard to the present government of Virginia, the convention at Williamsburg, in July 1776, agreed, that the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments should be separate and distinct. The house of delegates are to be chosen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the district of West Augusta, and one representative for the city of Williamsburg and town of Norfolk. The senate consists of 24 members, chosen by the freeholders of the state, and divided into 20 districts. The executive government is a governor and privy council of eight members, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly of the state, who also elect the delegates to congress, the judges, president, treasurer, secretary, justices, sheriff, coroners, &c.

A DESCRIPTION of the Situation and Plan of the CITY of WASHINGTON, in the District of Columbia, in North-America, now building for the METROPOLIS of the UNITED STATES.

THE city of Washington, in the district of Columbia, now building for the permanent seat of the government of the United States of America, stands at the junction of the rivers Potomack and the Eastern Branch, extending about four miles up each, including a tract of territory scarcely to be exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by any in the world: for although the land is apparently level, yet, by gentle and gradual swellings, a variety of

elegant prospects are produced. This territory partly in the state of Virginia, and partly in that of Maryland, and was ceded by those two states, to the United States of America, and by them established to be the seat of government, after the year 1800.

Within the limits of the city are twenty-five natural springs of excellent water; and, by digging wells, water of the best quality is readily had: besides the never-failing streams that now run through the territory, are also to be collected for the use of the city.

The Eastern Branch is one of the safest and most commodious harbours in America, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships, for about four miles above the mouth; while the channel lies close along the edge of the city, and is abundantly capacious. This branch contains thirty and thirty-five feet to near the upper end of the city, where it is eighteen and twenty feet deep.

The city being situated upon the great post road, exactly equidistant from the northern and southern extremities of the Union, and nearly so from the Atlantic Ocean to the River Ohio, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of the richest commercial territory in America, commanding the most extensive internal resources, is by far the most eligible situation for the residence of Congress; and it is now pressing forward by the public-spirited enterprise, not only of the people of the United States, but also of foreigners.

The inland navigation of the Potomack is so far advanced, that craft loaded with produce now come down that river and its several branches, from upwards of 180 miles to the great falls, which are within fourteen miles of the new city. The canals at the great and little falls are nearly completed, and the locks in such forwardness, that, in the course of the ensuing summer, the navigation will be entirely opened between tide water and the head branches of the Potomack, which will produce a communication by water between the city of Washington and the interior parts of Virginia and Maryland, by means of the Potomack, the Shannandoah, the South Branch, Opecan, Cape Capon, Paterfon's Creek, Conococheague, and Monocasy, for upwards of 200 miles through one of the most healthy, pleasant, and fertile regions in America, producing, in vast abundance, tobacco of superior quality, hemp, Indian corn, wheat, and other small grain, with fruit and vegetables peculiar to America, in vast abundance.

The lands upon the Potomack above the city of Washington, all around it, and for sixty miles below, are high and dry, abounding with innumerable springs of excellent water, and are well covered with large timber of various kinds. A few miles below the city, upon the banks of the Potomack, are inexhaustible mountains of excellent freestone, of the white and red Portland kinds, of which the public edifices in the city are now building. Above the city also, upon the

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banks of the river, are immense quantities of ex-
cellent coal, limestone, and marble, with blue slate
of the best quality.

The founding of this city, in such an eligible situa-
tion, upon such a liberal and elegant plan, will by
future generations be considered as a high proof of
the judgment and wisdom of the present president of
the United States, while its name will keep fresh in
the mind, to the end of time, the obligations they are
under to that illustrious character.

The plan of this city, agreeably to the directions
of the president of the United States, was designed by
Major L'Enfant, and is an inconceivable improve-
ment upon all other cities, combining not only con-
venience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free
circulation of air, but every thing grand and beautiful
that can be introduced into a city.

The city is divided into squares or grand divisions,
the streets running due north and south, and east
and west, which form the ground-work of the plan.
However, from the capitol, the president's house, and
some of the important areas in the city, run transverse
avenues or diagonal streets, from one material object
to another, which not only produce a variety of
pleasing prospects, but remove that insipid sameness
which renders some other great cities unpleasing. They
are devised to connect the separate and most distant
objects with the principal, and to preserve through-
out the whole a reciprocity of sight. These great lead-
ing streets are all 160 feet wide, including a pave-
ment of ten feet, and a gravel walk of thirty feet
bordered with trees on each side, which will leave
eighty feet of paved street for carriages. The rest of
the streets are, in general, 110 feet wide, with a few
only ninety feet, except North, South, and East Cap-
itol Streets, which are 160 feet. The diagonal
streets are named after the respective states composing
the Union, while those running north and south are,
from the capitol eastward, named, East First Street,
East Second Street, &c. and those west of it are in
the same manner called West First Street, West Second
Street, &c. those running east and west, are from the
capitol northward, named, North A Street, North B
Street, &c. and those south of it are called South A
Street, South B Street, &c.

The squares, or divisions of the city, amount to
350. The rectangular squares generally contain from
three to six acres, and are divided into lots of from
twenty to eighty feet in front, and their depth, from
about 113 to 300 feet, according to the size of the
square.

The irregular divisions produced by the diagonal
streets are some of them small, but generally in valu-
able situations. Their acute points are all to be cut
off at forty feet, so that no house in the city will
have an acute corner. The lots in these irregular
squares will all turn at a right angle with the respec-
tive streets, although the backs of the houses upon

them will not stand parallel to one another, which
is a matter of no consequence.

By the rules declared and published by the presi-
dent of the United States, for regulating the buildings
within the city, all houses must be of stone or brick:
their walls must be parallel to the streets, and either
placed immediately upon them, or withdrawn there-
from at pleasure. The walls of all houses upon streets
160 feet wide must be at least thirty feet high.

The area for the capitol (or house for the legisla-
tive bodies) is situated upon the most beautiful emi-
nence in the city, about a mile from the Eastern
Branch, and not much more from the Potomack, com-
manding a full view of every part of the city, as
well as a considerable extent of the country around.
The president's house will stand upon a rising ground,
not far from the banks of the Potomack, possessing a de-
lightful water prospect, with a commanding view of
the capitol, and some other material parts of the
city.

Due south from the president's house, and due west
from the capitol, run two great pleasure parks or
malls, which intersect and terminate upon the banks
of the Potomack, and are to be ornamented at the
sides by a variety of elegant buildings, houses for for-
eign ministers, &c.

Interpersed through the city, where the most ma-
terial streets cross each other, are a variety of open
areas, formed in various regular figures, which in
great cities are extremely useful and ornamental.

Fifteen of the best of these areas are to be appro-
priated to the different states composing the Union;
not only to bear their respective names, but as pro-
per places for them to erect statues, obelisks, or col-
umns, to the memory of their favourite eminent
men. Upon the small eminence, where a line due
west from the capitol, and due south from the presi-
dent's house, would intersect, is to be erected an
equestrian statue of General Washington, now presi-
dent of the United States.—The building where Mas-
sachusetts and Georgia streets meet, is intended for a
marine hospital, with its gardens.

The area at the south end of East Eight Street is
for the general exchange, its public walks, &c.—In
the original plan of this city, the broad black line,
which runs along part of North B Street, and,
separating, joins the Eastern Branch at two places,
denotes a canal, which is to be eighty feet wide, and
eight feet deep. The area, where South G Street
crosses the canal, is intended to contain a city hall,
and a basin of water; there being now a very large
spring in the middle of it.

The area, at the junction of the rivers, is for a
fort, magazines, and arsenals.

At the east end of East Capitol Street is to be a
bridge, and the present ferry is at the lower end of
Kentucky Street, where the great road now crosses
the Eastern Branch.—The Tyber, which is the principal

cipal stream that passes through the city, is to be collected in a grand reservoir beside the capitol, whence it will be carried in pipes to different parts of the city; while its surplus water will fall down in beautiful cascades, through the public gardens west of the capitol, into the canal.—In various parts of the city places are allotted for market-houses, churches, colleges, theatres, &c.

The president of the United States, in locating the seat of the city, prevailed upon the proprietors of the soil to cede a certain portion of the lots in every situation, to be sold by his direction, and the proceeds to be solely applied to the public buildings, and other works of public utility within the city. This grant will produce about 15000 lots, and will be sufficient, not only to erect the public buildings, but to dig the canal, conduct water through the city, and to pave and light the streets, which will save a heavy tax that arises in other cities, and consequently render the lots considerably more valuable.

The grants of money made by Virginia and Maryland, being hitherto sufficient, few of the public lots had been sold; but a sale was advertised to commence on the 17th day of September.

In January 1793, most of the streets were run, and the squares divided into lots. The canal was partly dug, and the greater part of the materials provided for the public buildings, which are to be entirely of freestone polished, and are now carrying on with all possible expedition.—Last summer several private houses were erected, and a great many proprietors of lots were then preparing to build the ensuing summer.

C H A P. XII.

K E N T U C K Y.

Extent, Division, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Climate, Chief Towns, &c.

THE fine flourishing country of Kentucky having risen into importance but very lately, it is no wonder that the generality of geographers who have attempted a map or description of America, seem either to have had no knowledge of this fertile tract, or to have totally neglected it. As we are happy, therefore, to present our readers with every new and valuable acquisition in geography, we have selected the following account from an excellent work, entitled, "The American Geography, by Jedidiah Morse;" to which we have added some judicious extracts from the topographical accounts of this western territory by Captain George Imlay, and Mr. John Filson.

This new state belongs, at present, to the province of Virginia. It is situated between 36 deg. 30 min. and 39

deg. 30 min. north lat and 8 deg. 15 min. west long. 250 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; being bounded north-west, by the river Ohio; west, by Cumberland river; south, by North-Carolina; east, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it strikes the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson. It has since been subdivided into seven, which follow:

JEFFERSON; chief town, Louisville; FAYETTE, chief town, Lexington; BOURBON; M. RICH; chief town, Harrodstown; NELSON; chief town, Bardonia; MADDISON; LINCOLN.

As most of these counties are very large, it is probable that subdivisions will continue to be made, as the population increases.

The river Ohio washes the north-western side of Kentucky, in its whole extent. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers. These again branch, in various directions, into rivulets of different magnitudes, fertilizing the country in all its parts. At the bottoms of these watercourses the lime-stone rock, which is common to this country, appears of a greyish colour; and where it lies exposed to the air, in its natural state, it looks like brown freestone. On the banks of these rivers and rivulets, the stone has the appearance of fine marble, being of the same texture, and is found in the greatest plenty.

Sandy, Licking, and Kentucky rivers rise near each other, in the Cumberland mountains. Of these, Sandy river only breaks through the mountain. This river constitutes a part of the eastern boundary of Kentucky. Licking river runs in a north-west direction, upwards of 100 miles, and is about 100 yards broad at its mouth. Kentucky is a very crooked river, and after running a course of more than 200 miles, empties into the Ohio by a mouth of 150 yards broad.

Salt river rises at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious. The four branches, after a circuitous course around a fine tract of land, unite; and after running about fifty miles, empty into the Ohio, twenty miles below the Falls. Its general course is westward—its length about twenty miles—and its mouth is eighty yards wide.

Green river pursues a western course upwards of 150 miles, and, by a mouth eighty yards wide, falls into the Ohio, 120 miles below the Rapids.

Cumberland river interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, and rolling round the other parts of Kentucky, among the mountains, in a southern course, 100 miles—then in a south-western course for above 200 more—then in a southern and south-western course for about 250 more, finds the Ohio, 413 miles below the Falls. At Nashville, this river is 200 yards broad, and at its mouth 300. The river, in about half its course, passes through North Carolina.

These rivers are navigable for boats almost to their sources.

8 deg. 15 min. west long. 30 in breadth; being bounded by Virginia; west, by Cumberland river; east, by Sandy river; south from its source, till it enters the North Carolina. It is divided into two counties, and has since been subdivided

in, Louisville; FAYETTE; BOURBON; MERCER; CLAY; CLAYSON; chief town, Bardonia. The banks are very large, it is very fertile, and continues to be made, and

the north-western side of the country. Its principal branches are the Green, and Cumberland rivers, in various directions, intersecting the country, and fertilizing the bottoms of these watercourses. It is common to this country, and where it lies exposed to the sun, it looks like brown iron ore. These rivers and rivulets, which are of fine marble, being of the same nature in the greatest plenty.

The Kentucky rivers rise near each other, and are very numerous. Of these, Sandy is the most mountainous. This river crosses the boundary of Kentucky, and runs in a westerly direction, upwards of 100 yards broad at its mouth, and crooked river, and, after a course of 200 miles, empties into the Ohio, 100 yards broad.

The rapids are very numerous, and are very curious. The course of the river is very circuitous, and runs about fifty miles below the Falls, and its length about ninety miles.

The northern course upwards of the river is about eighty yards wide, and is very rapid.

The rapids with the northern course round the other mountains, in a southern direction, the south-western course to the southern and south-western ends of the Ohio, 413 miles long, this river is 200 yards wide. The river, in about half its length, is covered with C. rollina.

The river, in about half its length, is covered with C. rollina.

without rapids, for the greatest part of the year. The little rivulets which chequer the country, begin to lessen in June, and quite disappear in the months of August, September, and October. The annual rains, however, in November, replenish them again. The method of getting a supply of water in a dry season is by sinking wells, which are easily done, and afford excellent water. The want of water in autumn, is the great complaint. Mills that may be erected with water, eight months in a year, may be erected in a thousand different places. Wind-mills and horse-mills may supply the other four months. The banks of the rivers are generally high and composed of lime-stone. After heavy rains the water in the rivers rises from ten to thirty feet.

There are five noted salt springs or licks in this country; viz. The higher and lower Blue Springs on the Licking river, from some of which, it is said, issue means of brinish water—the Big Bone lick, Drennon's licks, and Bullet's lick, at Saltburgh. The last of these licks, though in low order, has supplied this country and Cumberland with salt at twenty shillings the bushel, Virginia currency; and some is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from these licks, is by sinking wells from thirty to forty feet deep. The water drawn from these wells is more strongly impregnated with salt than the water from the sea. A straight road, forty feet wide, has been cut from Saltburgh to Louisville, twenty-four miles.

As far as has yet been discovered, this whole country lies upon a bed of lime-stone, which in general lies about six feet below the surface, except in the vallies, where the soil is much thinner. A tract of about twenty miles wide, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly, broken land, interspersed with many fertile spots. The rest of the country is agreeably uneven, gently ascending and descending at no great distances. The angles of ascent are from eight to twenty-four degrees, and sometimes more. The soil is very thin, and of an inferior quality; and along the ascending ground is frequently not much water; for where you see a tree blown up, you find the roots clinging to the upper parts of the rock. The soil, on these agreeable ascents (for they cannot be called hills) is sufficiently deep, as is evident from the growth of the trees. The soil is either black or tinged with a lighter or deeper vermilion, or is of the colour of dark ashes. In many places there are appearances of potters clay, and coal in abundance. The country is well supplied with wholesome, well-tempered water. In Nelson county, north-west of Rolling-fork, a branch of Salt river, is a tract of about twenty miles square, mostly barren, interspersed with small and strips of good land, which are advantageous situations for raising cattle, as the neighbouring barrens are covered with grass, and afford good pasturage.

The lands east of Nolin creek, a branch of Green river, are in general of an inferior quality; but the banks of Green river afford many desirable situations.

Towards the head waters of Kentucky river, which interlock with the waters of Cumberland and Sandy rivers, and the whole country eastward and south-eastward, as far as the Holstein river, is broken, mountainous, and almost impenetrable; and from the description given by hunters, it is much doubted whether it will ever be practicable to make a passable road from Kentucky across to Winchester, in Virginia, on the east side of the mountains, which, on a straight line, is not perhaps more than 100 miles, and the way now travelled is 600.

No country will admit of being thicker settled with farmers, who confine themselves to agriculture, than this. But large stocks of cattle, except in the neighbourhood of barrens, cannot be raised.

The river Elkhorn, a branch of the Kentucky, from the south-east, waters an exceeding fine country. Indeed, the country east and south of this, including the head waters of Licking river, Hickman's and Jessamine creeks, and the remarkable bend in Kentucky river, may be called an extensive garden. The soil is deep and black, and the natural growth, large walnuts, honey and black locust, poplar, elm, oak, hickory, sugar-tree, &c. Grape vines, running to the tops of the trees; and the surface covered with clover, blue grass, and wild rye. On this fertile tract, and on the Licking river, and the head waters of Salt river, are the bulk of the settlements in this country. The soil within a mile or two of Kentucky river is generally of the third and fourth rates; and as you advance towards the Ohio, the land is poor and hilly. Dick's river runs through a great body of first rate land, abounding with cane, and affords many excellent mill seats. Salt river has good lands on its head waters, except that they are low and unhealthy; but for twenty-five miles before it empties into the Ohio, the land on each side is level and poor, and abounds with ponds. Cumberland river, so much of it as passes through Kentucky, traverses, some few parts excepted, a hilly poor country. Green river overflows its banks a considerable way up, at the season when the Ohio swells, which is in April. This swell in Green river occasions several of its large branches to overflow, and cover the low grounds with water, leaves, and vegetable substances, which in summer become noxious and unhealthy. Its banks are fine and fertile. There is a great body of good land near the falls or rapids in the Ohio, called Bare grass; but the climate is rendered unhealthy by ponds of stagnant water, which may be easily drained.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to this country, we may reckon the sugar, the coffee, the papaw, and the cucumber tree. The two last are a soft wood, and

bear a fruit of the shape and size of a cucumber. The coffee tree resembles the black oak, and bears a pod, which encloses good coffee. Besides these, there is the honey locust, black mulberry, wild cherry, of a large size, buck eye, an exceedingly soft wood—the magnolia, which bears a beautiful blossom of a rich and exquisite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering shrubs and plants which grow spontaneously in this country, that in the proper season the wilderness appears in blossom.

The accounts of the fertility of the soil in this country have, in some instances, exceeded belief; and probably have been exaggerated. That some parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce fifty and sixty, and in some instances, it is affirmed, 100 bushels of good corn, an acre. In common, the land will produce thirty bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, cotton, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate, yield abundantly. The old Virginia planters say, that if the climate does not prove too moist, few soils known will yield more and better tobacco.

In the rivers are plenty of buffalo and catfish of uncommon size, salmon, mullet, rock, perch, garfish, eel, suckers, sunfish, &c.—Trout, shad, and herrings have not been caught in the western waters.

The land fowls are turkeys, which are very frequent, pheasants, and partridges*. The parroquet, is a bird every way resembling a parrot, but much smaller. The ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitish colour, with a white plume, flies screaming exceedingly sharp. It is asserted, that the bill of this bird is pure ivory, a circumstance very singular in the plumy tribe. The great owl resembles its species in other parts, but is remarkably different in its vociferation, sometimes making a strange, surprising noise, like a man in the most extreme danger and difficulty.

There are few swamps in Kentucky; and of course the reptiles which they produce, such as snakes, frogs, &c. are not numerous. The honey-bee may be called a domestic insect, as it is not found but in civilized countries. This is confirmed by a saying which is said to be common among the Indians, when they see a swarm of bees in the woods, "Well, brothers, it is time for us to decamp, for the white people are coming." The quadrupeds, except the buffalo, are the same as in Virginia and the Carolinas.

The climate is healthy and delightful, excepting some few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold. Snow seldom falls deep, or lies long. The winter, which begins about Christmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is so mild as that cattle can subsist without fodder.

* What is called a partridge by most people in America, is a quail; and what is called a pheasant, is a species of grouse.

LEXINGTON, which stands on the head waters of the Elkhorn river, is reckoned the capital of Kentucky. Here the courts are held, and business regularly conducted. In 1786, it contained about 100 houses, and several stores, with a good assortment of dry goods, and must have greatly increased since.

LEESTOWN is west of Lexington, on the east bank of Kentucky river. It is regularly laid out, and is flourishing. The banks of Kentucky river are remarkably high, in some places 3 and 400 feet, composed generally of stupendous perpendicular rocks; consequence is, there are few crossing places. The best is at Leestown, which is a circumstance that contributes much to its increase.

Louisville stands on the Kentucky side of the Ohio, opposite Clarksville, at the Falls, in a fertile country, and promises to be a place of great trade. Its rapid thinness, owing to stagnated waters back of the town, has considerably retarded its growth. Besides this, there is Bardlow, in Nelson county, and Harrodsburg, in Mercer county, both on the head waters of the river; Danville, Boonsborough, and Granville are increasing towns.

It is impossible to ascertain, with any degree of accuracy, the present number of inhabitants; owing to the numerous accessions which are made almost every month. In 1783, in the county of Lincoln only (now divided) there were, on the militia roll, 3570 men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at upwards of 30,000. From the accounts of their astonishing increase since, we may now safely estimate them at 100,000. It is asserted that at least 20,000 migrated here in the year 1787. These people collected from different states, of different manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments, have been long enough together to form an uniform and distinguishing character. Among the settlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from several of the states, who give dignity and respectability to the settlement. They are, in general, more orderly, perhaps, than any people who have settled a new country.

The most numerous religious sect in Kentucky are the Baptists. In 1787 they had sixteen churches established, besides several congregations where churches were not constituted. These were supplied with upwards of thirty ministers or teachers. There are several large congregations of Presbyterians, and some few of other denominations.

The government here is the same as in Virginia. But they expect to be admitted into the union as an independent state, in a convenient time after the new government is put in operation. The inconveniences to which they are necessarily subjected, from their connection with Virginia, are great. These the legislature of Virginia have considered; and, in the session of 1786, passed an act, providing, on their part,

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justice administered with more propriety and dispatch.
For promoting literature and improvements, the
Legislature of Virginia have made provision for a college
in Kentucky, and have endowed it with very consider-
able landed funds. The Rev. John Todd has given
a very handsome library for its use. Schools are esta-
blished in the several towns, and, in general, regularly
and handsomely supported. They have a printing-
office, and publish a weekly Gazette. They have
erected a paper-mill, an oil-mill, fulling-mills, saw-
mills, and a great number of valuable grist mills.
Their salt works are more than sufficient to supply all
the inhabitants, at a low price. They make consider-
able quantities of sugar from the sugar trees. La-
borers, particularly tradesmen, are exceedingly wanted
here. No tradesman will work for less than fifty per
cent. advance upon the Philadelphia price.

Caves have been discovered in this country, of
several miles in length, under a fine lime-stone rock,
supported by curious arches and pillars. Springs that
emit sulphurous matter have been found in several
parts of the country. One is near a salt spring, in
the neighbourhood of Boonshorough. There are three
springs or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which
do not form a stream, but empty themselves into a
common reservoir, and when used in lamps, answer
the purposes of the best oil. Copperas and alum
are among the minerals of Kentucky. Near Lexing-
ton are found curious sepulchres full of human skele-
tons. We have been told that a man, in or near Lex-
ington, having dug five or six feet below the surface
of the ground, came to a large flat stone, under which
was a well of common depth, regularly and artificially
lined with stone.

Among the natural curiosities of this country, the
rising banks, or rather precipices, of Kentucky and
the Ohio Rivers, deserve the first place. The astonish-
ing there beholds almost every where three or four
hundred feet of a solid perpendicular lime-stone rock;
on some parts a fine white marble, either curiously
arched, pillared, or blocked up into fine building
precipices. These precipices are like the sides of a deep
creek, or canal; the land above being level, except
where creeks set in, and crowned with fine groves of
cedar. It is only at particular places that these rivers
are crossed, one of which is worthy of admiration;
a great road, large enough for waggons, made by the
Italians, sloping with an easy descent from the top to
the bottom of a very large steep hill, at or near the
place above Lees-Town.

HISTORY OF KENTUCKY.

THE first white man we have certain accounts of,
who discovered this province, was one James M. Bride,

who in company with some others, in the year 1754,
passing down the Ohio in canoes, landed at the mouth
of Kentucky river, and there marked a tree with the
first letters of his name, and the date, which remain
to this day. These men reconnoitred the country,
and returned home with the pleasing news of their
discovery of the best tract of land in North America,
and probably in the world. From this period it re-
mained concealed till about the year 1767, when one
John Finley and some others, trading with the In-
dians, fortunately travelled over the fertile region,
now called Kentucky, then but known to the Indians
by the name of the Dark and Bloody Grounds, and
sometimes the Middle Ground.

This country greatly engaged Mr. Finley's atten-
tion. Some time after disputes arising between the In-
dians and traders, he was obliged to decamp; and re-
turned to his place of residence in North Carolina,
where he communicated his discovery to Col. Daniel
Boon, and a few more, who, conceiving it to be an
interesting object, agreed in the year 1769 to under-
take a journey in order to explore it. After a long
fatiguing march, over a mountainous wilderness, in
a westward direction, they at length arrived upon its
borders; and from the top of an eminence, with joy
and wonder, descried the beautiful landscape of Ken-
tucky. Here they encamped, and some went to hunt
provisions, which were readily procured, there being
plenty of game, while Col. Boon and John Finley
made a tour through the country, which they found
far exceeding their expectations; and returning to
camp, informed their companions of their discoveries.
But in spite of this promising beginning, this com-
pany, meeting with nothing but hardships and adver-
sity, grew exceedingly disheartened, and were plun-
dered, dispersed, and killed by the Indians, except
Col. Boon, who continued an inhabitant of the wil-
derness until the year 1771, when he returned home.

Kentucky had, about this time, drawn the atten-
tion of several gentlemen. Doctor Walker, of Vir-
ginia, with a number more, made a tour westward
for discoveries, endeavouring to find the Ohio river;
and afterwards he and General Lewis, at Fort Stan-
wix, purchased from the five nations of Indians the
lands lying on the north side of Kentucky. Col.
Donaldson, of Virginia, being employed by the state
to run a line from six miles above the Long Island,
on Holstein, to the mouth of the Great Kanaway,
and finding thereby that an extensive tract of excel-
lent country would be cut off to the Indians, was so-
licitated, by the inhabitants of Clinch and Holstein,
to purchase the lands lying on the north side of Ken-
tucky river from the Five Nations. This purchase he
completed for five hundred pounds, specie. It was
then agreed, to fix a boundary line, running from the
Long Island on Holstein to the head of Kentucky
river; thence down the same to the mouth; thence
up the Ohio to the mouth of Great Kanaway; but
this valuable purchase the state refused to confirm.

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Col. Henderson, of North Carolina, being informed of this country by Col. Bacon, he, and some other gentlemen, held a treaty with the Cherokee Indians at Wataga, in March 1775, and then purchased from them the lands lying on the south side of Kentucky river for goods, at valuable rates, to the amount of 6000*l.* specie.

Soon after this purchase, the state of Virginia took the alarm, agreed to pay the money Col. Donaldson had contracted for, and then disputed Col. Henderson's right of purchase, as a private gentleman of another state, in behalf of himself; however, for his eminent services to this country, and for having been instrumental in making so valuable an acquisition to Virginia, that state was pleased to reward him with a tract of land, at the mouth of Green river, to the amount of 200,000 acres; and the state of North Carolina gave him the like quantity in Powell's Valley. This region was formerly claimed by various tribes of Indians; whose title, if they had any, originated in such a manner, as to render it doubtful which ought to possess it: hence this fertile spot became an object of contention, a theatre of war, from which it was properly denominated the Bloody Grounds. Their contentions not being likely to decide the right to any particular tribe, as soon as Mr. Henderson and his friends proposed to purchase, the Indians agreed to sell; but notwithstanding the valuable consideration they received, have continued ever since troublesome neighbours to the new settlers.

In short, the progress in improvements and cultivation which have been made in this country to the present year 1793, almost exceeds belief.—Twelve years ago Kentucky lay in forest, almost uninhabited but by wild beasts. Now, notwithstanding the united opposition of all the Western Indians, she exhibits an extensive settlement, divided into seven large and populous counties, in which are a number of flourishing little towns, containing more inhabitants than are in Georgia, Delaware, or Rhode-Island states, and nearly or quite as many as in New Hampshire. Mr. Inlay, in his description of this Western Territory, says, he has known upwards of 10,000 emigrants to arrive in the single state of Kentucky within one year, and from 4 to 10,000 in several other years. An instance of the like kind, where a settlement has had so large and so rapid a growth, can scarcely be produced from the page of history.

Mr. Filson concludes his account of Kentucky with the following observations on the happy circumstances, that the inhabitants of Kentucky will probably enjoy, from the possession of a country so extensive and fertile.

“There are four natural qualities necessary to promote the happiness of a country, viz. A good soil, air, water, and trade. These taken collectively, excepting the latter, Kentucky possesses in a superior degree: and, agreeable to our description of the western

trade, we conclude, that it will be nearly equal to any other on the continent of America, and the advantages it is subject to, be fully compensated by the fertility of the soil.

“This fertile region, abounding with all the luxuries of nature, stored with all the principal materials for art and industry, inhabited by virtuous and ingenious citizens, must universally attract the attention of mankind, being situated in the central part of the extensive American empire, where agriculture, industry, laws, arts, and sciences, flourish; where civilized humanity raises her drooping head; where springs a harvest for the poor; where confidence ceases to be a slave, and laws are no more than the security of happiness; where nature makes reparation for having created man; and government, prostituted to the most criminal purposes, establishes an asylum in the wilderness for the distressed mankind.

“The recital of your happiness will call to your country all the unfortunate of the earth, who, having experienced oppression, political or religious, will find a deliverance from their chains. To you innumerable multitudes will emigrate from the hated regions of despotism and tyranny; and you will surely welcome them as friends, as brothers; you will welcome them to partake with you of your happiness.—Let the memory of Lycurgus, the Spartan legislator, who banished covetousness, and the love of gold from his country; the excellent Locke, who first taught the doctrine of toleration; the venerable Penn, the first who founded a city of brethren; and Washington, the defender and protector of persecuted liberty, be ever the illustrious examples of your political conduct. Avail yourselves of the benefits of nature, and of the fruitful country you inhabit.

“Let the iron of your mines, the wool of your flocks, your flax and hemp, the skins of the savage animals that wander in your woods, be fashioned into manufactures, and take an extraordinary value from your hands. Then will you rival the superfluities of Europe, and know that happiness may be found without the commerce so universally desired by mankind.

“In your country, like the land of promise, flowing with milk and honey, a land of brooks of waters, of fountains and depths, that spring out of valleys and hills, a land of wheat and barley, and all kinds of fruits, you shall eat bread without scarceness, and lack any thing it; where you are neither chilled with the cold of Capricorn, nor scorched with the burning heat of Cancer; the mildness of your air so great, that you neither feel the effects of infectious fogs, nor pestilential vapours. Thus your country, favoured with the smiles of heaven, will probably be inhabited by the first people the world ever knew.”

C H A P. XIII.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Rivers, Soil, Productions, Animals, principal Towns, Inhabitants, and Government.

THESE countries are bounded, on the north, by Virginia; on the west, by the Mississippi; on the east, by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the south, by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida. They are composed of three divisions, the north, the middle, and the south; in the following manner:

DIVISIONS.	COUNTIES.	TOWNS.
North Carolina are the counties of..	Albemarle	Newburn.
	Bath, and Clarendon in part	Edenton. Wilmington.
	Clarendon in part	St. James.
South Carolina, being the middle division, are the counties of..	Craven	Christ-Church.
	Berkeley. Colleton	Charleston.
Georgia, being the south division, contains	Granville	Port-Royal.
	Richmond	Savannah.
	Effingham.	
	Chatham.	
	Camden.	
	Wilkes	Sunbury.
	Glynn	Frederica.
Burke	Painsburgh.	
	Liberty.	

The climate of these countries is nearly alike, and very temperate, in general, with that of Virginia. The air of the Carolinas and Georgia is, for the most part, clear, serene, and pleasant. Sometimes violent rains fall both in winter and summer, attended by high winds; but these hurricanes seldom do any mischief. The heat in summer is indeed very intense, but the winters are moderate, and extremely short. Like that of Virginia, &c. the climate is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold; a north-west wind, even in summer, blows exceedingly sharp, and the hottest day will often be succeeded by a very cold evening; against the effects of which, the inhabitants find it necessary to guard as much as possible. Many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina.

The chief rivers are, the Albemarle, or Roanoke; Pamlico, Pamlico Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee, Santee, Savannah, Alatomaha, or George

river; and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida; all which rise in the Apalachian mountains, and, running east, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yaffous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and several others, which fall into the gulf of Mexico, or the Mississippi.

The Atlantic Ocean is the only sea bordering on this country, and is very shallow near the coast. The best harbours are those of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, Pamlico, and Cape Fear. There are, in South Carolina, the harbours of Charleston, Winyaw or George-Town, and Port-Royal. The mouths of the Savannah and Alatomaha form good harbours in Georgia. Cape Hattera, in 35 deg. north lat. Cape Fear to the south of it, and Cape Carteret still farther south, are the most remarkable promontories.

The two Carolinas, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage of Virginia; but the soil of Georgia is not so good as that of the other provinces. The vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick in Carolina; for the soil, even when left to itself, yields flowers and flowering shrubs; and all the European plants arrive at a degree of perfection here, far exceeding what they attained in their native soil. The productions of the Carolinas are vines, some wheat, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, sarsaparilla, tobacco, and indigo; olive, orange, lemon, citron, cypress, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine trees, from which the inhabitants make great quantities of turpentine, tar, and pitch. There are also several trees that yield gums; one, from which distils an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds, and another that produces a balm supposed to be little inferior to that of Mecca. White mulberry-trees for feeding silk-worms flourish here exceedingly; so that with proper care and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil might be exported from hence: but the whole attention of the Carolinians seems turned to the culture of indigo and rice; and though cochineal is said to be found there, they make no advantage of it. The trees in this and every other part of America grow to an amazing size, their trunks being often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb, and frequently upwards of 36 feet in circumference. The Indians and people of Charleston hollow these into canoes, which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place; some of them, consisting of one entire piece of timber, are so large, that they will carry from 30 to 40 barrels of pitch each: curious pleasure-boats are likewise made of them. The whole country is in a manner one forest, where the planters have not cleared it, and the trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia. The land in Carolina is easily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the forests chiefly consist of tall trees at a considerable distance from each other.

Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increase. It is a most fortunate circumstance for this province, that the low and flooded part of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, namely, one of its kinds of indigo; and the low, rich, and swampy grounds bear their great staple rice. Prodigious quantities of excellent honey are produced in the Carolinas, from which the inhabitants make a fine spirit, and mead equal to Malaga sack; but they make very little wine, though they have plenty of grapes.

The animals here are nearly the same as those in Virginia. The European black cattle have multiplied amazingly; it is no uncommon thing for one person to be owner of 300 cows, and many have upwards of 1000. These are turned out in the morning, and range the forests for food; but their calves being separated from them in fenced pastures, the cows always return to them in the evening. The hogs and horses are equally numerous. Many of the cattle would in all probability have been destroyed by the wolves, tigers, and panthers, which certainly range the forests in great numbers, were it not that the beasts of prey here are less ravenous than those of Africa and Asia.

Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, is the only town in either of these provinces that deserves attention. It is situated at the confluence of the two navigable rivers Allhley and Cowper, and for size, beauty, and traffic, is one of the first in North America. The harbour is an exceeding good one, being attended by no other inconvenience than that of a bar, which prevents vessels of more than two hundred tons burthen from entering it. The town is regularly built, and pretty strongly fortified both by nature and art. The streets, which are wide and straight, intersect each other at right angles, and those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about a thousand houses, some of which are of brick and others of wood, but all of them very handsome, and let at amazing high rents. The church is a spacious building, and executed in an elegant taste; there are also several meeting-houses belonging to different sects of Dissenters, some of which are extremely neat. Charleston, being the residence of the governor, and the place where the assembly meets, is always lively and gay; several handsome equipages are kept there; and the planters and merchants are rich, well-bred, and both shewy and expensive in their dress and manner of living.

The most effectual attempt to settle the province of Carolina was made in the year 1663, when several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of that country. They parcelled out their lands to such as were willing to go over to this settlement, and to submit to a system of laws drawn up by the celebrated Mr. Locke.

On the arrival of the colony in Carolina, they began their first settlement on a point of land near the southern limits of their district, between two navigable rivers, where they laid the foundation of a town called Charleston, which was designed to be, what is now really is, the capital of the province. But the process of time the disputes between the church and England people and the Dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony, which was rendered still more tolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal effects of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was passed which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted the offer of 24,000l. for both the property and jurisdiction; but Earl Granville thought fit to retain his seventh share of Carolina was, in 1728, divided into two districts, and two separate governments, and from that time peace was restored in the internal government, also with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, and trade began to flourish.

Edenton is the capital of North Carolina, but little more than a trifling village: a town further inland which would be more central, has been lately projected.

The exports of South Carolina to Great-Britain, native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000l. annual value; and its imports to 365,000l. The exports of North Carolina were computed at about 70,000l. and its imports 18,000l. The trade of Georgia being in its infancy, the exports amounted to little more than 74,000l. and the imports to 49,000l. The trade between Carolina and the West-Indies was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a thriving condition; and the formerly carried English goods on pack-horses 500 miles into the country west of Charleston.

No thoughts were entertained of settling Georgia in the year 1732, when a scheme was formed for enabling poor and indigent families to settle in that province. A patent was accordingly obtained, large sums were subscribed, and a considerable number of settlers embarked for Georgia, under the care of Mr. Oglethorpe, who generously undertook the troublesome task, without any reward, for the advancement of the settlement. But it soon appeared that the regulations, which had been drawn up with the greatest care, were not adapted to advance the prosperity of the colony. The settlers complained, that they were on a worse footing than any other colony in America. Some of their grievances were removed, but a sufficient number remained to give the inhabitants a dislike to the country; many of them fled, and dispersed themselves into the other settlements: so that of above 2000 people, who had transported themselves from Europe, not more than five or six hundred were to be found in Georgia. The mischief every day increased till 1734, when the

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government found it necessary to revoke the charter,
 the province now became the property of the crown,
 the particular regulations were annulled, and
 Georgia was placed exactly on the same footing with
 Carolina. This interposition of the legislative power
 saved the colony from destruction. The settlement
 for a considerable time, been emerging out of the
 difficulties that attended its first establishment; and it
 not to be doubted but that, when the internal
 divisions are entirely composed, the remaining errors
 of the government corrected, and the people suffi-
 ciently multiplied, Georgia will become a rich and
 flourishing province.

Savannah and Augusta are the principal towns in
 Georgia. Savannah, the capital, is situated ten miles
 from the river of the same name, where it forms a half
 moon, and where ships that draw ten or twelve feet
 water may ride for a mile in length within ten yards
 of the bank. From the quay may be seen the whole
 course of the river towards the sea one way, and on
 the other for about sixty miles up the country. This
 river is navigable for large boats, from the capital to
 Augusta, which are two hundred miles distant from
 each other. Augusta is situated in one of the most
 fertile parts of the province, and carries on a consi-
 derable trade with the Creek and Cherokee Indians.
 The late Rev. Mr. George Whitefield founded an or-
 phan-house at Savannah, which was converted into
 a college for the education of young men, chiefly de-
 signed for the ministry; and, through his pious care
 and fervent zeal, that gentleman had the pleasure of
 seeing this religious seminary in a flourishing condi-
 tion before his death; but since that period, we are
 told it has been converted to a very different use.

By a late estimation, the number of inhabitants in
 North Carolina amounted to 200,000; those in South
 Carolina to 170,000; and those in Georgia to 25,000.
 The legislature of North Carolina now consists of
 two separate bodies, namely, the senate and house of
 commons. The executive power is lodged in a gov-
 ernor and seven counsellors, annually chosen by and
 out of the general assembly, who also appoint the
 judges, field-officers, secretary, treasurer, &c. The
 justices and sheriffs are recommended by the people;
 and the delegates to congress are elected annually by
 ballot out of the general assembly. This form of gov-
 ernment was settled in convention at Halifax, Dec.
 17, 1776.—The constitution established for South Car-
 olina, by the council and assembly in March 1778,
 vests the legislative authority in the general assembly,
 consisting of the senate and house of representatives.
 The executive power is composed of a governor, licu-
 tenant-governor, and eight privy-counsellors. The
 assembly is to nominate justices of the peace, sheriffs,
 and other officers. By the constitution agreed to in
 Feb. 1777, for Georgia, the legislative, executive, and
 judiciary departments are to be distinct and separate
 bodies; the legislative to consist of representatives

elected by the freeholders in each county, annually,
 by ballot. Seventy-two representatives constitute the
 house of assembly, out of whom are chosen, by ballot,
 the governor and executive council, and also the dele-
 gates to congress, annually. The respective bodies,
 and the several courts they depend on, appoint the su-
 bordinate officers.

The United States of America have lately struck a
 halfpenny, on one side of which, encircled within a
 wreath of laurel, exceedingly well executed, are the let-
 ters US in a cypher, surrounded with an inscription, *LI-
 BERTAS ET JUSTITIA*, dated 1785. On the reverse, in
 the centre, is a constellation, from which issue thirteen
 illuminated rays, and between each ray is a small star,
 expressive of the Thirteen United States; around these
 rays, and the stars, is the following inscription, *NOVA
 CONSTELLATIO*.—The new American halfpenny is
 in weight as three to two of the English coin.

THE WESTERN TERRITORY.

ALL that part of the United States which lies
 north-west of the Ohio, is comprised under this name.
 It is bounded, on the west, by the Mississippi river; on
 the north, by the Lakes; on the east, by Pennsylvania;
 and on the south-east and south, by the Ohio river:
 containing, according to Mr. Hutchins, 411,000
 square miles, equal to 263,040,000 acres—from
 which, if we deduct 43,040,000 acres for water,
 there will remain 220,000,000 acres, belonging to
 the federal government, to be sold for the discharge
 of the national debt; except a narrow strip of land, bor-
 dering on the south of Lake Erie, and stretching 120
 miles west of the western limit of Pennsylvania, which
 belongs to Connecticut.

Only a small proportion of these lands is yet (1793)
 purchased of the natives, and to be disposed of by Con-
 gress. Beginning on the meridian line, which forms
 the western boundary of Pennsylvania, seven ranges of
 townships have been surveyed and laid off by order of
 Congress. As a north and south line strikes the Ohio
 in an oblique direction, the termination of the 7th
 range falls upon that river, 9 miles above the Muskin-
 gum, which is the first large river that falls into the
 Ohio. It forms this junction 172 miles below Fort
 Pitt, including the windings of the Ohio, though in a
 direct line it is but 90 miles.

The lands in which the Indian title is extinguished,
 and which are now purchasing under the United
 States, are bounded by Pennsylvania on the east, by the
 Great Miami on the west, by the Ohio on the south,
 and extend nearly to the head waters of the Muskin-
 gum and Sioto on the north. On these lands two
 settlements are commencing, one at Marietta, at the
 mouth of Muskingum, under the direction of the Ohio
 company. This settlement consists, at present, of
 about 220 souls, and is almost daily increasing. The
 other

other between the Miami rivers, under the direction of Colonel Symmes, which, though very small at present, is in prospect of a rapid enlargement. There are several other tracts, delineated on the map, which have been granted by Congress to particular companies, and other tracts for particular uses, which remain without any English settlements.—It is, in general, a fine, fertile, and well-watered country.

C H A P X I V .

V E R M O N T .

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Counties, Towns, Rivers, Mountains, Soil and Produce, Climate, Militia, Population, Character, Curiosities, Constitution, first Discovery and Settlement, &c.

THIS independant state is situated between 42 deg. 50 min. and 45 deg. of north latitude, and between 1 deg. 30 min. and 3 deg. of east longitude. It is bounded, on the north, by Canada; on the east, by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampshire; on the south, by Massachusetts; and on the west, by New York.

Vermont is divided into the seven following counties: Bennington, Rutland, Addison, Windham, Chittenden, Orange, and Windsor.

These counties are subdivided into townships, which are generally six miles square. In every township is a relieve of two rights of land, of 350 acres each; one to be appropriated for the support of public schools, the other to be given in fee to the first miller who settles in the township. A part of the townships were granted by the governor of New Hampshire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In those townships granted by the former, a right of land is reserved for the support of the gospel in foreign parts; in those granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the support of county grammar schools, are reserved. In these reservations, liberal provision is made for the support of the gospel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education.

This state, on the east side of the mountain, is watered by the following rivers; viz. Paupanhoosak, Quechey, Welds, White, Black, and Wet rivers, which run from west to east into Connecticut river; and west of the mountains, by the river Lamoi, over which is a natural stone bridge, seven or eight rods in length, by Onion river and Otter Creek, which empty by one mouth into Lake Champlain, 20 or 30 miles south of St John's. Otter Creek is navigable for boats 50 miles. The land is adjacent are of an excellent quality, and are annually enriched by the overflowing of the water, occasioned by the melting of the snow on the Green Mountains.

A chain of high mountains, running north and south, divides this state nearly in the centre between Connecticut river and Lake Champlain. The highest part of land is generally from 20 to 30 miles from the river, and about the same distance from the New York line. The natural growth upon this mountain is hemlock, pine, spruce, and other evergreens; hence it has always a green appearance, and on the account has obtained the descriptive name of *Verde Green Mountain*. On some high parts of this mountain, snow lies till May, and sometimes till June.

The country is generally hilly, but not rocky. It is finely watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. On the banks of the lakes, rivers, and streams, are many fine tracts of rich interval land. The heavy growth of timber, which is common throughout the state, evince the strength and fertility of the soil. Elm, black birch, maple, ash, and balsam poplar grow in the moist low ground; and the banks of the rivers are timbered principally with white pine, intermingled with vales of beech, elm, and white oak. The inhabitants cultivate wheat, 25 and 30 bushels of which grow on an acre; rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, &c. The corn, however, is frequently cut off by the early frosts, especially on the mountainous hills. That which grows on the banks of the rivers is not so frequently injured. Flax is raised in considerable quantities, and the soil is good for hemp, Potatoes, pumpkins, and garden roots and vegetables grow here in great plenty. Large quantities of sugar of a good quality and flavour, are made from the sugar maple.

With respect to the climate, no country in the world is more healthy. Snow begins to fall commonly in the beginning of November, and is generally gone by the middle of April. During this season, the inhabitants generally enjoy a serene sky, and a keen cold air. The ground is seldom frozen to any great depth, being covered with a great body of snow before the severe frosts begin. In the spring, the snow in common, is gradually dissolved by the warm influences of the sun. In this way the earth is enriched and moistened, and spring advances with surprising quickness.

There are upwards of 17,000 men upon the militia rolls of this state. These consist of two divisions, one on the west, the other on the east side of the mountain. In these two divisions are 7 brigades, which are made up of 21 regiments. From the number of militia, reckoning 5 for one, we may estimate the number of inhabitants in the state at 85,000. Others, who reckon 6 for one, estimate them at 100,000. The bulk of the inhabitants are emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendents. There is one settlement of Scotch people, which are almost the only foreigners in the state. As to the character, the manners, the customs, the laws, the policy, and the religion of the people in Vermont,

mountains, running north and south nearly in the centre between Lake Champlain. The highest part is from 20 to 30 miles from the same distance from the Montreal growth upon this mountain spruce, and other evergreen trees in appearance, and on the descriptive name of *Vir Montana*. The high parts of this mountain are generally hilly, but not rocky, and afford the best of pasture for the lakes, rivers, and rivulets of rich interval land. The soil, which is common through the strength and fertility of maple, ash, and balsam poplar; and the banks of the river are principally with white pine, yellow birch, beech, elm, and white oak. Wheat, 25 and 30 bushels per acre; rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, &c. however, is frequently cultivated on the mountains and hills. Flax is raised in considerable quantities, and the soil is good for hemp, garden roots and vegetables. Large quantities of sugar maple, are made from the climate, no country in the north. Snow begins to fall in the month of November, and is generally melted in the month of April. During this season the people generally enjoy a serene sky, and the ground is seldom frozen to any great depth, with a great body of snow in the winter. In the spring, the snow is dissolved by the warm winds, and in this way the earth is enriched, and the crops advance with surprising rapidity. In the year 1777, upwards of 17,000 men upon the mountains of these consist of two divisions, one on the east side of the mountains, and the other on the west. There are 7 brigades of militia, and 21 regiments. From the year 1777, 5 for one, we may estimate the inhabitants in the state at present reckon 6 for one, estimate the bulk of the inhabitants as about equal to Massachusetts, and is one settlement of Scotch-Irish, the only foreigners in the state. The manners, the customs, and the religion of the people is the same as in Vermont.

in Vermont, it is sufficient to say they are New Englanders. In the township of Tinmouth, on the side of a hill, is a very curious cave. The chasm, at its entrance, is about four feet in circumference. Entering this you descend 104 feet, and then opens a spacious room 20 feet in breadth, and 100 feet in length. The angle of descent is about 45 degrees. The roof of this cavern is of rock, through which water is continually percolating. The stalactites which hang from the roof appear like icicles on the sides of houses, and are continually increasing in number and magnitude. The bottom and sides are daily overflowing with spar and other mineral substances. On the sides of this subterraneous hall, are tables, chairs, benches, &c. which appear to have been artificially formed. This richly ornamented room, when illuminated with the candles of the guides, has an enchanting effect upon the eye of the spectator. If we might be indulged in assigning the general cause of these astonishing appearances, we should conclude from the various circumstances accompanying them, that they arise from water filtering slowly through the incumbent strata; and taking up in its passage a variety of mineral substances, and becoming thus saturated with metallic particles, gradually exuding on the surface of the caverns and fissures, in a quiet manner, the aqueous particles evaporate, and leave the mineral substances to unite according to their affinities. At the end of this cave is a circular hole, 15 feet in diameter, apparently hewn out, in a conical form, entering gradually as you descend, in the form of a spiral stair. At the bottom is a spring of fresh water, in continual motion, like the boiling of a pot. Its temperature has never been founded. On the 25th of December 1777, the inhabitants of Vermont, by their representatives in convention at Windsor, declared that the territory called Vermont was, and of right ought to be a free and independent state; and for the purpose of maintaining a regular government in the same, they made a solemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a constitution, of which the following is an abstract.—This declaration, which makes part of their constitution, asserts, that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conscience—freedom of the press—trial by jury—power to form new states in vacant counties, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be instituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or abolish government—that every member of society hath a right to protection of life, liberty, and property—and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expence of that protection, and to yield his personal service when necessary—that he shall not be obliged to give evidence against himself—that

the people have a right to bear arms—but no standing armies shall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themselves, their houses, papers, and possessions free from search or seizure—and therefore warrants without oaths first made, affording sufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no person shall be liable to be transported out of this state for trial for any offence committed within this state, &c.

By the frame of government, the supreme legislative power is vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the state of Vermont, to be chosen annually by the freemen on the first Tuesday in September, and to meet the second Thursday of the succeeding October—this body is vested with all the powers necessary for the legislature of a free state—two thirds of the whole number of representatives elected, make a quorum.—Each inhabited town throughout the state has a right to send one representative to the assembly.—The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve counsellors to be chosen annually in the same manner, and vested with the same powers as in Connecticut.—Every person of the age of 21 years, who has resided in the state one whole year next before the election of representatives, and is of a quiet, peaceable behaviour, and will bind himself by his oath, to do what he shall in conscience judge to be most conducive to the best good of the state, shall be entitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this state.—Each member of the house of representatives, before he takes his seat, must declare his belief in one God—in future rewards and punishments, and in the divinity of the scriptures of the Old and New Testament, and must profess the protestant religion.

Courts of justice are to be established in every county throughout the state.—The supreme court, and the several courts of common pleas of this state, besides the powers usually exercised by such courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, so far as relates to perpetuating testimony, obtaining evidence from places not within the state, and the care of the persons and estates of those who are *non compos mentis*, &c. All prosecutions are to be commenced in the name, and by the authority of the freemen of the state of Vermont. The legislature are to regulate entails, so as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and staff officers, and commissioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, shall be chosen by the general assembly, and be commissioned by the governor.

Every seventh year, beginning with the year 1785, thirteen persons (none of whom are to be of the council or assembly) shall be chosen by the freemen, and be called "the council of censors," whose duty it shall be to inquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate in every part—whether the

legislative and executive powers have been properly exercised—taxes justly laid and collected—the public monies rightly disposed of—and the laws duly executed.—For these purposes, they shall have power to send for persons, papers, &c.—to pass public censures—to order impeachments, and to recommend the repeal of all laws enacted contrary to the principles of the constitution. They are to be vested with these powers for one year only, after the day of their election.

The council of censors, when necessary, may call a convention, to meet within two years after their sitting—to alter the constitution—the proposed alterations to be published at least six months before the election of delegates to such convention.

Bennington is the principal town in Vermont. It is situated in the south-west corner of the state, near the foot of the Green Mountain. Its public buildings are a church for Congregationalists, a court-house and gaol. It has a number of elegant houses, and is a flourishing town. Near the centre of the town is Mount Anthony, which rises very high in the form of a sugar-loaf. The assembly commonly hold their sessions at Windfur.

Origin, Rise, and Name of this State, described.

IT was formed by emigrations from New Hampshire and New York. The emigrants having settled on lands to the westward, neither claimed or cultivated by the people of the provinces before mentioned, soon grew numerous, and spread themselves to a considerable extent. The inhabitants of those provinces had long been jealous of the rising greatness of the colony of Vermont, and desirous of crushing it, but never could effect their design, while the colonies were under the jurisdiction of the mother country. When the late dissensions began, they represented the Vermontese to Congress as a disaffected and encroaching people.

The Vermontese, on their part, professed their attachment to the general American cause, and requested representation in Congress, in common with the other states. Congress, far from complying with the request of the Vermontese, decided in favour of the colonies of New Hampshire and New York, and contracted the boundaries of that of Vermont. In process of time, however, Congress relaxed in their severity, and transmitted a favourable proposal to the Vermontese, which being acceded to, matters were adjusted in April 1782.

ETHAN ALLEN, famous for the expedition he undertook against Ticonderago in 1775, without any other aid than that of a body of volunteers who followed his fortunes, made himself chief of this country. This enterprising genius formed there an assembly of representatives. The inhabitants were

known, for a considerable time, by the name of "Green Mountain Boy;" but thinking that an invidious appellation, they frenchified Green Mountain, which made Verd Mont, and, by corruption, Vermont. Hence the origin of the name of this state.

Dr. Franklin has favoured us with the following accurate account of the internal state of America:

"There is (says this judicious writer) a tradition that in the planting of New England, the first settlement with many difficulties and hardships, as is generally the case when a civilized people attempt to establish themselves in a wilderness country. Being persecuted, they sought relief from heaven, by laying their wants and distresses before the Lord in frequent days of fasting and prayer. Constant meditation and discourse on these subjects kept their minds gloomy and discontented; and, like the children of Israel, there were many disposed to return to the Egypt which persecution had induced them to abandon. At length, when it was proposed in the assembly to proclaim another fast, a farmer of plain features, and concerning which they had so often worried heaven with their complaints, were found not great as they might have expected, and were dismissed nothing every day as the colony strengthened; the earth began to reward their labour, and to furnish liberally for their subsistence; that the seas and rivers were found full of fish, the air sweet, the climate healthy; and, above all, that they were there in the enjoyment of liberty, civil and religious; he therefore thought, that reflecting and conversing on the subjects would be more comfortable, as tending more to make them contented with their situation; and that would be more becoming the gratitude they owed to the Divine Being, if, instead of a fast, they should proclaim a thanksgiving. His advice was taken; and from that day to this they have, in every year, observed circumstances of public felicity sufficient to furnish employment for a thanksgiving day, which is therefore constantly ordered and religiously observed."

"I see in the public news-papers of different states frequent complaints of *hard times, deadness of trade, scarcity of money, &c. &c.* It is not my intention to assert or maintain that these complaints are entirely without foundation. There can be no country or nation existing, in which there will not be some people so circumstanced as to find it hard to gain a livelihood; people who are not in the way of any profitable trade, and with whom money is scarce, because they have nothing to give in exchange for it; and it is always in the power of a small number to make a great clamour. But let us take a cool view of the general state of our affairs, and perhaps the prospect will appear less gloomy than has been imagined.

"The great business of the continent is agriculture. For one artisan, or merchant, I suppose we have at least

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about 100 farmers, by far the greatest part cultivators
of their own fertile lands, from whence many of
them draw not only food necessary for their subsistence,
but the materials of their clothing, so as to need very
few foreign supplies; while they have a surplus of
productions to dispose of, whereby wealth is gradually
accumulated. Such has been the goodness of Divine
providence to these regions, and so favourable the
climate, that since the three or four years of hardship
the first settlement of our fathers here, a famine or
scarcity has never been heard of amongst us; on the
contrary, though some years may have been more
and others less plentiful, there has always been pro-
vision enough for ourselves, and a quantity to spare
for exportation. And although the crops of last
year were generally good, never was the farmer bet-
ter paid for the part he can spare commerce, as the
highest price currents abundantly testify. The
lands he possesses are also continually rising in value
with the increase of population; and, on the whole,
he is enabled to give such good wages to those who
work for him, that all who are acquainted with the
world must agree, that in no part of it are the
labouring poor so generally well fed, well clothed, well
edged, and well paid, as in the United States of
America.

If we enter the cities, we find that, since the Re-
volution, the owners of houses and lots of ground have
had their interest vastly augmented in value; rents
have risen to an astonishing height, and thence en-
couragement to increase building, which gives em-
ployment to an abundance of workmen, as does also
the increased luxury and splendor of living of the
inhabitants thus made richer. These workmen all
demand and obtain much higher wages than any
other part of the world would afford them, and are
paid in ready money. This rank of people therefore
do not, or ought not, to complain of hard times;
and they make a very considerable part of the city
inhabitants.

At the distance I live from our American fisheries,
I cannot speak of them with any degree of certainty;
but I have not heard that the labour of the valuable
race of men employed in them is worse paid, or that
they meet with less success, than before the Revolution.
The whalers indeed have been deprived of one
market for their oil; but another, I hear, is opening
for them, which it is hoped may be equally advanta-
geous; and the demand is constantly increasing for
their spermaceti candles, which therefore bear a much
higher price than formerly.

There remain the merchants and shopkeepers.
Of these, though they make but a small part of the whole
population, the number is considerable, too great indeed
for the business they are employed in; for the con-
sumption of goods in every country has its limits;
the faculties of the people; that is, their ability to
buy and pay, is equal only to a certain quantity of

merchandise. If merchants calculate amiss on this
proportion, and import too much, they will of course
find the sale dull for the overplus, and some of them
will say that trade languishes. They should, and
doubtless will, grow wiser by experience, and import
less. If too many artificers in town, and farmers
from the country, flattering themselves with the idea
of leading easier lives, turn shopkeepers, the whole
natural quantity of that business divided among them
all, may afford too small a share for each, and occa-
sion complaints that trading is dead; these may also
suppose that it is owing to scarcity of money, while,
in fact, it is not so much from the fewness of buyers,
as from the excessive number of sellers, that the mis-
chief arises; and, if every shopkeeping farmer and
mechanic would return to the use of his plough and
working tools, there would remain of widows, and
other women, shopkeepers sufficient for the business,
which might then afford them a comfortable main-
tenance.

Whoever has travelled through the various parts
of Europe, and observed how small is the proportion of
people in affluence or easy circumstances there, com-
pared with those in poverty and misery; the few rich
and haughty landlords, the multitude of poor, abject,
rack-rented, tythe-paying tenants, and half-paid and
half-starved ragged labourers; and views here the
happy mediocrity that so generally prevails through-
out these states, where the cultivator works for him-
self, and supports his family in decent plenty; will,
methinks, see abundant reason to bless Divine Provi-
dence for the evident and great difference in our fa-
vour, and be convinced that no nation known to us
enjoys a greater share of human felicity.

It is true, that in some of the states there are par-
ties and discords; but let us look back, and ask if we
were ever without them? Such will exist wherever
there is liberty; and perhaps they help to preserve it.
By the collision of different sentiments, sparks of truth
are struck out, and political light is obtained. The
different factions, which at present divide us, aim all
at the public good; the differences are only about the
various modes of promoting it. Things, actions, mea-
sures, and objects of all kinds, present themselves to
the minds of men in such a variety of lights, that it is
not possible we should all think alike at the same
time on every subject, when hardly the same man re-
tains at all times the same ideas of it. Parties are
therefore the common lot of humanity; and ours are
by no means more mischievous or less beneficial than
those of other countries, nations, and ages, enjoying
in the same degree the great blessing of political li-
berty.

Some indeed among us are not so much grieved for
the present state of our affairs, as apprehensive for the
future. The growth of luxury alarms them, and they
think we are from that alone in the high road to
ruin. They observe, that no revenue is sufficient with-
out

out economy, and that the most plentiful income of a whole people from the natural productions of their country may be dissipated in vain and needless expences, and poverty be introduced in the place of affluence.—This may be possible. It however rarely happens; for there seems to be in every nation a greater proportion of industry and frugality, which tend to enrich, than of idleness and prodigality, which occasion poverty, so that upon the whole there is a continual accumulation. Reflect what Spain, Gaul, Germany, and Britain were in the time of the Romans, inhabited by people little richer than our savages, and consider the wealth they at present possess, in numerous well-built cities, improved farms, rich moveables, magazines stocked with valuable manufactures, to say nothing of plate, jewels, and coined money; and all this, notwithstanding their bad, wasteful, plundering governments, and their mad destructive wars; and yet luxury and extravagant living has never suffered much restraint in those countries. Then consider the great proportion of industrious frugal farmers inhabiting the interior parts of these American states, and of whom the body of our nation consists, and judge whether it is possible that the luxury of our sea-ports can be sufficient to ruin such a country. If the importation of foreign luxuries could ruin a people, we should probably have been ruined long ago: for the British nation claimed a right, and practised it, of importing among us, not only the superfluities of their own production, but those of every nation under heaven; we bought and consumed them, and yet we flourished and grew rich. At present our independent governments may do what we could not then do, discourage by heavy duties, or prevent by heavy prohibitions, such importations, and thereby grow richer;—if, indeed, which may admit of dispute, the desire of adorning ourselves with fine clothes, possessing fine furniture, with elegant houses, &c. is not, by strongly inciting to labour and industry, the occasion of producing a greater value than is consumed in the gratification of that desire.

“The agriculture and fisheries of the United States are the great sources of our increasing wealth. He that puts a seed into the earth is recompensed, perhaps, by receiving forty out of it; and he who draws a fish out of our water, draws up a piece of silver. Let us (and there is no doubt but we shall) be attentive to these, and then the power of rivals, with all their restraining and prohibiting acts, cannot much hurt us. We are sons of the earth and seas, and, like Antæus in the fable, if in wrestling with a Hercules we now and then receive a fall, the touch of our parents will communicate to us fresh strength and vigour to renew the contest.”

Before we take leave of this continent, we shall present our readers with some observations on the

peopling of America; and likewise an interesting account of the customs and manners of the Indians eastward of the Mississippi:

An accurate writer observes, that there are twenty-eight different nations of Indians eastward of the Mississippi; the principal of which are the Cherokee, the Chickasaws, the Choctaws, the Creeks, the Delaware, the Six Nations, the Shawanese, the Hurons, the Illinois, &c. Allowing about 700 to a nation or tribe, they will contain, in all, 20,000 souls, and consequently, may furnish between four and five thousand warriors.

Many systems, no less idle than curious, have been formed to account for the population of the immense continent. There is scarce a people in the old world which has not had its advocates; and there have not been wanting some, who, despairing of loosening, have cut the knot, by supposing that the power which furnished America with plants, has, in the same manner, supplied it with men; or at least that a remnant in this continent was saved from a universal deluge, as well as in the other. As the subject is rather curious than useful, and, in its nature, does not admit of certainty, every thing that has passed in America before the arrival of the Europeans being plunged in Cimmerian darkness, and those little traditional records which diffuse a glimmering light on the two empires of Mexico and Peru for about two hundred years, at most, before that period, we shall only slightly touch on that subject, chiefly for the sake of taking notice of some modern discoveries which seem to strengthen the probability of some former theories.

The great similarity, or rather identity, of the customs and manners of the Americans, and those of the Tartars of the north eastern parts of Asia, together with a presumption, which has long possessed the learned, that Asia and America were united, or at least separated only by a narrow sea, has inclined the more reflecting part of mankind to the opinion, that the true origin of the Indians is from this quarter. The immense seas, which separate the two continents on every other side, render it highly improbable that any colonies could ever have been sent across them before the discovery of the magnetic compass.

The ingenious M. Buffon has remarked, and his observation appears to be just, that there are no animals inhabiting in common the two continents, such as can bear the colds of the north. Thus there are no elephants, no lions, no tigers, no camels in America; but bears, wolves, deer, and elks in abundance, absolutely the same in both hemispheres. This hypothesis, which has been gaining ground since its first appearance in the world, is now reduced almost to a certainty by the late discoveries of Captain Cook. That illustrious, but unfortunate navigator, in his last voyage, penetrated for a con-

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able distance into the streight which divides
from America, which is only six leagues wide
its mouth; and therefore easily practicable for

we may now therefore conclude, that no further
quiry will be made into the general origin of the
merican tribes: yet, after all, it is far from being
probable that various nations, by shipwreck, or
erwise, may have contributed, in some degree, to
population of this continent. The Carthaginians,
had many settlements on the coast of Africa, be-
ed the streights of Gibraltar, and pushed their dis-
eries as far as where the two continents in that
eter approach each other the nearest, may probably
been thrown by tempests on the American coast,
the companies of the vessels finding it impracti-
le to return, may have incorporated with the for-
e inhabitants, or have formed new settlements,
ch, from want of the necessary instruments to ex-
e the arts they were acquainted with, would natu-
ally degenerate into barbarity. There are, indeed,
the ancient writers, who give us reason to suppose,
there were colonies regularly formed by that
ion in America, and that the communication,
er having continued for some time, was stopped by
er of the state. But it is difficult to conceive that
e people, established with all those necessaries pro-
for their situation, should ever degenerate; from
high a degree of cultivation as the Carthaginians
sessed in a total ignorance even of the most ne-
ary arts. and therefore it seems probable, that if
ation ever had such colonies, they must have
in cut off by the natives, and every vestige of
em destroyed.

The Danes, about the ninth and tenth centuries,
re the greatest navigators in the universe. They
covered and settled Iceland; and from thence,
964, planted a colony in Greenland. The an-
ient Icelandic chronicles, as reported by M. Mallet,
tain an account of some Icelanders, who, in the
e of an unsuccessful war, fled to Greenland, and
n thence westward, to a country covered with vines,
hich from thence they called Vinland. The ad-
vurers returned home, and conducted a colony to
r new discovery; but disturbances arising in Den-
ark, all communication with Greenland, as well as
land, ceased; and those countries remained un-
own to the rest of the world for several ages.
e remains of this colony are probably to be found
the coast of Labrador, in the nation of the Esqui-
aux. The colour of their skins, their hairy bodies,
bushy beards, not to mention the difference of
anners, mark an origin totally distinct from that of
other Indians.

About the year 1170, Madoc, son of Owen Gwyn-
th, prince of Wales, dissatisfied with the situation
affairs at home, left his country, as related by the
Welsh historians, in quest of new settlements, and,

leaving Ireland to the north, proceeded west till he
discovered a fertile country; where, leaving a colony,
he returned, and persuading many of his countrymen
to join him, put to sea with ten ships, and was never
more heard of. This account has indeed at several
times drawn the attention of the world; but as no
vestiges of them had then been found, it was con-
cluded, perhaps too rashly, to be a fable, or at least,
that no remains of the colony existed. Of late years,
however, the western settlers have received frequent
accounts of a nation, inhabiting at a great distance
up the Missouri, in manners and appearance resem-
bling the other Indians, but speaking Welsh, and re-
taining some ceremonies of the Christian worship;
and, at length, this is universally believed there to
be a fact.

In Kentucky there are several ancient remains,
which seem to prove, that this country was formerly
inhabited by a nation further advanced in the arts
of life than the Indians. These are there usually at-
tributed to the Welsh, who are supposed to have for-
merly inhabited here; but having been expelled by
the natives, were forced to take refuge near the
sources of the Missouri. It is well known, that no
Indian nation has ever practised the method of de-
fending themselves by entrenchments; and such a
work would even be no easy one, while these na-
tions were unacquainted with the use of iron.

Near Lexington, the remains of two ancient forti-
fications are to be seen, furnished with ditches and
bastions. One of these contains about six acres
of land, and the other nearly three. They are now
overgrown with trees, which, by the number of cir-
cles in the wood, appear to be not less than one
hundred and sixty years old. Pieces of earthen ves-
sels have also been plowed up near Lexington, a ma-
nufacture with which the Indians were never ac-
quainted.

The sepulchres already mentioned, form another
strong argument that this country was formerly in-
habited by a people different from the present In-
dians. Although they do not discover any marks of
extraordinary art in their structure, yet, as many na-
tions are particularly tenacious of their ancient cus-
toms, it may perhaps be worthy of inquiry, whether
these repositories of the dead do not bear a con-
siderable resemblance to the ancient British remains.
Some buildings, attributed to the Picts, are mentioned
by the Scottish antiquaries, which, if the author mis-
takes not, are formed nearly in the same manner.
Let it be enough for him to point out the road, and
hazard some uncertain conjectures. The day is not
far distant, when the furthest recesses of this continent
will be explored, and the accounts of the Welsh
established beyond the possibility of a doubt, or con-
signed to that oblivion which has already received so
many suppositions founded on arguments as plausible
as these.

It is well known that the Indians are not born white; and that they take a great deal of pains to darken their complexion, by anointing themselves with grease, and lying in the sun. They also paint their faces, breasts, and shoulders, of various colours, but generally red; and their features are well formed, especially those of the women. They are of a middle stature, their limbs clean and straight, and scarcely any crooked or deformed person is to be found among them. In many parts of their bodies they prick in gun-powder in very pretty figures. They shave, or pluck the hair off their heads, except a patch about the crown, which is ornamented with beautiful feathers, beads, wampum, and such like baubles. Their ears are pared, and stretched in a thong down to their shoulders. They are wound round with wire to expand them, and adorned with silver pendants, rings, and bells, which they likewise wear in their noses. Some of them will have a large feather through the cartilage of the nose; and those who can afford it, wear a collar of wampum, a silver breast-plate, and bracelets on the arms and wrists. A bit of cloth about the middle, a shirt of the English make, on which they bestow innumerable broaches to adorn it, a sort of cloth boots and moccasins, which are shoes of a make peculiar to the Indians, ornamented with porcupine quills, with a blanket or match-coat thrown over all, completes their dress at home; but when they go to war, they leave their trinkets behind, and mere necessaries serve them. There is little difference between the dress of the men and women, excepting that a short petticoat, and the hair, which is exceeding black, and long, clubbed behind, distinguish some of the latter. Except the head and eye-brows, they pluck the hair, with great diligence, from all parts of the body, especially the looser part of the sex.

Their weapons of war are guns, bows and arrows, darts, scalping-knives, and tomahawks. This latter is one of their most useful pieces of field-furniture, serving all the offices of the hatchet, pike, and sword. They are exceeding expert in throwing it, and will kill at a considerable distance. The world has no better marksmen, with any weapon. They will kill birds flying, fishes swimming, and wild beasts running.

The North American Indians are not so ignorant as some suppose them, but are a very understanding people, quick of apprehension, sudden in execution, subtle in business, exquisite in invention, and industrious in action. They are of a very gentle and amiable disposition to those they think their friends, but as implacable in their enmity; their revenge being only completed in the entire destruction of their enemies. They are very hardy, bearing heat, cold, hunger, and thirst, in a surprising manner, and yet no people are more addicted to excess in eating and drinking, when it is conveniently in their power. The follies, nay mischief, they commit when inebriated, are entirely

laid to the liquor; and no one will revenge any injury (murder excepted) received from one who is more himself.

Among the Indians all men are equal, personal qualities being most esteemed. No distinction of rank, renders any man capable of doing justice to the rights of private persons; and there is no pre-eminence from merit, which begets pride, and makes others too sensible of their own inferiority. Though there is perhaps less delicacy of sentiment among the Indians than among us; there is, however, abundantly more probity, with infinitely less ceremony, and equivocal compliments. Their public conferences shew them to be men of genius; and they have, in a high degree, the talent of natural eloquence.

They generally live dispersed in small villages, either in the woods, or on the banks of rivers, where they have little plantations of Indian corn, and are not enough to supply their families half the year, subsisting the remainder of it by hunting, fishing, and fowling, and the fruits of the earth, which grow spontaneously in great plenty. Their huts are generally built of small logs, and covered with bark, each having a chimney, and a door, on which they place a padlock. Old Chelicothe is built in form of a Kentucky station, that is, a parallelogram, or long square, and some of their houses are shingled. A long council-house extends the whole length of the town, where the king and chiefs of the nation frequently meet, and consult of all matters of importance, whether of a civil or military nature. Some Indian huts are built by setting up a frame on forks, and placing bark against it; others of reeds, and surrounded with clay. The fire is in the middle of the wigwag, and the smoke passes through a little hole. The joints of reeds together by cords run through them, which serve them for tables and beds. They mostly lie upon skins of wild beasts, and sit on the ground. They have brass kettles and pots to boil their food, gourds or calabashes, cut asunder, serve them for pails, cups, and dishes.

Travellers give various accounts concerning their religion; and although it cannot be absolutely affirmed that they have none, yet it must be confessed very difficult to define what it is. All agree that they acknowledge one Supreme God, but do not adore him. They have not seen him, they do not know him, believing him to be too far exalted above them, and too happy in himself to be concerned about the trifling affairs of poor mortals. They seem not to believe in a future state, and that after death they shall be removed to their friends, who have gone before them, to an elysium, or paradise.

Near Detroit, the Wyandotts, and some others have the Roman Catholic religion introduced among them by missionaries. These have a church, a minister, and a regular burying-ground. Many of them appear zealous, and say prayers in their families. The

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All men are equal, performing equal duties. No distinction of birth is capable of doing prejudice to any persons; and there is no pride, and no delicacy of sentiment; there is, however, an infinitely less ceremony in their public conferences of genius; and they have, in a natural eloquence.

They are dispersed in small villages on the banks of rivers, where the families half the year, and of it by hunting, fishing, and the arts of the earth, which give them their subsistence. Their huts are generally covered with bark, each on a door, on which they place a mat, is built in form of a Kachigam, or long square, and is thingled. A long council length of the town, where the nations frequently meet of importance, whether for war or peace. Some Indian huts are built on forks, and placed on reeds, and surrounded with a middle of the wigwam through a little hole. The roads run through them, which are beds. They mostly live on the ground, and sit on the ground, and pots to boil their food, and eat afunder, serve them for

accounts concerning them cannot be absolutely true, yet it must be confessed that it is. All agree that there is a Supreme God, but do not see him, they do not seem to be too far exalted above themselves to be concerned about the mortality of men. They seem to be, and that after death they are friends, who have gone to paradise.

Some nations, and some others, have a religion introduced among them, which has a church, a minister, and a sound. Many of them are in their families. They

acquaintance with white people, are a little civilized, which must of necessity precede Christianity. The Shawanese, Cherokees, Chickasaws, and some others, are little concerned about superstition, or religion. Others continue their former superstitious worship of the objects of their love and fear, and especially those beings who they most dread, and whom therefore we generally denominate devils; though, at the same time, it is allowed they pray to the sun, and other inferior benevolent deities, for success in their undertakings, for plenty of food, and other necessaries in life.

The Indians have their festivals, and other rejoicings, on which they sing and dance in a ring, taking care, having so painted and disguised themselves, that it is difficult to know any of them; and, after enjoying this diversion for a while, they retire to the place where they have prepared a feast of fish, flesh, and fruits; to which all are invited, and entertained with their country songs. They believe that there is great virtue in feasts for the sick. For this purpose a young buck must be killed, and boiled, and his friends and near neighbours of the patient invited, and having first thrown tobacco on the fire, and covered it up close, they all sit down in a ring, and raise a lamentable cry. They then uncover the buck, and kindle it up; and the head of the buck is sent about, every one taking a bit, and giving a loud croak, in imitation of crows. They afterward proceed to eat all the buck, making a most harmonious, melancholy song; in which strain their music is particularly excellent. As they approach their towns, when some of their people are lost in war, they make great lamentations for their dead, and bear them long after in remembrance.

Some of these nations abhor adultery, do not approve of a plurality of wives, and are not guilty of it; but there are other tribes that are not so scrupulous in these matters. Among the Chickasaws a husband may cut off the nose of his wife, if guilty of adultery; but men are allowed greater liberty. This nation despises a thief. Among the Cherokees they cut off the nose and ears of an adulteress; afterward her husband gives her a discharge; and from that time she is not permitted to refuse any one who presents himself. Fornication is unnoticed; they allow persons in a single state unbounded freedom.

With respect to marriage, their form is short—the man before witnesses, gives the bride a deer's foot, and she, in return, presents him with an ear of corn, and emblems of their several duties. The women are very slaves to the men; which is a common case in the uncivilized nations, throughout the world. They are charged with being revengeful; but this revenge is only doing themselves justice on those who injure them, and is seldom executed but in cases of murder and adultery.

No power is lodged in their king to put any one to death by his own authority; but the murderer is generally delivered up to the friends of the deceased, to do as they please. When one kills another, his friend kills him, and so they continue until much blood is shed; and at last the quarrel is ended by mutual presents. Their kings are hereditary, but their authority extremely limited. No people are a more striking evidence of the miseries of mankind in the want of government than they. Every chief, when offended, breaks off with a party, settles at some distance, and then commences hostilities against his own people. They are generally at war with each other. These are common circumstances among the Indians.

To their captives taken in war, they are exceedingly cruel, treating the unhappy prisoners in such a manner, that death would be preferable to life. They afterwards give them plenty of food, load them with burdens, and when they arrive at their towns, they must run the gauntlet. In this, the savages exercise so much cruelty, that one would think it impossible they should survive their sufferings. Many are killed; but if one outlives this trial, he is adopted into a family as a son, and treated with paternal kindness; and if he avoids their suspicions of going away, is allowed the same privileges as their own people enjoy.

C H A P. XV.

W E S T - I N D I E S.

Particular Description of the West-India Islands.

IN our general account of America, we took notice, that in the large gulf between the two continents, are a great number of islands, called the West-Indies: those among them which are worth cultivation, belong to the following European nations, namely, Great-Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark.

The climate is nearly alike in all the West-India islands, except what arises from the various situations and qualities of the lands themselves. They all lie within the tropics, consequently the sun is vertical twice in the year, and is never at a great distance; so that they are subject to a degree of heat, which would be intolerable, did not the trade wind, which increases gradually as the sun approaches the meridian, blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air, so as to enable the inhabitants to attend their labour when the sun is over their heads. Nor is the night destitute of a cooling breeze; for as soon as day-light begins to disappear, a refreshing gale blows smartly from the land towards the sea: it seems to issue from the middle of each island as from a centre, and blows directly from the land in every part of it. Such also

is the wisdom of Providence in this particular, that when the sun is far advanced towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes almost vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, that they intercept his direct rays, and, dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, parched with a long drought which frequently continues from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

An European, who has seen no other part of the world, can form very little idea of what are called rains in the West-Indies. The most violent that fall in our northern climates are little more than dews, when compared to those of the torrid zone. They are rather floods of water poured from the clouds with an amazing impetuosity. In a moment the rivers swell above their banks, new ones are formed, and all the low country presently exhibits the appearance of a deluge. The ancients imagined that the lands in the burning zone were scorched up with one continued fervent heat, and therefore the whole country uninhabitable: but their opinion was so far from being true, that the greatest rivers in the world have their source in the torrid zone; and the greatest inconveniencies many places in that climate suffer, arise from the moisture of the air.

The seasons in the West-Indies have no other distinction than the rains; the trees are always clothed with leaves: frosts and snows are unknown, and even hail extremely rare. Indeed, when storms of hail happen, they are dreadfully violent, and the hailstones prodigiously large. But the consequences of these storms are nothing, when compared to the hurricanes to which this part of the world is very subject. These generally happen in the rainy season, and are often dreadful beyond conception. The elements seem to have united for the destruction of the world. The labours of many years are destroyed in a moment, and all the hopes of the planter, even when he thinks himself almost beyond the reach of danger, wrested from his hand. This dreadful scourge of heaven is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with the swelling of the sea, and sometimes an earthquake; in short, with every terrible and destructive circumstance the elements can assemble. The first objects of the approaching devastation that generally strike the eyes of the planter, are whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the whole face of the country. The stoutest and firmest rooted trees of the forest are torn up and whirled about like stubble; the windmills are swept away in a moment; even the works of the planter, the copper boilers, and stills of many hundred weight, which seem to bid defiance to the storm, are hurried and battered to pieces: the houses are no protection, the first blast tears away the roof; while the rain, which in less than an hour rises near five feet, rushes in upon the wretched inhabitants with a force altogether irresistible.

The Indians, who inhabited these islands many years before they were discovered by Columbus, have taught the Europeans to know the signs that indicate an approaching hurricane, which always happens either in the quarters, or at the full and change of the moon. These signs appear about a fortnight before the hurricane. Thus, if at the change of the moon the sea appears very turbulent; the sun redder than at other times; a dead calm succeeds, instead of the usual breezes; the hills are clear of those clouds and mists which usually hover about them: if a hollow rumbling sound, like the rushing of a violent wind, is heard in the wells and clefts of the earth; the stars at night appear larger than usual, and surrounded with a kind of burs; the sky in the north-west has a black and menacing appearance; the sea emits a strong smell, and rises into vast waves, often without any wind; the wind itself forsakes its steady stream from the north and shifts to the west, blowing violently and irregularly at intermissions: these signs predict that a hurricane will happen at the succeeding full. Nearly the same signs happen at the full, before a hurricane comes on at the change; and by these indications the planters often secure some of their effects, together with the lives of themselves, and those of their families.

Sugar is the grand staple commodity of the West-Indies; this useful article was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, and from that country the first knowledge of it was obtained by the Europeans. The Portuguese were the first who cultivated the sugar-cane, and brought it into request: their first plantations were in the Madeira islands, but afterwards removed to Brasil. They for some time supplied the markets of Europe; and though much greater quantities are now made by the English and French, yet the Portuguese sugar is still esteemed the best in Europe. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and when sucked raw, has proved extremely wholesome and nutritive.

Rum is distilled from the molasses, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. Great quantities of rum are carried to North America for sale, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or distributed from thence to the Newfoundland fishery, or other parts, besides what Great-Britain and Ireland import. A great quantity of molasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England, where it is distilled. No part of the sugar-cane is without its use: the tops, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fuel.

It has been computed, that the rum and molasses, when all the processes are rightly managed, pay the charges of the plantation, and that the sugars are cleared

ited these islands many years ago by Columbus, has taken the signs that indicate an approaching storm, which always happens either by a fall and change of the moon, or a fortnight before the beginning of the change of the moon, the sun is redder than at other times, instead of the usual blue, or of those clouds and mists which surround them: if a hollow rumbling is heard, or a violent wind, is heard, or the stars at night are obscured, and surrounded with a light, or the north-west has a black and heavy sea, or a strong fresh breeze, or often without any wind, a steady stream from the north, or a blowing violently and irregularly, these signs predict that a storm is succeeding full. Notice is to be taken of the full, before a hurricane, and by these indications the effects of their effects, together with themselves, and those of their

commodity of the West-Indies was not at all known, though it was made in China, and from that country first introduced by the Europeans. The first who cultivated the sugar-cane, were their first planters in the West-Indies, but afterwards for some time supplied by the English and French, and though much greater quantities are still esteemed the best in the sugar-cane is the most delicious, and the most sweet in nature; and is valued extremely whole

the molasses, and from the meaner spirit is procured, and carried to North America, and consumed by the inhabitants, or in trade, or distributed for the fishery, or other parts of the island, and Ireland import it, and is taken off raw, and where it is distilled. Notwithstanding its use, the tops, and the joints, make very little; and the refuse of the distillation for fuel.

that the rum and molasses, if rightly managed, pay the duty, and that the sugars are cleared

to the planters: but by the most credible accounts it appears, that the expences of a plantation in the West-Indies are very great, and the profits at the best view precarious; for the chargeable articles of a plantation, the windmill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling apparatus, together with the buying and maintaining a great number of slaves and cattle, besides the purchase of the land, will not permit a person to begin a plantation of any consequence, under a capital of at least 5000*l*. Moreover, the life of a planter, who wishes to acquire a fortune, is far from being a life of ease and luxury; he must always keep a watchful eye upon his overseers, and must himself oversee occasionally. And at the boiling season, if he is not properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be so laborious, and more dangerous to the health; he must attend a constant attendance day and night, in the extreme heats of the climate, and the most fierce and violent winds, and add to this, the losses by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad seasons; and then consider when the goods are in the cask, that he quits the hazard of a plantation, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ships his produce at his own risk. These considerations might make one believe that it could never answer to engage in this business; but notwithstanding all this, there are no parts in the world, in which great estates are made in so short a time, as from the produce of the earth, as in the West-Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provide against the ill effects of the worst, as the planter is sure to find a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150*l* a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the greatness of the plantation, one to about twenty negroes, and at the rate of about 40*l*. Such plantations too have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. The course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the lands with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are kept at a very low rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: some are kept in this manner, but others of their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork a day. All the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of

breeches, stockings and shoes; the whole not exceeding 40*s* a year, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12*l*. The price of men negroes upon their first arrival is from 33 to 36*l*. women and grown boys about 50*s* less; but such negro-families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring about 40*l*. upon an average one with another, and there are instances of a single negro man expert in business bringing 150 guineas, and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell, but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or less as venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, brassiers, and cooper, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West-Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the last war but one, the number of negro slaves was at least 230,000, whereas the whites do not amount to 90,000 souls. This disproportion sufficiently shews how much the colonies are endangered; they are at once exposed to the assaults of a foreign enemy, and to the insurrection of their own slaves.

The disposition to industry has a variety of characters, and is by no means constantly of the same colour. Some acquiesce in a moderate labour through the whole of their lives, attended with no risk either to their persons or their gains; people of such qualifications, who form the best citizens in general, are properly adapted to stay at home. Others, full as remote from an indolent disposition, are of a quite different character. These are fiery, restless tempers, willing to undertake the severest labour, provided it promises but a short continuance, who love risk and hazard, whose schemes are always vast, and who place no medium between being great and being undone. Characters of this sort, especially when they happen in low and middling life, are often dangerous members in a regular and settled community; but the West-Indies open a fair and ample field to encourage persons of such a disposition; and it may be reckoned one very great benefit to our possessions in that part of the world, that besides the vast quantities of our fabrics which they consume, our seamen whom they employ, and our revenues which they support, they are a vent to carry off such persons, whom they keep occupied greatly to the advantage of the public. Our dominions are so circumstanced, and afford such a variety, that all dispositions to business, of what kind

soever, may have exercise without pressing upon one another.

Our seamen distinguish the West-India islands into the Windward and Leeward Islands, merely with regard to their situation either to the east or west. For as the wind is always easterly, those that lie in the eastern part are called the Windward, and those in the western, the Leeward Islands. Some geographers distinguish them into the Great and Little Antilles, while others call them all by the name of the

Caribbees, from their first inhabitants. But by whatever name they are distinguished, they lie in a line or semi-circular form; stretching almost from the coast of Florida to the main continent of America, near the river Oroonoko.

Previous to our description of the British islands in America, we shall present our readers with the following TABLE of the

W E S T - I N D I A I S L A N D S .

Islands	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to	
Jamaica	140	60	Kingston	Great-Britain	
Barbadoes	21	14	Bridgetown	Ditto	
St. Christopher	20	7	Basseterre	Ditto	
Antigua	20	20	St. John's	Ditto	
Nevis and Montserrat	} Each of these is 18 in circumf.	Charles-Town	Ditto	
Barbuda		20	12	Plymouth	Ditto
Anguilla	30	18	Ditto	
Dominica	28	13	Ditto	
St. Vincent	24	18	Kingston	Ditto	
Granada	30	15	St. George's	Ditto	
Tobago	32	9	Ditto	
Cuba	700	70	Havannah	Spain	
Hispaniola	450	150	St. Domingo	Ditto and France	
Porto Rico	100	40	Porto Rico	Spain	
Trinidad	90	60	Ditto	
Margaritta	40	24	Ditto	
Martinico	60	30	St. Peter's	France	
Guadalupe	45	38	Basseterre	Ditto	
St. Lucia	23	12	Ditto	
St. Bartholomew, Desada, and Marigalante	} All inconfi- derable.	Ditto	
St. Eustatia		29	circumference.	The Bay	Dutch
Curassao		30	10
St. Thomas	15-	circumference.	Denmark	
St. Croix	30	10	Basse-End	Ditto	

A M E R I C A N I S L A N D S .

Newfoundland	350	200	Placentia	Great-Britain
Cape Breton	100	80	Louisburg	Ditto
St. John's	60-	30	Charlotte Town	Ditto
The Bermudas	20,000 acres	St. George	Ditto
The Bahamas	very numer.	Nassau	Ditto
Falklands
Juan Fernandez	14	6	Uninhabited
Fuera	Ditto
Chiloe	12	17	Castro

GEOGRAPHY.

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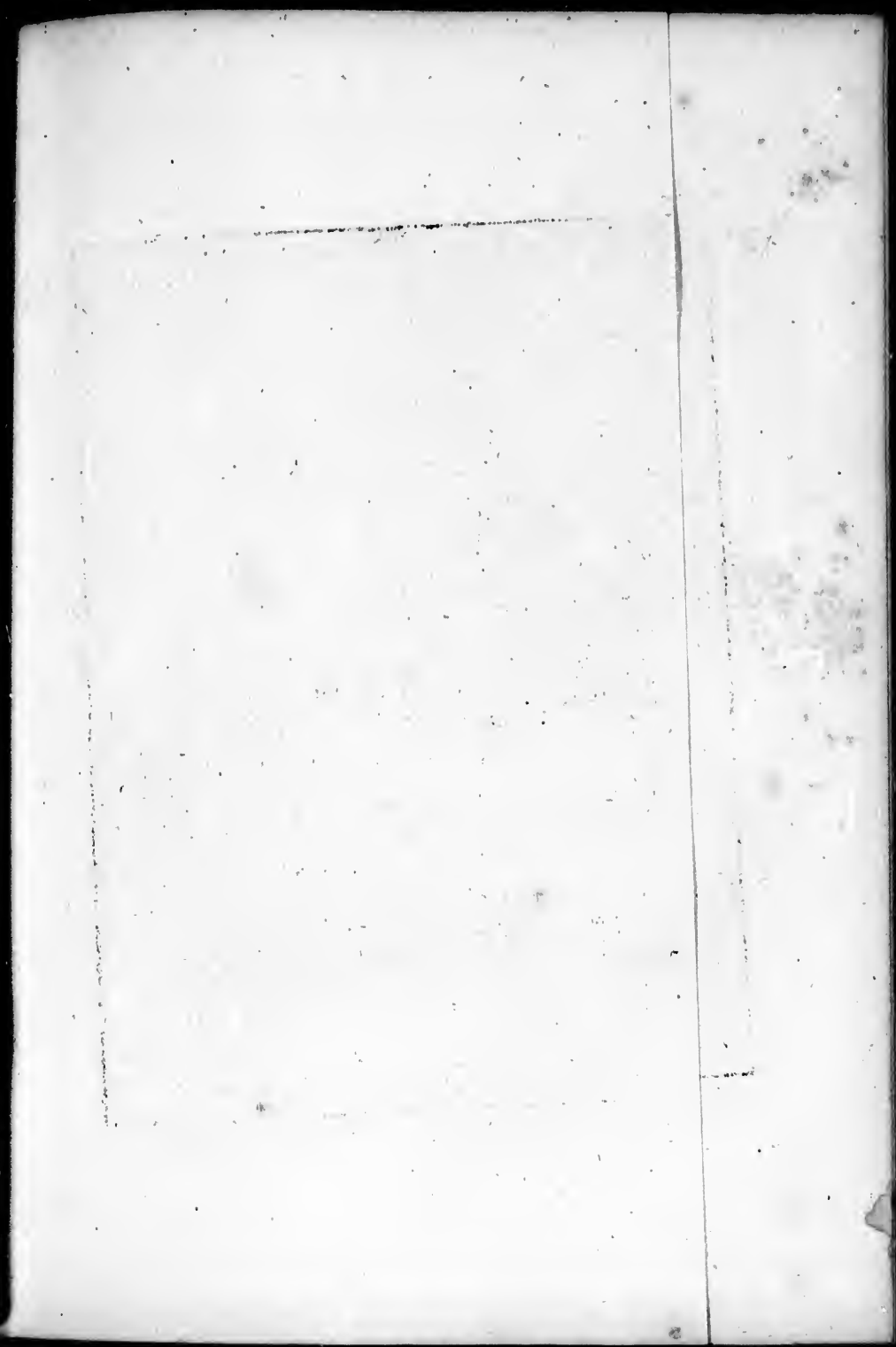
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C H A P. XVI.

J A M A I C A.

Location and Extent, Soil, Climate, Vegetable Productions, Rivers, Inhabitants, Towns, &c.

THIS island, which is the most important of those belonging to England, is situated between the 17th and 19th deg. of west long. from London, and between the 17th and 18th of north lat. and lies near 4,500 miles south west of England. It is about 140 miles in length, from east to west, and about 60 miles breadth in the centre, for it is of an oval form, and consequently grows gradually narrower towards each end.

As to the soil and face of the island, there is a ridge of hills, called the Blue Mountains, that run through it from east to west; the tops of which are covered with different kinds of trees, particularly cedar, lignum-vitæ, and mahogany, which render them equally pleasant and profitable to the inhabitants. Several of the rivers, well stored with fish, and navigable by canoes, take their rise from these mountains. A lower ridge runs parallel to the greater, and the hills, or savannahs, are exceeding level, without stones, fit for pasture, and fruitful, when cleared of wood, especially on the south side of the island. After the rains, or seasons, as they are called, the savannahs are very pleasant, and produce such quantities of grass that the inhabitants are sometimes forced to burn it; but, after long droughts, they are quite parched and burnt up.

The air of this island is in most places excessively hot, and unfriendly to European constitutions; but the cool breezes, which constantly set in at ten o'clock in the morning, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. A night seldom passes here without lightning, but it is not always attended by thunder, which in this island roars with uncommon violence, and is dreadful to the astonished hearer, particularly as at these times the lightning does great damage. In February or March, the inhabitants always expect earthquakes, which have been productive of the most fatal effects in these parts.

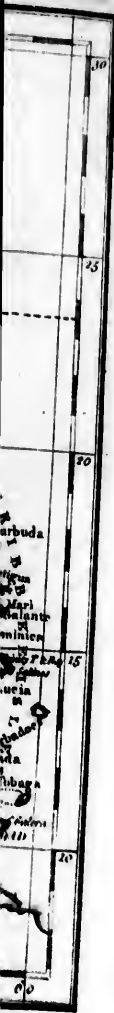
The chief vegetable production of this island is the sugar-cane, which deservedly employs the principal attention of the inhabitants, it being the staple commodity of their trade. It is propagated by planting cuttings of it in the ground, in furrows dug parallel for that purpose; they are laid level and even, and covered up with earth, from whence they soon shoot out new plants from their knots or joints, and grow so quick, that in eight, ten, or twelve months at furthest, they are fit to cut for making of sugar.

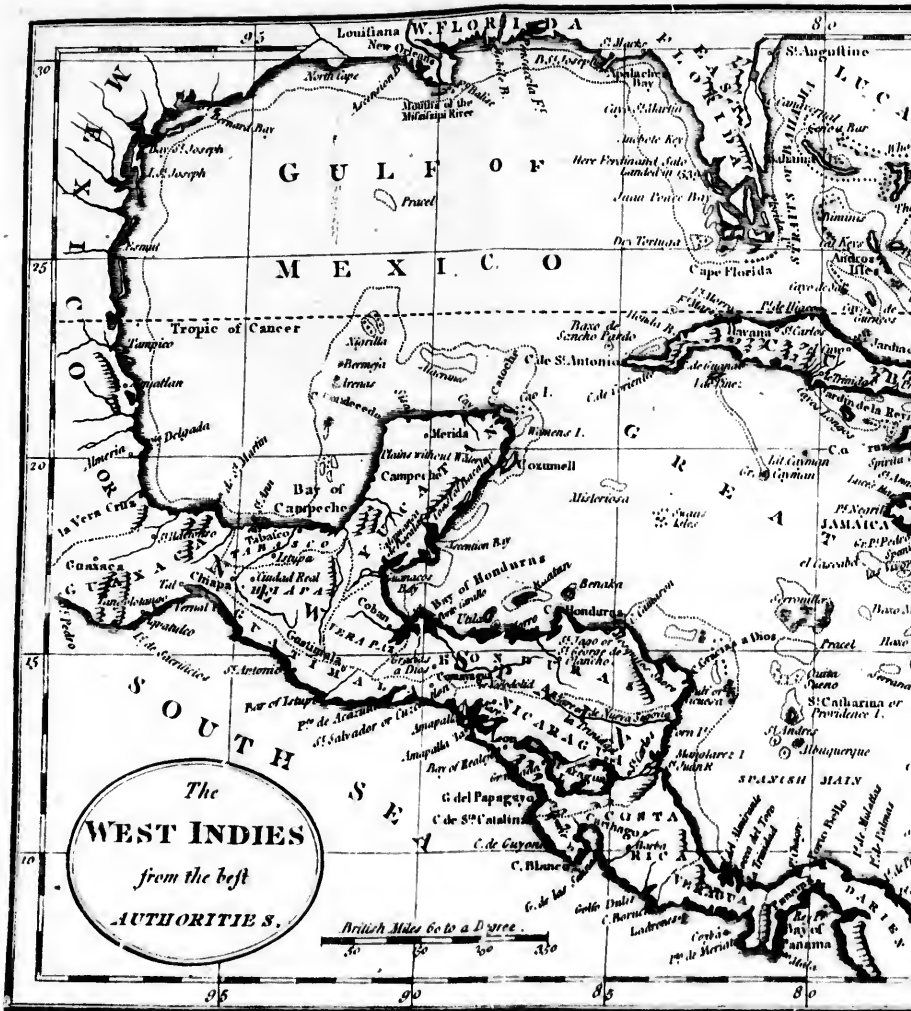
No sort of European grain grows in Jamaica; they have only Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none resembling those produced in England, with a variety of roots, among which are the yams and cassava. The fruits found there are oranges, lemons, limes, citrons, dates, pomegranates, shaddock, manies, papas, sour-ops, pine-apples, cullard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, alicada pears, plantains, melons, and guavas, besides several kinds of berries. It also produces cotton, coffee, pimento, some cacao, and indigo, guaiacum, China-root, sarsaparilla, callicistula, tamarinds, venellas, and a coarse kind of tobacco. Woods for dyeing, as fustic, red-wood, log-wood, and mangrove, and olive-bark for the tanners. The most remarkable trees are, the manchineel, whose fruit appears exceeding beautiful to the eye, but is of a poisonous quality; the cabbage-tree, the wood of which is so hard that it scarcely yields to any kind of tool, and when dry is incorruptible; the mahogany, so much used by our Cabinet-Makers; the wild cinnamon-tree, the bark of which is useful in medicine; and the soap-tree, whose berries answer all the purposes of soap.

Horses, asses, mules, goats, hogs, and sheep, are very numerous in Jamaica; black cattle were also formerly very plentiful, but through the inattention of the inhabitants to grazing, there are very few, so that they are at present supplied with beef from Carolina and other American settlements on the continent. There are plenty of racoons and rabbits, but no hares or deer. Of wild fowl there is a great variety, as ducks, teal, wigsons, geese, turkeys, pigeons, Guinea-hens, plovers, flamingos, and snipes; various kinds of parrots, and parroquets, and that beautiful little animal the humming-bird. The bays and rivers of Jamaica abound with excellent fish of almost all the European and American kinds, particularly tortoises, or turtles, sea-cows, and alligators. The mountains breed adders and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewasp, but these last are not venomous. Among the insects which infest this island, is the nigra, or chege, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and frequently of the white people. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the sharp point of a knife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may remain behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh away to the bone.

A great number of small rivers have their source among the rocks called the Blue Mountains, and fall down their sides in cataracts at once stupendous and dreadful. The waters of these rivers taste of copper,

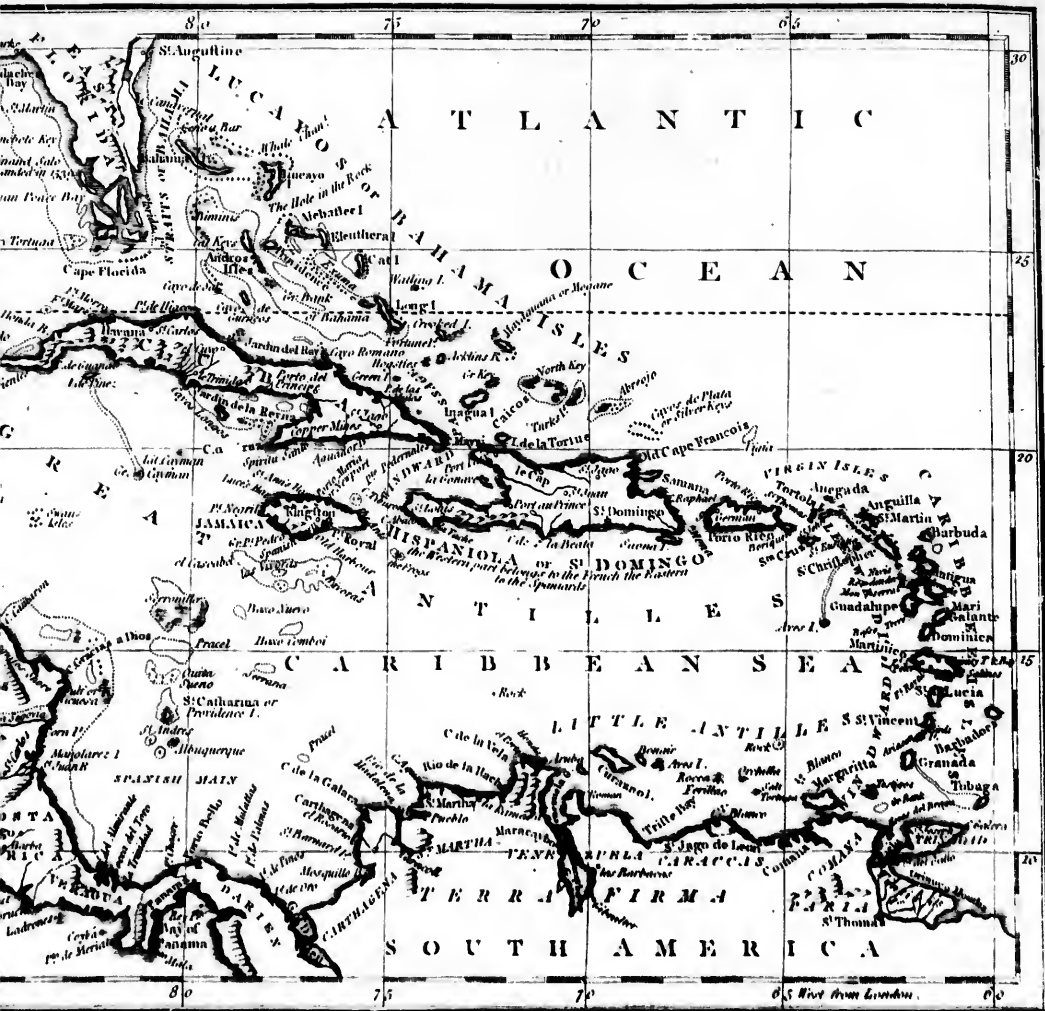
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and are very unwholesome. There are some fine springs in the island; but, upon the whole, this useful element is in many places very scarce; in others, it is so mixed with sand, and earthy particles, that it is not drinkable till it has settled for some days; and, in some years, several of the cattle have perished for want of water. Many salt springs are found in the plains; and in the mountains, at a little distance from Spanish Town, is a hot spring, which the inhabitants resort to as a bath, and attribute several medicinal virtues to the water.

The number of inhabitants in Jamaica does not exceed twenty-five thousand whites, and ninety thousand negroes: but about the beginning of this century, the former amounted to sixty thousand, and the latter to an hundred and twenty thousand: this decline is attributed to earthquakes and epidemical diseases. The inhabitants are either English, or of English extraction born upon the island; Indians, Negroes, and Mulattoes, or the descendants of them.

There is no country in the world where luxury is carried to a higher pitch than in this island: equipages, clothes, furniture, tables, all bear the marks of the greatest wealth, affluence, and profusion; and to this may be imputed the short stay which all the treasure they receive makes among them; the whole not being more than sufficient to answer their necessities and luxurious calls on Europe and North-America. The common drink of the better sort of people is Madeira wine mixed with water; but those of inferior rank usually drink rum punch, which they term Kill Devil; because being frequently drunk to excess, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers that in a few hours send them to the grave, especially strangers, which is the reason that so many die there upon their first arrival.

On Sundays, and particular occasions, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in silk coats and vests trimmed with silver; but at other times their usual dress is thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a handkerchief tied round the head, and a hat. The morning habits of the ladies consist of a loose gown wrapped carelessly round them; but against noon they always dress in a rich and most becoming taste. Men servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, and long trowsers of the same. The negroes of both sexes go naked, except those who are immediately employed in the house.

Besides the ordinary provisions, rats are sold here by the dozen, and when they have bred among the sugar canes, are thought, by some people, very delicious food. Snakes and serpents, and colli, a sort of worms, are eaten by the Indians and negroes.

There is great reason to believe that there were formerly a great many more persons of property in Jamaica than there are now, though their fortunes were not very large. The inhabitants were undoubtedly very

numerous, till reduced by earthquakes and by several epidemical diseases, which immediately succeeded former calamities, swept away vast multitudes. The decrease of the inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, arise from the difficulties to which their trade is exposed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great-Britain; particularly that they are of late deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and goods to the Spanish coast; the low value of the produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements the French make in their sugar colonies, that they are enabled to underfell them by the lowering of their duties; and also on account of the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch islands, where they pay no duties, and are supplied with goods at an easier rate. Some of these complaints, which equally affect other islands, have been heard, and others still remain undressed. Both the logwood-trade, and the trade carried on by our islands with the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, have often been the subject of great contention, and even caused a war between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right; and it was accordingly, by a late peace, confirmed to us: the latter we permitted, from a natural disposition, that if the Spaniards found themselves grieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a stop to it; especially if they have guarda costas cruising in those seas, and are found carrying on an illicit trade. These arguments were thought sufficient till the conclusion of the peace of 1763, when the British ministry, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to send English cruisers to the American coast, and to attempt to crush that lucrative trade: a proceeding which has occasioned the complaints of the whole body of British subjects in America, as a stop thereby put to the principal channel which has enabled them to remit such prodigious sums to Great-Britain.

They import from England linen, silk, and woollen clothing of all kinds; wrought iron, brass, and copper, all sorts of hard-ware, toys, household-furniture, and great quantities of flour.

Sugar, rum, molasses, and cotton, are the chief produce of the island. In 1753, they exported 20,315 hogheads of sugar, some of them very great, which were worth in England 424,725*l*. Of rum, they export about 4,000 puncheons. In molasses, they make a great part of their returns for New England, where they are vast distilleries. The other commodity is cotton, of which they send out 2000 bags. They also carry on a considerable trade with the Spanish colonies of New Spain and Terra Firma; in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and in both they

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 kinds of European goods.

Kingston, the new capital of this island, is situated
 the bay of Port Royal. The harbour is one of
 the most commodious in America, being about three
 leagues broad in most places; so deep that a ship of
 1000 tons may lay close to the shore; and so capacious,
 that a thousand sail may ride in safety. The entrance
 is defended by Fort Charles, one of the strongest fortifi-
 cations on the English islands, a battery of 60 pieces
 of cannon, and a garrison of regulars maintained by
 the crown. The town, which stands commodiously
 on a hill, has fresh water, and every other convenience of life,
 about a mile long, and half a mile broad. The
 streets are handsome, regular, and contain upwards of
 1000 houses, most of which are well, and some ele-
 gantly built, according to the taste of these islands,
 which is only one story high, with porticos. Its in-
 habitants are estimated at 17,000, among whom are
 but 5000 whites and 12,000 free negroes or mu-
 lattoes.

Port-Royal, the old capital, stood upon the point
 of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea,
 formed part of the border of the above-mentioned
 harbour, the excellency of which induced the inha-
 bitants to build their chief city on this spot,
 though it was hot dry sand, and produced none of
 the necessaries of life. It soon, however, became a
 scene of great consequence, and the resort of those
 famous pirates called Buccaneers, a people who made
 annual depredations on the Spanish coast, and
 fought with an incon siderate bravery to obtain a for-
 tune, which they spent with as incon siderate dissi-
 pation in this town. This, together with the trade of
 the island, had so good an effect, that about the be-
 ginning of the year 1692, the place exceeded every
 other of its size, for wealth, and an entire corruption
 in manners. But this prosperity was of no long
 continuance: in the month of June, the same year,
 an earthquake shook the whole island to its founda-
 tion, and totally overwhelmed this city: the earth
 opened and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses,
 and two thousand of the inhabitants. The water
 gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tum-
 bled the people in heaps; some of them, however,
 were the good fortune to catch hold of beams and raft-
 ers of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats.
 Several ships were cast away in the harbour, and
 the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock, was carried
 to the tops of sinking houses; but, fortunately, she
 did not overturn, and afforded a retreat to some hun-
 dreds of people, who by that means saved their lives.
 An officer, who happened to be on the spot, observes,
 that the earth opened and shut very quick in some
 places, and he saw several people sink down to the
 middle, while others appeared with their heads just
 above the ground, and were pressed to death. At
 Port-Royal, above a thousand acres were sunk, with

the houses and people, the place appearing for some
 time like a lake. The waters afterwards dried away;
 but not the least vestige of the houses remained.
 Some of the mountains were split asunder; at one
 place, a plantation was removed to the distance of
 a mile, and the most stupendous rocks were whirled
 from their eminences. After the consternation, oc-
 casioned by this shocking scene of horror and desola-
 tion, had some time subsided, the town was rebuilt,
 but, about ten years after, it was again destroyed by
 fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour,
 however, induced the inhabitants to raise it a third
 time; and a third time it was laid in rubbish by a
 hurricane, the most terrible on record. This hap-
 pened so lately as the year 1722, and almost ruined
 the island. Such repeated catastrophes occasioned
 them to abandon the place, and accordingly they
 built Kingston, on the opposite side of the bay: of
 late years, however, Port-Royal has been in some
 measure rebuilt; its commodious situation having
 tempted many to settle on this seemingly devoted
 spot, and run all hazards.

On October 3, 1780, there was a dreadful hurri-
 cane, which almost overturned the little sea-port town
 of Savannah-la-Mer; in this island, and part of the
 adjacent country, very few houses were left standing,
 and a great number of people were killed. In other
 parts of Jamaica much damage was also done, and
 many lives lost.

St. Jago de la Vega, commonly called Spanish-
 Town, in Middlesex, is a small city, pleasantly si-
 tuated on the river Cabre. It contains a number of
 good houses, and is the residence of the governor,
 of the courts of justice, and the place where the assem-
 bly is held. The greater part of the inhabitants are
 persons of fortune or rank, which gives it an air
 of splendor and magnificence. The principal building
 is the governor's house, which is one of the most
 elegant in America. Here are also a handsome
 church, a chapel, and a Jewish synagogue.

Between this town and that of Kingston, is Fort-
 Passage, a village of but few houses, and so called,
 because they who go from one town to the other land
 or embark there.

The misery and hardships of the negroes, in general,
 are great; and though the utmost care is taken to
 make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive
 so shortens their lives, that, instead of increasing by
 the course of nature, many thousands are annu-
 ally imported, to supply the place of those who pine
 and die by the hardships they receive. They are, in-
 deed, stubborn and untractable for the most part,
 and they must be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought
 not to be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort
 of beasts, without souls, as many of their overseers
 think them at present, though some of these tyrants
 are themselves the dregs of England, and the refuse
 of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, how-

ever, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situations easy and comfortable; and it has been observed, that in North America, where in general these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better.

The slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale: they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures; but they soon become roguish; and when they come to be punished for their faults, excuse themselves by the examples of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers their spirits, and renders the burthen of life easy, which would otherwise to many be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing; and it is surprizing to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it: they are quite transported to think their slavery is near at an end, that they shall revisit their native shores, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow slaves kiss him, wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home, and enjoys perfect happiness.

English money is seldom seen here, the current coin being entirely Spanish. There is hardly any place where silver is more plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. Notwithstanding provisions are in general tolerably reasonable, yet a person cannot dine decently for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week.

Learning is here at a very low ebb: there are, indeed, some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great-Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous dissipation.

The established religion here, as well as in all the British islands, is that of the church of England; but there are yet no bishops: the bishop of London's commissary is the principal ecclesiastic in these islands.

The government of Jamaica is the same with that of Virginia, and indeed all other royal governments. It is, next to that of Ireland, the best in the king's gift. The standing salary is 2,500*l.* a year, the assembly vote the governor as much more, and this, with the other great profits of his office, make it little less than 10,000*l.* a year.

Jamaica was conquered by the English forces sent out by Cromwell on an expedition against Hispaniola. That attempt failing, they laid siege to this island with an army of 10,000 men; and the place being in no posture of defence, the Spaniards surrendered it up to the besiegers. They made no attempt after-

wards to retake it; and after the Restoration it was ceded to Great-Britain by treaty. Some of the troops employed in its reduction were settled in the island by Cromwell; and many of the royalists, uneasy at home, sought an asylum there, while the amazing fertility of the soil, and other advantages which it offered, induced many of the planters in Barbadoes to quit their abode, and settle in Jamaica. The latter taught the former settlers the manner of raising the sugar-canes and making sugar; for, before their arrival, they followed the customs of the Spaniards, and applied themselves entirely to the raising of cocoa. They also introduced the culture of indigo; and from that period, sugar and indigo became the principal staple commodities of the island.

To the north-west of Jamaica are three small islands dependent on this, and known by the name of the Caymans. The most southerly is distinguished by the name of Great Cayman: the other two, which are distant from it about 20 leagues, are called Little Cayman and Cayman-Brack. Great Cayman is the only one that is constantly inhabited: it is very low, and covered with high trees. It has not any harbour for ships of burthen, only a tolerable anchoring place on the south-west. The inhabitants, who amount to about 200, are descended from the old Buccaneers. They have given themselves a set of laws, and choose a chief to see them executed, in conjunction with the justices of peace appointed by commission from the governor of Jamaica. As they have no clergyman among them, they go to Jamaica to be married. This colony is undoubtedly the most happy in the West-Indies; the climate and the kind of food, which are of a singular salubrity, rendering the people healthy and vigorous, and making them live to a very advanced age. Their little island produces plenty of corn and vegetables, hogs and poultry, much beyond what is required for their own consumption. They have, besides, sugar canes, and fountains of pretty good water. Being quite handsomely to the sea; they are excellent pilots for the neighbouring coasts; and their island, as well as their civility and humanity, have been many times a refuge to ships which were distressed in this part of the sea. Their principal employment is fishing for turtle. In strict every year leads a prodigious number of turtles to these islands to lay their eggs, the greater part of which come from the Bay of Honduras. The low and sandy shores of these islands, particularly of the Great, are perfectly commodious to receive and cover their eggs. A female lays some hundred. When they have done laying, the turtles retire towards the Isle of Cuba, and the other large islands, where they recover themselves in the submarine pastures, and, in about a month's time, acquire that bulk which makes them so much esteemed on the tables of the great. The inhabitants of Great Cayman shut them up, as soon as they are caught, in

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and the other large islands
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losures, which they call *cralls*, made with stakes, in
smooth water, between the shore and a reef of
rocks on the north-east coast. These turtles serve for
the traffic which they carry on with Port-Royal:
is an article of food which is very wholesome;
and the shell of the hawk's-bill kind is a commo-
ity which has a place among the exportations to
Great-Britain.

BARBADOES.

*Description and Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants,
Chief Towns, Religion, &c.*

THIS is the most easterly of all the Caribbee
lands, being situated in the 59th deg. of west
long, and the 13th of north lat. It is 21 miles in
length, and 14 in breadth. When the English, some-
time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found
the place the most wild and desolate that can be ima-
gined. It did not exhibit the least appearance of
having been ever peopled, even by savages. There
was no kind of beast of pasture or of prey; no fruit,
herb, no root, fit for supporting human life. Yet,
the climate was good; and the soil fertile, some
specimen of small fortunes in England resolved to
come adventurers in cultivating it. These planters
not only the desolate nature of the place, and
extreme want of provisions to struggle with, but
trees were so large, and the wood so hard and
thorn, that they met with great difficulty in clear-
ing as much ground as yielded them a subsistence.
By degrees things grew better; some of the wood
proved useful, a wood wanted by the dyers; cotton
and indigo agreed well with the soil, and tobacco,
becoming fashionable in England, yielded toler-
ably. These good appearances, with the storm
which some time after began to gather in England,
encouraged many to go over; and so great was the
increase of people in Barbadoes, that in 1650, after
having been settled only 25 years, it contained 50,000
whites, and a much greater number of negro and In-
dian slaves; the latter they basely seized in the neigh-
bouring islands, and carried into slavery; which disho-
nourable conduct has rendered the Caribbee Indians
unconcilable to us ever since. Their cultivation of
sugar soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The
number of slaves still increased; and it is supposed that
in 1676 they amounted to 100,000, which, together
with the 50,000, make 150,000 souls on this small spot, a
number of population unknown in Holland, or even
in the best inhabited parts of China.

The trade of Barbadoes with Great-Britain, &c.
amounts to 400 vessels of all burthens. The principal
articles of exportation are aloes, cotton, ginger, sugar,
and molasses. In 1770 this exportation amount-
ed to 331,000*l.* to Great-Britain; 120,000*l.*

to North America; and 11,000*l.* to the other islands;
and their circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* But
this island has lately been much on the decline, which
is attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar-
colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the
neighbouring isles. Their numbers are now computed
at 20,000 whites, and 100,000 slaves. Their capital is
Bridgetown, situated in Carlisle Bay; here the governor
resides, and has a salary of 5000*l.* per annum. Here
is a college founded and well endowed by Col. Codging-
ton, a native of this island. Barbadoes has suffered
much by pestilence, hurricanes, and fires. On Octo-
ber 10, 1780, a dreadful hurricane caused great devas-
tation in this island, great numbers of the houses were
destroyed, many damaged, a great number of per-
sons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and
others driven into the sea, and perished there. The
church of England is the established religion here; the
Dissenters are very few. Here is, in general, a greater
appearance of order and decency, and of a settled people,
than in any other of the West-India islands.

St. CHRISTOPHER'S.

THIS island, sometimes, for brevity's sake, called
St. Kitt's, is situated in 62 deg. west long, and 17 deg.
north lat. It is about twenty miles long, seven broad,
and seventy-five in circumference. It owes its name to
Christopher Columbus, who first discovered it for the
Spaniards, who, not finding it to abound in the precious
metal, abandoned it; and, in 1626, it was settled by
the French and English conjointly, but entirely ceded
to England by the treaty of Utrecht. It contains about
7000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. Besides cotton,
ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces as
much sugar as Barbadoes.

Basseterre is the most considerable town upon this
island, and was formerly the capital of the French part:
the other is called Sandy Point, and always belonged
to the English. There is no harbour; on the contrary,
the surf is continually beating on the sandy shore at the
few places fit to land, which not only prevents the
building any quay or wharf, but renders the landing or
shipping of goods always inconvenient, and very often
dangerous. They have been, therefore, obliged to adopt
a particular method to embark, or put the heavy goods,
such as hogheads of sugar or rum, on board. For this
purpose, they use a small boat of a peculiar construc-
tion, called a *mises*; this boat sets off from the ship
with some very active and expert rowers; when they
see what they call a *fall*, that is, an abatement in the
violence of the surge, they push to land, and lay the
sides of the mokes on the strand, the hoghead is rolled
into it, and the same precautions are used to carry it to
the ship. It is in this inconvenient and very hazardous
manner that the sugars are conveyed on board by single
hogheads.

hogheads. Rum, cotton, and other goods that will bear the water, are generally floated to the ship both in going and coming.

The public affairs at St. Christopher's are administered by a governor, a council, and an assembly chosen from the nine parishes into which the island is divided, and which have each a large handsome church.

The island of St. Christopher sustained great damage by a violent hurricane, which happened in the month of October 1780. All the goods in the warehouses and cellars near the beach were totally destroyed, and upwards of 100 vessels were driven out to sea, many of which were lost, and the crews perished.

The French took this island in February 1782, but it was restored by the peace with England in 1783.

A N T I G U A.

THIS island was discovered by Christopher Columbus, but not settled upon till the year 1632, when the English took possession of it. It is situated in 61 deg. west long. and 17 deg. north lat. and is of a circular form, about twenty miles each way, and near sixty in circumference. It is more noted for good harbours than all the English islands in these seas, yet so encompassed with rocks, that it is of dangerous access in many parts, especially to those that are not well acquainted with the coast.

Here the climate is hotter than in Barbadoes, and very subject to hurricanes. The soil is sandy, and much of it overgrown with wood. There are but few springs, and not so much as a brook in the whole island; so that the principal dependence of the inhabitants arises from the water supplied by casual rains, which they save in cisterns.

St. John is the capital of Antigua; it is a regular built town on the western shore, with a good harbour of the same name, whose entrance is defended by Fort James. It is the residence of the governor-general of the Caribbee Leeward-Islands, the place where the assembly for this island is held, and the port where the greatest trade is carried on. It was a very flourishing town before the fire in 1769. The number of inhabitants are computed at 7000 whites, and 30,000 slaves. The best port in the island is English Harbour, on the south side. At much trouble and expence it has been made fit to receive the greatest ships of war. There are also a dock-yard with stores, and all the materials and conveniences necessary to repair and careen. English Harbour is at a small distance from the town and harbour of Falmouth. There are, besides, Willoughby Bay, to the windward of English Harbour; Nonsuch Harbour, on the east point; and the town and harbour of Parham, on the north side; also a great number of creeks and smaller bays; but, in general, the shore being rocky, wherever the landing would be practica-

ble, it is defended by forts and batteries; and there commonly one regiment of regular troops quarters there for the defence of the island. When the governor-general thinks proper, he calls a general assembly the other islands.

Antigua has, besides, a lieutenant-governor, a council, and its own assembly, composed of twenty-four members. It is divided into six parishes and eleven districts, of which ten send each two representatives, and that of St. John four.

A gentleman (Mr. T—wle) residing at St. John in Antigua, has favoured us with the following pleasing account: he writes, that at the end of the year 1799, in consequence of a plan set on foot by some benevolent persons for instructing the negroes on that island, the congregation he belongs to amounted then to 5495 negroes, who are remarkably punctual and devout in their attendance on divine worship, and that their singing particularly pleasing: that, since May 1793, there have been baptised about 244 adults, or grown negroes, besides very many children; and a great number of adults and children have been baptised on their sick beds. He adds, that Antigua is a very pleasant island, and produces large quantities of sugar, oranges, limes, pineapples, and several other kinds of delicious fruits; the other sorts of provision are very dear, cheese being one per pound English money, and porter 1s. a bottle. He observes further, that some of the slaves are, for the smallest offence, treated very unmercifully; and hoing, are whipped before their driver like so many beasts.

GRENADA AND THE GRENADINES.

GRENADA is situated in 12 deg. north lat. and 61 deg. 40 min. west long. near thirty leagues south-west of Barbadoes, being about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. The soil of this island is exceeding proper for the culture of sugar, tobacco, and indigo. A mountain, about the centre of the island, is a lake that supplies it plentifully with streams of fresh water, which adorn and fertilize it. The bays and harbours of the island are very convenient for shipping, and it is not subject to hurricanes. In the harbour of St. George's Bay 100 vessels may be safely moored. The French first established a colony here, between whom and the natives there was a long and bloody war, in which the latter, though few in number, defended themselves against their invaders with the most resolute bravery. When Grenada was attacked by the English in the latter war but one, the French inhabitants were so amazed at the reduction of Martinico and Guadalupe, that they surrendered without opposition; and the property of this island, together with that of the Grenadines lying on the north of it, were ceded to the English by the treaty of Paris in 1763; but, in July 1779, the French again made themselves masters of Grenada, though

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DOMINICA.

THIS island is situated in 16 deg. north lat. and 62
deg. long, and lies about half way between Guadalupe
and Martinico. It is about twenty-eight miles in
length, and thirteen in breadth; and received its name
from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The
soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rear-
ing of coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear
the finest trees in the West-Indies, and the whole island
is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. Here, as
in some other of the Caribbees, is a sulphur mountain,
and hot spring, equal in salubrity to those of Bath in
England; and the fine fruits, particularly the pine-
apples, are superior to any that grow on the French
islands. At the north-west end of the island, is a deep,
spacious, sandy bay, called Prince Rupert's, which is
well secured from the winds by mountains on all sides.
The most distinguished place in this island is the town
of Roseau, situated on a spacious harbour. The houses
are low and irregularly placed, and the town is sheltered
by the circumjacent mountains, some of which rise to a
considerable height. The most advantageous view of
the town is from the bay, or harbour, where ships of
considerable size ride at anchor with the greatest safety.
This island, on account of its situation, between the
principal French settlements here, and the commodious-
ness of its harbour, has been formed into a government
itself, and declared a free port. It was taken by the
French in 1778; but, by the ensuing peace, was restored
to Great-Britain.

ST. VINCENT.

THIS island is about twenty-four miles in length,
and eighteen in breadth, lying about fifty miles north-
west of Barbadoes. It is generally allowed to be one of
the best of all the Antilles. Out of the ridge of moun-
tains, which crosses it from north to south, rise a great
number of rivers well stored with fish. These moun-
tains are in general of an easy ascent; and the vallies
and plains, some of them of a large extent, are exceed-
ingly fertile, producing most of the necessaries of life,
particularly sugar, coffee, cocoa, and annatta. When
this island was ceded to Great-Britain, by the treaty of
Versailles, in 1763, there was a great number of a
mixed breed of Caribbees, and of shipwrecked or run-
away negroes; but these have been all long since ex-
terminated. The most remarkable place in St. Vin-
cent's is Kingstown, situated on a bay of the same
name at the south-west end of the island. It is the re-
sidence of the governor, and the place where the assem-
bly meet. About three miles from Kingstown, towards

the south-east, is the town of Calligua, whose harbour
is the most considerable in the whole island. Many
of the inhabitants are Caribbees, and many here are also
fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. The
Caribbees were treated with so much injustice and
barbarity, after this island came into possession of the
English, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763,
that they greatly contributed towards enabling the
French to get possession of it again in 1779; but, by the
treaty of peace, it was restored to Great-Britain.

NEVIS.

THIS is no more than a vast mountain rising to a
very considerable height. It is situated about four miles
to the south of St. Christopher's. The soil is fruitful,
and the staple commodity sugar, which serves all the
purposes of money. Here are sometimes violent
storms and hurricanes, as in the other islands, and the air is
even hotter than that of Barbadoes.

Here are many remarkable insects and reptiles, par-
ticularly the flying-tyger, the horn-fly, and a kind of
snail called the soldier. The sea abounds with a variety
of excellent fish, as groopers, rock-fish, old wives, cav-
allites, wellshmen, mud-fish, wilks, cockles, lobsters,
&c. Land-crabs are very common here; they are
smaller than sea-crabs, and make little burrows, like
rabbits, in the woods, towards the tops of the moun-
tains. The only venomous creatures are scorpions and
centipedes.

On this island there is plenty of asparagus; they have
also a tree called diddle-doo, which bears a lovely blos-
som of the finest yellow and scarlet colours, and is
esteemed a sovereign remedy in some disorders. The
liquorice bush runs wild along the stone walls of com-
mon fields, like the vine. The butter here is not good,
and their new cheese far worse. The sheep have nei-
ther horns or wool, but are clothed with smooth hair,
and generally full of small red or black spots, resem-
bling those of a fine spaniel. They breed twice a year,
if not oftener, and generally bring two, three, or four
lambs at a time, and, what is more extraordinary,
suckle them all. The rams are of a pale red colour,
with a thick row of long, straight, red hair, hanging
down from the lower jaw to the breast, as far as the
fore legs. The hogs, being fed with Indian corn,
Spanish potatoes, and sugar-cane juice, are exceeding
sweet food, white, and fat; as are the fowls and tur-
kies, which are fed with the same diet. The ground
doves here are about the size of a lark, of a chocolate
colour, spotted with a dark blue, their heads like that
of a robin-red-breast, and their eyes and legs of a most
pure red. They have excellent game-cocks and fierce
bull-dogs, besides large cur-dogs, but no hounds or
spaniels.

Nevis was formerly much more flourishing than at
present,

ent, and, before the Révolution, contained 30,000 inhabitants. The invasion of the French about that time, and some epidemical disorders, have strangely diminished the number to what they then were. Here are three tolerable roads or bays, on which are as many little towns, viz. Newcastle, Littleborough on Moreton-Bay, and Charles-Town the capital, with a fort called Great Fort, that defends the anchoring-place, where the governor, council, and assembly, meet; the last is composed of five members for each of the three parishes into which the island is divided. Here, as in some of the other Caribbees, if a white man kills a black, he cannot be tried for his life for the murder; and all that he suffers is a fine of 500. currency to the master for the loss of his slave. If a negro strikes a white man he is punished with the loss of his hand; and, if he should draw blood, with death. A negro cannot be evidence against a white man.

The inhabitants of this place have three public annual fasts, to implore the divine protection against hurricanes; and, if none happen in July, August, or September, they appoint a public thanksgiving in October. The trade of Nevis consists in molasses, rum, and a prodigious quantity of lemons.

This island, as well as the following, was taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the peace in 1783.

M O N T S E R R A T.

This small island was discovered by Columbus in 1493. It lies in 16 deg. 37 min. north lat. and 62 deg. 13 min. west long. It is twenty-five miles almost south-south-east from Nevis; twenty west south-west from Antigua; forty north-west from Guadalupe; and 240 from Barbadoes. It is of an oval figure; about three leagues in length, the same in breadth, and eighteen in compass. The Spaniards gave it the name of Montserrat from a fancied resemblance it bore to a mountain of that name near Barcelona in Old Spain. It was settled in 1632 by Sir Thomas Warner, and taken in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. by the French, who restored it to England at the peace of Bréda. The first settlers were Irishmen, and the present inhabitants are principally composed either of their descendants, or of natives of Ireland.

With respect to climate, soil, and produce, they are much the same as those of the other English Caribbee Islands. The mountains yield cedars, the cypress-tree, the iron-tree, with other woods, and some odouriferous shrubs. It is well-watered and fruitful; and the planters formerly raised a great deal of indigo. The surrounding seas produce some hideous monsters, particularly two, which, from their remarkable ugliness, as well as the poisonous quality of their flesh, are called sea-devils. The lamanture, by some called the sea-cow, is found in this island, and generally at the entrance of fresh

water rivers. According to the accounts we have of it it is a amphibious animal, and lives mostly on land. Its flesh is reckoned very wholesome food, when salted; and they are so large, that two or three will load a canoe.

Montserrat is governed by a lieutenant-governor, council, and an assembly of eight representatives, one for each of the four districts which divide the island.

There is not any harbour belonging to this island, only three roads, namely, at Plymouth, which is the chief town in the island, Old Harbour, and Ker's Bay, where the shipping and landing of goods is attended with the same inconveniences as in the island of St. Christopher.

This island, as well as the former, was taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the peace in 1783.

B A R B U D A.

THIS island is situated in 18 deg. 6 min. north lat. and 61 deg. 35 min. west long. It is about twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. The air of Barbuda is not unsalutary; and the soil is fertile enough to yield all the vegetable productions of the other West-India islands; but the inhabitants apply themselves most wholly to the breeding of cattle, and raising provisions for the neighbouring isles. On the west side of the island is a good well-sheltered road, clear from rocks and sands. This island is the property of the Codrington family, and contains about 1500 inhabitants.

To the north of Barbuda are several small uninhabited islands. The most remarkable of them lies at six leagues distance, and is about a league long. It consists of an eminence, to which the Spanish discoverers, finding some resemblance to a hat, gave it the name of Sombrero, which it has always preserved.

To the west of Barbuda and Sombrero, after having crossed a channel of eight leagues, begin the VIRGIN ISLANDS. These take up a space, from east to west, about twenty-four leagues long, quite to the eastern coast of Porto Rico, with a breadth of about five leagues. They are composed of a great number of islands whose crasts, rent throughout and sprinkled with rocks every where dangerous to navigators, are famous for shipwrecks, and particularly of several galleons. Hospitality for the trade and navigation of these islands, has been placed in the middle of them a large basin of five or four leagues broad, and six or seven long, the shape that can be imagined, and in which ships may not be landlocked, and sheltered from all winds. The Spaniards called it the Virgins' Gangway; but its true name is the Bay of Sir Francis Drake, who first entered it in 1580, when he made his expedition against St. Domingo.

One of these islands is called the Tropic Keys, for the astonishing quantity of Tropic birds which breed

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These birds are about the size of a pigeon, but
and plump like a partridge, and very good to eat.
their plumage is quite white, except two or three feathers
in each wing, which are of a clear grey. Their
beaks are short, thick, and of a pale yellow. They
have a long feather, or rather quill, about seven inches
long, which comes out of their rump, and is all the
they have. They obtained their name from not
having been ever seen but between the Tropics.

The Virgin Islands are all of them small, and the
smallest part uninhabited.

A N G U I L L A.

THIS island is situated in 18 deg. 15 min. of north
lat. and in 62 deg. 57 min. of west long. It is about
fifty miles long, and ten broad. Anguilla is capable
of great improvement; and the inhabitants formerly
cultivated sugar, which they still continue to do in small
quantities; but, like those of Barbuda, they chiefly
apply themselves to the breeding and feeding of cattle,
raising of Indian corn, and other parts of husbandry.
Within a few years, industry, and the indefatigable
labours of the planters of Anguilla, have convinced
them that their island not only produces all the necessaries
of life, but, besides, many provisions which they
sell to their neighbours, as well as sugar and cotton.
The climate is very healthy, and the inhabitants strong
and vigorous. Their exportations are sugar, rum, and
cotton.

Besides the British West-India islands above de-
scribed, Great-Britain is also possessed of several others
in the ocean, which are situated at the distance of some
hundred miles from each other. Our survey of these
islands begin at the northern extremity, and the first that
will engage our attention, is

NEW FOUNDLAND.

THIS island is situated to the east of the gulf of St.
Lawrence; between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and be-
tween 53 and 59 deg. west long. of a triangular form,
and nearly as large as Ireland; being separated from
Labrador, or New-Britain, by the Straights of Belleisle;
and from Canada, by the bay of St. Lawrence. The
principal towns are Placentia, Bonaville, and St. John.
The air on the coasts is thick and foggy, and there are
frequent storms of snow and sleet. The winter is long,
and often intensely cold; the summer is very hot, but
of short continuance, and, as the soil in most parts is
stony and barren, the vegetable productions are but
poor. It is, however, watered by several good rivers,
and hath some noble and capacious bays. The best
produce of this island consists in a great variety of ex-

cellent timber, which will afford an ample supply for
masts, yards, and all sorts of timber, when those com-
modities begin to grow scarce in our colonies.

But Newfoundland is chiefly valuable for the noble
cod fishery on its coasts and the neighbouring banks.

Great-Britain and North America, at the lowest
computation, annually employ three thousand sail of
small ships in this fishery; on board of which, and on
shore, to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 10,000
hands; so that this fishery is not only a valuable branch
of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to
many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent
nursery of seamen for the royal navy: at the same time,
it is computed that this fishery increases the national
stock 300,000l. annually, in gold and silver, remitted to
us for the cod we sell in the northern kingdoms, in
Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty
of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser ones,
which lie to the east and south-east of this island, is in-
conceivable; and not only cod, but several other spe-
cies of fish, are caught there in great abundance; all of
which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of
Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the
isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are
carried on upon all their coasts, which makes ample
amends for the barrenness of the soil, &c. The main
fishery is on the Great Bank, and the other banks about
this island, as also along the coast.

The Great Bank is a vast mountain under water, ex-
tending, in length, according to the most accurate sea-
charts, from the 41st deg. of north lat. to 49 deg. 25
min. and, in breadth, from 42 deg. 30 min. to 51 deg.
30 min. of west long. Its depth of water is from five
to sixty fathoms. This bank is covered with a vast
quantity of shells, and several kinds of fish of all sizes,
most of which serve for food to the cod-fish, whose num-
ber is immense. Great numbers of vessels have loaded
here annually for two centuries, yet this vast consump-
tion has produced no very apparent diminution of their
numbers.

The Great Bank is about 120 miles long, and about
fifty over where broadest. It lies off the south-coast
of Newfoundland. There are several other banks, but
they are not considerable enough to deserve particular
notice.

The Great Strand, or drying-place for fish, which is
about a league in extent, lies between two steep hills,
one of which is separated from the Strand by a small
rivulet, which forms a kind of lake, called the Little
Bay, abounding with salmon. The Great Strand may
contain at once wherewithal to load sixty ships. There
is another lesser Strand for the use of the inhabitants,
who fish all along the coast. The fishing season is from
Spring to September. All the train oil that comes
from Newfoundland is drawn chiefly from the livers of
the cod.

The process in catching the fish, preparing them,
&c. is as follows: the cod is caught with a harpoon,
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the best bait being a little fish called capelan; but, for want of this, they sometimes make use of the intestines of the cod-itself. As soon as the fisherman has caught a fish with his line, he pulls out its tongue, and gives the fish to another man, whom they call the beheader. This man, with a two-edged knife, like a lancet, slits the fish from the vent to the throat, which he cuts across to the bones of the neck; he then lays down his knife, and pulls out the liver, which he drops into a kind of tray, through a little hole made on purpose in the scaffold he works upon; he then guts it, and cuts off the head. This done, he delivers the fish to the next man, who stands over-against him. This man, who is called the slicer, takes hold of it by the left gill, and rests its back against a board, a foot long, and two inches high; he pricks it with the slicing knife on the left side of the vent, which makes it turn out the left gill; then he cuts the ribs, or great bones all along the vertebræ, about half way down from the neck to the vent; he likewise does the same on the right side; then cuts assant three joints of the vertebræ through to the spinal marrow; lastly, he cuts all along the vertebræ and spinal marrow, dividing them into two; and thus ends his operation. A third helper then takes this fish, and, with a kind of wooden spatula, scrapes all the blood that has remained along the vertebræ that were not cut. When the cod is thus thoroughly cleaned (sometimes washed) he drops it into the hold, through a hole made for that purpose, and the salter is there ready to receive it. This assistant crams as much salt as he can into the inner part of the fish, lays it down, the tail end lowest, rubs the skin all over with salt, and even covers it with more salt; then goes through the same process with the rest of the cod, which he heaps up one upon another till the whole is laid up. The fish, thus salted and piled up in the hold, is never meddled with any more till it is brought home and unloaded for sale. The cod intended for drying is caught and beheaded in the same manner; but the operation of salting varies in some few particulars.

The Indians, or natives, of this island, are said to be a gentle, mild, tractable people, easily gained by civility and good usage. They paint their bodies, and, in winter, are clad in skins and furs.

Disputes were frequent for many years between France and England: at last the whole island was formally ceded to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets and cure their fish on the northern coasts of the island; and, by the treaty of 1763, they obtained liberty to fish in the gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three miles of any of the shores belonging to the English. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French for curing their fish; but they engaged to erect no fortifications on these islands, and to keep only fifty soldiers to enforce the police. In 1793, they were again taken

by the English, during the war with the French public.

The French, by the late treaty, were to enjoy fisheries on the north and west coasts of the island, but the Americans were allowed the same privileges in fish as before their independence. Placentia, Bonaville, St. John, are the chief towns in Newfoundland; in the winter, not above 1000 families remain here, a small squadron of men of war are sent out every year to protect the fisheries and inhabitants of this island; the naval commander on this station is the governor.

CAPE BRETON,

THIS island is situated between 45 and 57 north lat. and between 61 and 62 deg. west long. It is 100 miles long, and eighty broad. It is situated about 100 leagues south-west from Newfoundland, and is separated by the stright of Causo from Nova Scotia. The north coast is high, and almost inaccessible; but the south coast contains several excellent harbours, particularly that of Louisburg, one of the finest in America. The air is nearly the same with that of Newfoundland; the heat and cold also is very little different; the soil in many places barren, but, in some, deep and rich, though it has never been properly cultivated. Horses, black cattle, sheep, goats, hogs, and poultry are found in plenty on the island, but game is scarce. The partridges are almost as large as pheasants, and not unlike them in the colour of their feathers. The quantity of cod and other fish in the adjacent sea is most incredible; whales, seals, porpoises, &c. are frequently seen near the coast. The vegetable productions are apples, pulse, wheat and other corn, flax and hemp. Oaks of a prodigious size, pinés, ash, maple, plane, and aspin trees abound here. Coals and lime-stone are found in almost every part of the island.

This island was suffered for many years to remain uninhabited: at last the French took possession of it in 1714, built Louisburg, and fortified it in the strongest manner. It was taken by the English in the year 1758, but restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was again taken during the last war but was and the fortifications of Louisburg totally demolished. By the treaty of peace in 1763 it was ceded to the English, so that the French have now no port or shelter for the relief of their trading ships either to or from the West-Indies. There are several small islands lying round Cape Breton, particularly those of St. Peter and Madame, or Maurepas.

ST. JOHN'S.

THIS island lies very near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, but has greatly the advantage of both in place

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ness and fertility of soil. It is 60 miles long,
 and near 40 broad, and has many fine rivers. On
 the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this
 island, amounting to 4000, submitted quietly to the
 British arms; and to the scandal of the French gov-
 ernor, in his house several English scalps were
 brought thither to market by the savages of
 Nova Scotia; this being the place where they were
 encouraged to carry on that inhuman trade. When
 this island was in the possession of the French, they
 much improved it, that it furnished great quan-
 tities of beef and pork, and also plenty of corn, so
 that it was styled the granary of Canada.

BERMUDAS, OR THE SUMMER ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which received their first name
 from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who discovered
 them; and their second from Sir George Sommers,
 who was shipwrecked on the rocks in his voyage
 to Virginia in 1609, are situated in the Atlantic
 Ocean, in 32 deg. 25 min. north lat. and 66 deg.
 47 min. west long. These islands, which are said
 to be 400 in number, are very small, not containing
 all more than 20,000 acres. They are very dif-
 ficult of access, being, as Waller (who resided there
 for some time) expresses it, walled in with rocks.
 There are, however, several open channels between
 them; but a pilot well acquainted with the coast is
 necessary.

The air of these islands is clear and healthy, the
 climate temperate and delightful, the soil prodigiously
 rich, and the vegetable productions, both of trees,
 plants, and flowers, very numerous, and of various
 kinds. The number of white inhabitants is about
 2,000, and the negroes 1,500. Their chief trade
 consists in building and navigating light sloops and
 brigantines, which they employ for the most part
 in the trade between North America and the West
 Indies. These vessels are remarkably swift sailers;
 and the cedar, of which they are principally built, is
 valued for its hard and durable quality.

The capital, called the town of St. George, is
 situated at the bottom of a harbour, on an island of
 the same name, and is defended by seven or eight
 guns mounted with 70 pieces of cannon. It con-
 tains about 1000 houses, and is decorated with a
 handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE LUCAYS, BAHAMA, AND
OTHER ISLANDS.

THESE islands are situated to the south of Ca-
 rolina, between 22 and 27 deg. north lat. and
 78 and 84 deg. west long. They extend along

the eastern coast of Florida quite down to the Isle of
 Cuba, and are said to be 500 in number; many of
 them, however, are only barren rocks; but twelve
 are large and fertile, though only one of them is pro-
 perly inhabited, namely, Providence, which is 100
 miles east of the Floridas. The air and soil are
 nearly the same with those of South Carolina; they
 are well watered every where with springs and rivers.
 Limes, four oranges, and sea-turtle abound in these
 islands.

The Lucays, or Bahamas, were the first land Co-
 lumbus discovered in America; but, being destitute
 of gold mines, they were never settled by the Spa-
 niards; nor were they known to the English till the
 year 1667, when Captain Seyle, being driven among
 them in a voyage to Carolina, examined them
 carefully, particularly that which is now called Pro-
 vidence. On his return, he reported the discovery he
 had made, and the benefit these islands might be to
 the state. Grants were in consequence made out to
 proprietors, but the government was reserved for the
 crown. The proprietors granted a lease of these
 islands to a number of merchants, called the Bahama
 Company; but the design proved abortive; and the
 proprietors taking no care to prevent pirates shelter-
 ing themselves in these islands, the government re-
 sumed the grant. In the year 1718 Captain Woodes
 Rogers was sent with a fleet to dislodge the pirates,
 and make a settlement. He executed his commission,
 erected a fort, and was made governor of the Bahama
 islands, where he died in 1733. From that time
 they have been improving, though not in any rap-
 id manner; and perhaps they will never be of
 any great consequence, except as preventive settle-
 ments, and affording shelter to ships and priva-
 teers in time of war, when the people gain consid-
 erably by the prizes condemned there; and at
 all times, by the wrecks, which are frequent in this
 labyrinth of rocks and shelves. Between these islands
 and the continent of Florida, is the gulf of Bahama,
 or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in
 their passage to Europe. The Spaniards and Amer-
 icans captured these islands during the last war; but
 on April 13, 1783, they were retaken by a British
 detachment from St. Augustine.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THESE islands are situated between 51 deg. 30
 min. and 52 deg. 15 min. south lat. and between
 55 deg. 40 min. and 56 deg. 47 min. west long.
 being about 50 miles in length from north to south,
 and 38 in breadth from east to west; they lie near
 the straits of Magellan, the extremity of the con-
 tinent of South America. These islands were first
 discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594; the
 principal

HENN'S.

near Cape Breton and Nova
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principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The present English name Falkland was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1699, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

King Charles II. having considered the discovery of this coast of great consequence, sent Sir John Narborough to survey the straits of Magellan, the neighbouring coast of Patagonia, and the Spanish ports in that frontier; with directions, if possible, to procure some intercourse with the Indians of Chili, who are generally at war, or at least on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to establish a commerce and lasting correspondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental causes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promised so many advantages to this nation, his transactions upon that coast, besides the many valuable improvements he furnished to geography and navigation, should be rather incentives for further trials of this kind, than any objection against them. The precautions and fears of the Spaniards plainly indicated that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the scheme he was sent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehension of its consequences. The British monarch, however, is said to have been so far convinced of the advantages which might accrue to the nation from this expedition, that having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's passing through the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himself in his barge to meet him at Gravesend.

In the year 1764, the late Lord Egmont, then first lord of the admiralty, revived the scheme of a

settlement in the South Seas, and Commodore Byron was sent to take possession of Falkland Islands in the name of his Britannic majesty, and in his journal represents them as a valuable acquisition. On the other hand, they are represented by Captain M'Brayne, who in 1766 succeeded that gentleman, as the worst cast of nature. "We found," says he, "a mass of barren mountains, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is summer; and if the winds in winter hold their natural proportion, those who but two cables length from the shore, must pass weeks without having any communication with the plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, which in more rugged and cold climates, had withered away, goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese, of a fishy taste, snipes, loxes, sea-lions, porpoises, plenty of good water, and, in the summer months, wild celery, and sorrel, are the natural productions of these islands.

But notwithstanding the dangerous navigation through these tempestuous seas, and the barrenness of the soil, an English settlement was at length made here, of which we were dispossessed by the Spaniards in 1770. That violence was, however, disavowed by the Spanish ambassador, and some concessions made to the court of Great-Britain; in order, therefore, to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain, the British ministry, in 1774, gave directions that the settlement should be finally abandoned.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

C H A P. XVIII.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Produce, Mountains, Rivers, Inhabitants, Chief Towns, &c.

THIS country is situated between 80 and 91 deg. west long. and between 25 and 32 north lat. being 500 miles in length, and 440 in breadth, and contains 100,000 square miles. It is bounded, on the north, by Georgia; on the west, by the Mississippi; on the south, by the gulf of Mexico; and, on the east, by the Bahama streights. The Floridas in-

clude a part of Louisiana, and were, by the late treaty of peace, ceded by Great-Britain to Spain.

The accounts which have been given concerning the climate, air, and soil of Florida, have so amazingly varied, that to give credit to one, we must entirely disbelieve the other. There is no doubt but in so extensive a tract these particulars must be very different in some parts from what they are in others; and it was natural for authors, who wrote either for or against this country, to give a description of its parts only as suited their purpose; observing a profound silence with regard to the rest. Thus we have some have represented it as a terrestrial paradise, while others have pronounced it the tomb of

AMERICA.]

Angels, who are unhappy as a truth, that I take possession of it, Spaniards asked them, "Is it any of at home?" The grants of lands in England, and were de- represented the climate as being the scorching heat of the summer, and a change of the north wind. In November and December, the leaves, vegetation is perceived, but so much as the plantain, the pine-apple, the orange, during the winter in England, are unknown to the equinoxes, the autumn is very heavy every day, when the thow is immediately, and all is covered with snow, and longevity of life respects far exceeds the Mexicans; Augustus, many of the islands back, especially in some parts, but in other parts, The vegetables produced here, pulle, roots, herbs, and in some parts limes, likewise a fruit called the cordial julep, cypresses, chefnut, and others, are found; mendihoca, of which is made; also a species of Indian corn a production in the vegetable country, is the naturalists the palmello little near the ground, appearance of a substantial weight. It is above an hundred feet the earth is about six or the whole body growing side texture of the laments, which being of every kind, as well the cabbage lies limes, which, when r-

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firming as a truth, that upon the landing of our troops
take possession of it, after the peace in 1763, the
Spaniards asked them, "What crimes have you been
guilty of at home?" The people, however, who ob-
tained grants of lands in Florida, when belonging
to England, and were desirous to settle or sell them,
represented the climate as a very agreeable medium
between the scorching heat of the tropics, and the
biting cold of the north latitudes; that there is in-
deed a change of the seasons, but it is a moderate
one. In November and December many trees lose
their leaves, vegetation goes on slowly, and the winter
is perceived, but so mild, that snow is never seen
there; and the tenderest plants of the West-Indies,
such as the plantain, the alligator pear-tree, the ba-
nan, the pine-apple, the sugar-cane, &c. remain un-
hurt during the winter in the gardens of St. Augustine;
and the fogs and dark gloomy weather, so common
in England, are unknown in this country; and though
at the equinoxes, the autumnal particularly, the rains
fall very heavy every day for three weeks together,
yet, when the shower is over, the sky clears up im-
mediately, and all is calm and serene. The air is
pure and wholesome, which appears from the size,
and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who in
all respects far exceed their more southern neigh-
bours, the Mexicans; and when the Spaniards quitted
St. Augustine, many of them were very old, some
wards of 90. The soil near the sea-coast, and
about 100 miles back, especially in East Florida, is flat and
fertile, but in other parts it is rich and fertile.
The vegetables produced in the Floridas are Indian
corn, pulse, roots, hemp, flax, vines, prunes,
and in some parts limes, oranges, and lemons. There
is likewise a fruit called tura, so exquisite and whole-
some, that the Europeans have given it the appella-
tion of the curdial julep; oaks, pines, laurels, palms,
cedars, cyresses, chestnuts, salfras, cotton trees, and
various others, are found here; as is silk-grass, the
root mendihoca, of which the cassava flour and bread
are made; also a species of grain resembling our oats;
and even the country round St. Augustine yields two
crops of Indian corn a year. But the most singular
production in the vegetable system in this, or in any
other country, is the cabbage-tree, called by some
naturalists the palmello royal. The trunk bulges out
a little near the ground, which gives it the becoming
appearance of a substantial basis to support its tow-
ering weight. It is straight as an arrow, rises
above an hundred feet in height, and the trunk near
the earth is about six or seven feet in circumference,
the whole body growing tapering to the top. The
side texture of the leaves appears as thread-like
filaments, which being spun are used in making cor-
rage of every kind, as well as fishing-nets. What is
called the cabbage lies in many thin, white, brittle
slices, which, when raw, have something of the

taste of almonds, and when boiled something of that
of cabbage, but sweeter and more agreeable.

A writer of respectable credit observes, that there is
not, in the whole continent of America, any place
better qualified by nature to afford not only all the ne-
cessaries of life, but also all the pleasures of habitation,
than that part of this country which lies upon the
banks of the Mississippi.

Indigo is found in the greatest plenty; and it is
said that great quantities of cochineal are to be met
with here; also amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and
other precious stones; copper, quicksilver, pit-coal,
and iron ore. The wild animals are the same as in
the Carolinas and Georgia; black cattle and sheep
are found in vast plenty; and horses are so numerous,
that a good saddle-horse may be purchased in exchange
for goods of 5s. value prime cost, and sometimes for
much less. The trade for furs, and various other
branches, as likewise the fisheries, might be rendered
very profitable.

The Apalachian mountains, so often mentioned,
are the most considerable; these give rise to many
of the noble rivers that run through the Floridas; the
principal of which are the Mississippi, the Ohio, the
Coza or Coussa, and the river St. John. The Missis-
sippi, which the French call St. Louis, is one of the
finest rivers in the world, and supposed to run a course
of 3000 miles, free from shoals and cataracts, and
navigable within sixty leagues of its source. Its nu-
merous mouths, however, are in a manner choked
up by sands, which deny access to vessels of any con-
siderable burthen; and even the principal entrance is
said to have no more than twelve feet water on the
bar, but within it is 100 fathom deep. The channel
is every-where free from shallows, and the current
gentle, except at a certain season of the year, when,
like the Nile, it becomes extremely rapid, and over-
flows its banks. The principal bays are, St. Bar-
nard's, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Jo-
seph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.
The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Sables, Anclore,
St. Augustine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of
the peninsula. Pearls, it is said, are found upon the
coasts.

The most considerable Indian tribes here are the
Creeks, Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickesaws, and
Natches. Their hair is long and black. Both sexes
go naked, except a deer-skin round their waist. The
men have robust bodies, and finely proportioned limbs.
The women are handsome and well shaped; and so
remarkably active, that they will swim across broad
rivers with their children on their backs, and climb
with surprising agility to the tops of the highest trees.
In religion, they are bigotted idolaters; and the
cruelty of the Spaniards has rendered Christianity
odious to them.

Pensacola is the chief town in West-Florida, and
is situated in 30 deg. 22 min. north lat. and 87 deg.
20 min.

20 min. west long. within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore, accessible only by small vessels; but in the road, which is one of the best in all the gulf of Mexico, ships may lie secure against every kind of wind, being surrounded on all sides by land. This place sent in skins, logwood, dyeing stuff, and silver in dollars, to the yearly amount of 63,000l. and, at an average of three years, received to the value of 97,000l. of our manufactures.

The capital of East Florida is St. Augustine, in 29 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 81 deg. 12 min. west long. The town runs along the shore, is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets crossing each other at right angles; it is fortified with bastions, enclosed with a ditch, and defended by a castle called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars have eight feet water at low tides.

It was natural to expect, from the luxuriancy of the soil, the salubrity of the air, the cheapness and plenty of provisions, and the encouragement given by the British government for persons to settle here, that the number of English inhabitants would have been much more considerable; but this defect is by some ascribed to the injudicious management of the colony. However this may be, the reduction of Pensacola in 1781, by the arms of the king of Spain, and his possession of this country at present, have deprived us of those flattering prospects of great advantages to England, which were expected to have been derived from our property in the Floridas.

There being many particulars respecting person, dress, manners, and customs, which are peculiar to the original Indians of Florida, we shall present them to the reader. They stain their skin with the juice of plants, and have long black hair, which they have a method of twisting and binding upon the head, so as to render it rather becoming. The women, in general, have good features, and are well made. The men, being stout and well proportioned, make use of bows and arrows with great dexterity. The strings of their bows are made of the sinews of stags; and they point the ends of their arrows with sharp stones, or the teeth of fishes.

In the management and distribution of their corn, which is accounted the common stock of the public, their economy is well worthy of notice. The crop, which is calculated to serve only half the year, is collected into granaries appointed for that purpose, and afterwards regularly delivered out to every family, in proportion to the number of persons it contains. The soil is, indeed, capable of affording much more corn than they are able to consume; but they choose to sow no more than will serve them for that term, retiring, for the remainder of the year, into the recesses of the forests, where they build huts of palm trees, and live upon roots, wild fowl, and fish. They

are very fond of the flesh of alligators, which has a strong musky smell. Their meat is dressed in a stew, and smoko upon a gridiron made of sticks, and water for their common drink.

The people are, in general, satisfied with one wife, but the chiefs are indulged with more, though the children of only one of them succeed to the father's dignity.

The government of the original Floridas is in the hands of many chiefs, who are called Caciques. They are frequently at war with each other. In their warlike expeditions they carry with them honey, maize, and sometimes fish dried in the sun. The chief marches at the head, carries a bow in one hand and a bow and arrows in the other; his quiver hangs at his back; and the rest follow tumultuously with the same arms. In their warlike deliberations, it is no matter be of great moment, their priests, who are also a kind of physicians, are called in, and their opinions particularly asked. Then the cacique commands round a kind of liquor like our tea, made by the infusion of the leaves of a certain tree.

They celebrate the funeral of a deceased cacique with great solemnity. They place upon his tomb a bowl out of which he was accustomed to drink, and stick great numbers of arrows in the earth around him, bewailing his death for three days with fasting and loud lamentations. The generality of them cut off their hair as a singular testimony of their sorrow. Their chieftains also set fire to, and consume, all the household furniture, together with the hut that belonged to the deceased, after which some old women are deputed, who every day, during the space of a year, at morning, noon, and evening, bewail him with dreadful howlings, according to the practice of some more civilized nations, and particularly the ancient Pomans, who frequently hired women at the funerals of their relations and friends.

C H A P. XIX.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

Situation, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Vegetable Produce, Mines, Inhabitants, and Chief Towns.

NEW MEXICO is situated between 23 and 36 deg. of north lat. and between 94 and 109 deg. of west long. being about 2000 miles in length, and 1600 in breadth. It is bounded to the north by unknown lands, on the south by California, to the east by the Pacific Ocean, on the east by Louisiana, and on the west by the South Sea, and contains 600,000 square miles. The divisions, and are the following.

DIVISIONS.

fish of alligators, which their meat is dressed in the side of sticks, and water fern

neral, satisfied with one which is dressed with more, though they succeed to the latter.

The original Floridas is in the north-east, and are called Caciques. They are called each other. In their war they carry with them honey which is dried in the sun. They carry a bow in one hand, and a quiver in the other; his quiver hangs from his shoulder, and he follows tumultuously with his bow and arrow, and warlike deliberations, if he is called in, and the Caciques, are called in, and then the cacique carries them like our tea, made by the general of a deceased cacique.

They place upon his tomb which was accustomed to drink, and arrows in the earth around for three days with fasting. The generality of them are of testimony of their former fire to, and consume, all the other with the hut that he carries which some old women say, during the space of ten days, and evening, bewail him according to the practice of the Caciques, and particularly the Caciques, and frequently hired women at the end of friends.

P. XIX.

INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

Situation, Climate, Vegetable Productions, Rich Mines, Inhabitants, Trade.

Situated between 23 and 33 deg. of north lat. and between 94 and 120 deg. of west long. It is bounded on the north by the North Sea, on the east by the South Sea, and on the south by the Pacific Ocean, on the south-west by the South Sea, and on the south-east by the Pacific Ocean. The divisions, &c.

DIVISIONS.

DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CH. TOWNS.
North-east division	New Mexico proper	Santa Fé.
North-west division	Aphaiara	St. Antonio.
South division	Sonora	Tuape.
West division	California, a Peninsula	St. Juan.

The air of this extensive country is in general clear and healthy, and the climate very pleasant; the summers, though very warm, are neither sultry nor unwholesome, and the winters, though pretty sharp, far from being insupportable.

This country is beautifully diversified with plains, and is embellished with flowers, gentle eminences clothed with beautiful trees of various kinds, some producing excellent fruit, and intersected with rivers and streams of water. The soil in many places is exuberantly rich, and the provinces might be rendered one of the most delightful countries in America, or any other part of the world. A great variety both of wild and tame animals are found in this kingdom. Their vegetable productions consist of pistachios, figs of different colours, pumpions, and water-melons of a prodigious size, grapes, &c. They have also a species of manna, being a juice which exudes from a particular species of rose-tree, and has all the sweetness of refined sugar, though without its whiteness.

In New Mexico are rich mines of gold and silver, but their value cannot be ascertained; turquoises, emeralds, and other precious stones are also found here. The multitude and variety of fish with which the rivers are supplied, is incredible: salmon, turbot, herring, skate, mackerel, &c. also oysters, cray-fish, lobsters, and other exquisite shell-fish, abound in the Gulf of California, which affords one of the richest pearl-fisheries in the world; excellent turtle are also caught in the utmost plenty on the coast of the South-sea; and in the heart of the country there are plains of salt quite firm, which, if the country should ever be inhabited by an industrious trading people, would be of the utmost service in curing the fish that are found on the coasts.

Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, in W. long. 103. N lat. 36. stands near the Riodel Norte, and about 130 leagues from the gulf. It is said to be a handsome, well-built, rich town, and the seat of a bishop, suffragan of Mexico, as well as of the governor of the province, who is subordinate to the viceroy of Old Mexico.

California was first discovered by Hernando Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; but Sir Francis Drake, our famous navigator, landed there in 1578, and took possession of it, which was confirmed to him by the chief king of the peninsula, who formally invested him with his principality. Since that time, however, the English have never made any pretensions to it, though their right is undoubtedly preferable to that of the Spaniards. The inhabitants and government here

do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico. Though the Spanish settlements here are at present comparatively weak, yet they are increasing every day, in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to New Spain.

The original Indians who inhabit California are, in general, well formed and robust, of a healthy countenance, but swarthy complexion. Their habitations are wretched huts, built near the few streams, wells, and ponds found in the country. As they are under the necessity of frequent migrations in search of food, they easily shift their residence, it requiring only the labour of a few hours to build a little habitation fitted for all their purposes; and it is usual with them, in the severity of winter, to live in subterraneous caverns. Their furniture and property consists of implements for fishing, hunting, and war, in which most of their time is spent. Their boats are only rafts; and their arms are bows, arrows, and jagged clubs.

The dress of the men is little more than a girdle round the waist, with a few ornaments about their hair. The women wear their hair loose. They have also a kind of cloak and petticoat, made of palm-leaves; some wear fillets of neat net-work. Their arms are likewise frequently adorned with net-work, or strings of pearls in the form of bracelets. The love of ornament prevails among the women more than among the men. Their greatest ingenuity appears in their fishing nets, which are made with admirable skill, of various colours, and such diversity of texture and workmanship, as cannot be described.

At the gathering in of the fruits of the earth, they have a high festival, when they indulge themselves in feasting, dancing, and mirth.

C H A P XX.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climates, Soil, Vegetable Productions, Rich Mines, Inhabitants, Trade.

THIS country is situated between the 89d and 110th deg. of west long. and the 8th and 30th deg. of north lat. being 2,000 miles in length, and 600 in breadth, and contains 318,000 square miles. It is bounded by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the gulf of Mexico, on the north-east; by Terra Firma, on the south-east; by the Pacific Ocean, on the south-west, and is divided into the three following audiences, viz.

5 H

AUDIENCES.

AUDIENCES.	PROVINCES.	CH. TOWNS.
I. GALICIA...	Guadalajara..	Guadalajara.
	Zacatecas....	Zacatecas.
	New Biscay...	St. Barbara.
	Cinoloa.....	Cinoloa.
	Culiacan....	Culiacan.
	Charmetlan..	Charmetlan.
	Xalisco.....	Xalisco.
II. MEXICO....	Mexico.....	Mexico.
	Mechoacan...	Mechoacan.
	Panuco.....	Tampico.
	Tlascala ...	Tlascala.
		Vera Cruz.
	Guaxaca.....	Guaxaca.
	Tobasco.....	Tobasco.
Jucatan.....	Campeachy.	
Chiapa.....	Chiapa.	
Soconusco....	Soconusco.	
III. GUATIMALA	Verapaz.....	Verapaz.
	Guatemala....	Guatemala.
	Honduras....	Valladolid.
	Nicaragua....	Nicaragua.
	Costa Rica...	Nicoya.
	Veragua.....	Santa Fé.

The gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras, are on the north sea; and the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas, are in the Pacific Ocean. The capes in the North-Sea are, Cape Sardo, St. Martin, Corundeceda, Caroché, Honduras, Cameroon, Graifas Dios; and those in the South-Sea are, Cape Marques, Spirito Sancto, Corientes, Gallero, Blanco, Burica, Pruceros, and Mala.

Most part of Mexico being situated within the torrid zone, the climate is very hot; but this heat is in a great measure allayed by the land and sea breezes, which blow alternately. The greatest heats are during the months of February, March, and April, when the sun is seldom shaded by a cloud, and in many places the waters are entirely dried up. Towards the latter end of April the rainy season comes on, and continues till the month of September, being always preceded by the most dreadful tempests of thunder, lightning, and winds, which the Spaniards term tornados. At this time, all along the eastern coast, where the land is low and marshy, it is flooded, and always extremely unwholesome; but on the western side, which lies higher, and in the inland parts, the air is more temperate and salutary. About the full and change of the moon, the winds in the gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, blow strongly from the north. Trade-winds prevail every where at a distance from land within the tropic; and near the coast in the South-Sea, they have the monsoons, or periodical winds.

The soil is various, but in most places rich, fertile and proper for culture, and were the inhabitants industrious, all sorts of grain might be produced here.

No country under heaven has a greater variety of vegetable productions than Mexico. Beridel-maiz, its native grain, pine-apples, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, grow here in the greatest plenty and perfection. This country also produces a great quantity of sugar, especially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatimala. The Mahoe tree also flourishes here, and furnishes the natives with thread for linen and cordage. Copal, aninics, taca-mahuca, carinica, liquid amber, guaiacum, china-root, sarsaparilla, and the lightwood-tree, are among the productions of New Spain. The bays of Campeachy and Honduras afford cedar trees and logwood. But the prodigious mines of gold and silver with which this part of North America abounds, was the first inducement the Spaniards had to settle in it. The valuable productions are generally found in the mountainous and barren parts of the country; the principal gold mines being in Veragua and New Granada, while those of silver, which are much richer, as well as more numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as the province of Mexico.

Gold is discovered either in the sand of rivers, native and in small grains, or it is dug out of the earth, in the same condition, in small pieces, almost wholly metallic, and of a tolerable purity; or it is found like the ore of other metals, in an aggregate of opamass, in a mixture of earth, stone, sulphur, and other metals: in this state it is of all colours, and makes very little shew of the riches it contains. But gold however found, whether native, or in what is called the ore, is seldom or ever without a mixture of other metals, which are most commonly silver or copper. When the ore is dug out of the mine, the most usual method is to break it to pieces in a mill; the gold is then separated as much as possible from the impurities by repeated washings, and mixed with a quantity of quicksilver, which has, of all other bodies, the greatest attraction to gold. This therefore immediately breaks the links whereby it was held to the former earth, and adheres closely to this congenial substance. It is then put into a trough, and a rapid stream of water suffered to run upon it, which scums away, through a hole made on purpose, the lighter earth leaves the gold and mercury, precipitated by its weight, at the bottom. This amalgama, or paste, is put into a linen cloth, where it is squeezed fast to make part of the quicksilver separate and run out; but to complete this separation entirely, it is necessary to fuse the metal, and then all the mercury flies off in fumes.

Silver, the second metal in rank, is the first in consequence to the Spaniards, as their mines yield a much greater quantity of it, than of gold. It is found

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the earth under different forms; the manner of
mining it does not essentially differ from the process
which is employed for gold, though the method of
refining it is much more difficult.

Old Mexico, with the other provinces of Spanish
America, supply the whole world with silver; and it
is said that the revenues of Mexico, proceeding from
gold and silver only, amount to 24,000,000l. sterling
annually. Cochineal and cocoa are the next im-
portant articles to gold and silver; the former is used
in dyeing, and also in medicine as a sudorific and
purgative; of the latter, chocolate is made. This
country is also said to produce silk and cotton in great
abundance, and to contain precious stones, jasper,
emerald, opal, and pearl.

The inhabitants of New Spain are composed of
Whites, Indians, Negroes, and the several mixtures
of these. These mixtures form various gradations,
which are carefully distinguished from each other,
because every person expects to be regarded in pro-
portion as a greater share of Spanish blood runs in
his veins. The first distinction arising from the in-
termixture of the Whites with the Negroes, is that
of the Mulattoes, which is well known. Next to
these are the Tercerones, produced from a White and
a Negro: from the intermixture with these and the
Indians, arises the Quarterones, who, though still
nearer the former, are disgraced with a tint of Negro
blood. The race descending from these and the Whites
are the Quinterones, who are only to be distinguished
from the Spaniards by being of a fairer complexion.

The same gradations are formed in a contrary order,
from the intermixture of the Mulattoes and the Negroes;
and besides which there are a thousand others, some of
which are scarcely known even by the natives them-
selves. The Whites are either born in Old Spain,
or are Creoles. Those who are native Spaniards are
usually in offices or in trade. They possess the same
character and manners with the Spaniards of Europe;
the same gravity of behaviour; the same natural fa-
cility and good sense; the same indolence, and a yet
greater share of pride and stateliness. The Creoles,
who are descendants of the native Spaniards, but
born in the country, have little of that courage,
firmness, and patience, which constitute one of the
best parts of the character of their ancestors, and
are universally weak and effeminate. Residing
constantly in an enervating heat, surfeited with
riches, and giving up their whole time to loitering
in inactive pleasures, they have nothing bold
enough to fit them for making a figure in active
life, and few of them have any taste for the satis-
factions of a learned retirement: luxurious without
modesty or elegance, and expensive with great parade
and little convenience; their general character is no
other than a grave and specious insignificance. They
are temperate in eating and drinking, and their whole
conduct seems to be amour and intrigue, which they

carry on in the old Spanish taste, by doing and saying
extravagant things, by bad music, worse poetry, and
excessive expences. The ladies are not distinguished
by their great chastity, or domestic virtues. One-fifth
of the white people are priests, monks, and nuns, of all
orders, who enjoy immense revenues: but in general
the clergy there are too ignorant to be able instructors
by their preaching, and too loose and debauched in their
own manners to instruct by their example; so that the
people, over whom they have great influence, are little
the better for their numbers. The Indians, whatever
they were formerly, are now humble, dejected, timor-
ous, and docile. Their numbers are still considerable,
and they are treated by the Spaniards with the greatest
haughtiness. The negroes who are imported from
Africa, like those of our colonies, are stubborn, hardy,
of little understanding, and fitted for the gross slavery
they endure.

The civil government of Old Mexico is administered
by tribunals, called audiences, consisting of a certain
number of judges, divided into different chambers, which
bear some resemblance to the parliaments in France.
At the head of the chief of these chambers the viceroy
himself presides when he thinks proper: his employ-
ment is one of the greatest for trust and power the King
of Spain has in his gift, and is perhaps the richest gov-
ernment intrusted to any subject in the world; but
neither the viceroy, nor any other officer, is suf-
fered to hold his post longer than three years. In this
respect, as in all others relative to the Indies, the spirit
of jealousy influences all the regulations of the court of
Spain, and is attended with this very bad effect, that
every officer, from the highest to the lowest, has the
avidity which a new and lucrative post inspires; raven-
ous, because his time is short, he oppresses the people
and defrauds the crown; another succeeds him with the
same dispositions; and no man is ambitious to establish
any useful amendment in his office, knowing that his
successor will trample upon every regulation which is not
subservient to his own interests.

A council for the Indies is established in Old
Spain, which consists of a governor, four secretaries,
twenty-two counsellors, and other officers. The mem-
bers are generally chosen from the viceroys, and others
who have been employed in America, and their deci-
sion is final in matters relative to that country.
There are some troops kept in New Spain, and a
good revenue appropriated for their maintenance, and
for the support of the fortifications: but the soldiers
are few, ill clothed, ill paid, and worse disciplined.
Mexico, the capital city, stands in the midst of a
great lake of its own name, in lat. 19 deg. 40 min.
about 170 miles west of the gulf of Mexico. The
streets are straight, and so exactly disposed, that, from
any part of the town, the whole is visible; the public
edifices are magnificent, and the inhabitants are com-
puted at 300,000. This city may be reckoned the cen-
tre of commerce in these parts; for here the principal
merchants

merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East-India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, pass through it. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited, and here are wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate which are every year sent into Europe. Acapulco stands in 17 deg. north lat. on a large and commodious bay of the South-Sea, about 110 miles south-east from Mexico. The town is large, but ill built; a part of it consists of warehouses. The above described are the most considerable places: we shall only add to this article, that, on the seventh of June 1773, the city of Guatimala was swallowed up by an earthquake, when 8000 families instantly perished. New Guatimala, which stands at some distance, is well inhabited.—

The whole of the trade between Old Spain and the Spanish American dominions, is by means of a fleet, called the flota, which is fitted out at Cadiz, and destined to La Vera Cruz. The ships are not permitted to break bulk, on any account, till they arrive there. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, sugar, and hides, which are the returns for Old Spain. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, which is the place of their rendezvous, where they meet the galleons. These are another fleet, which carry on all the trade of Terra Firma, by Cartagena; and of Peru, by Panama and Porto-Bello; in the same manner as the flota serves for New Spain. When the flota arrives at the Havannah, and joins the galleons and register ships, which assemble at the same port from all quarters, some of the cleanest and best sailing vessels are dispatched to Old Spain, with advice of the contents of these several fleets, as well as with treasure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what indulgence or duty is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is necessary for their safety.

Register-ships are sent out by merchants at Cadiz and Seville, when they judge that goods must be wanted at any particular ports in the West-Indies. Their way is, to petition the council of the Indians for a licence to send a ship of 300 tons burthen, or under, to that port; they pay for this licence forty or fifty dollars, besides presents to the officers, in proportion to the convenience necessary to the design; for, though the licence runs only to 300 tons at most, the vessel fitted out is seldom less than 600. This ship and cargo are registered at the pretended burthen: it is required too, that a certificate be brought from the king's officer at the port to which she is bound, that she does not exceed the size at which she is registered; all this passes of course. These are what they call register-ships, and by these the trade of Spanish America has been carried on for many years past.

Though this trade is carried on entirely through the hands of the Spaniards, and in the very heart of their dominions, yet they are comparatively but small gainers

by it; for, as they allow the Dutch, the English, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish most of the cargo of the galleons. We are however told, that, notwithstanding great quantities of gold and silver are run and concealed, not more than 2,000,000 of silver marks, weighing eight ounces each, are entered yearly, out of which they coin 700,000 marks into pieces of eight, quarter-pieces, rials, and half-pieces, the value of the latter being about three pence sterling.—

The sacrifices of the ancient Mexicans were cruel, and horrid beyond expression. In general the victims suffered death by having their breasts opened; sometimes they were drowned in a lake; sometimes they died with hunger shut up in caverns of the mountains; and sometimes they fell in what was called gladiatorial sacrifice.

The place for the performance of the common sacrifice was the temple, in the upper area of which stood the altar. The ministers were the priests, chief of whom, on such occasions, was clothed in red habit fringed with cotton. On his head he wore a crown of green and yellow feathers. The other ministers, which were five in number, were dressed in habits of the same make, but embroidered with blue and their bodies were dyed all over with the same colour. These barbarous ministers carried the victim naked to the upper area of the temple, and having pointed out to the by-standers the idol to whom the sacrifice was made, extended him upon the altar. Four priests held his legs and arms, and another held his head firm with a wooden instrument made in the form of a coiled serpent, and put about his neck. The body of the victim lay arched, the breast and belly being raised up and totally prevented from moving. The inhuman chief priest then approached, and with a cutting knife made of flint dexterously opened the breast, and tore out the heart, which, while it palpitated, he offered to the sun, and afterwards threw it at the feet of the idol: he then took it and burnt it, and the ashes were preserved as a precious relic. If the idol was of large size and hollow form, it was customary to introduce the heart of the victim into its mouth with a golden spoon. It was usual also to anoint the lips of the idol, and the corners of the door of the temple, with the blood of the victim. If the victim was a prisoner of war they severed the head from the body, to preserve the skull. The body was carried by the officer, or soldier to whom the prisoner had belonged, to his house, where he boiled and dressed for the entertainment of his friends. If he was not a prisoner of war, but a slave purchased for sacrifice, the proprietor carried off the body from the altar for the same purpose. They cut only the legs, thighs, and arms, burning the rest.

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the Dutch, the English, and the Spaniards, furnish the greater part of the Spaniards, and the same indolence which permits the Chinese to neglect the cargo of the galleons, notwithstanding great quantities are run and concealed, no more than a few marks, weighing eight ounces, of which they coin 700 pieces, quarter-pieces, rials, and the latter being about three

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performance of the common duties in the upper area of which ministers were the priests, and on occasions, was clothed in gold. On his head he wore a crown of feathers. The other ministers in number, were dressed in black, but embroidered with blue, and lay over with the face of the ministers carried the victims of the temple, and handed the idol to whom they offered him upon the altar, and arms, and another wooden instrument made in the shape of a bow, and put about his neck a golden arch, the breast of which was totally prevented from moving, and the priest then approached, and with a flint dexterously opened the heart, which, while he was doing, he then took it out, and preserved as a relic. The hearts were of large size and hollow, and introduced the heart of the victim with a golden spoon. At the lips of the idol, and the temple, with the blood of the victim was a prisoner of war, and the body, to prevent the victim from being killed, or sold, he belonged, to his house, to the entertainment of his friends, and of war, but a slave proprietor carried off for the same purpose. The arms, burning the reli-

quishing it for food for wild beasts and birds of prey. Some sects among them having slain the victim, and the body in pieces, which they sold at market. Others sacrificed men to their gods, women to their goddesses, and children to their inferior deities. This was the most common mode of sacrifice: there were others less frequent; such as putting the victims to death by fire, drowning children of both sexes in the sea, thrusting them up in a cavern, and suffering them to perish with fear and hunger.

But the principal sacrifice among the ancient Mexicans was that called by the Spaniards the Gladiatorial. This was an honourable death, and only prisoners distinguished by their valour were permitted to die by it. The prisoner was placed on a stone in a conspicuous part of the city, armed with a shield and a sword, and tied by one foot. A Mexican officer, soldier, better armed, mounted the stone to combat with him. If the prisoner was vanquished, he was carried by a priest, dead or alive, to the altar of the common sacrifices, where his breast was opened, and his heart taken out, while the victor was applauded and rewarded with some military honour. If the prisoner conquered six different combatants, who successively engaged him, he had his life and liberty granted, and was dismissed with honour to his native country.

HISTORY OF MEXICO, AND CONQUEST OF IT BY THE SPANIARDS.

MEXICO was under the sole government of its monarchs, till the Spaniards, under the command of Fernando Cortez, invaded and conquered it. This expedition was undertaken with only 508 foot, sixteen galleons, and 108 seamen. Cortez, with his forces, landed on the coast of the bay of Campeachy, and having dispersed the natives with his artillery, marched to the city of Tobasco, which he seized upon. The next day the Indians assembled an army of 40,000 men, with which they attacked the Spaniards; but Cortez, at the head of the horse, attacking them in the flank, they retired. The day after the battle, the cacique, or prince, sent a solemn embassy to Cortez, to implore peace, attended with a present of such fruits and provisions as his country afforded, together with jewels, plumes, and painted cotton linen, and whatever he thought most acceptable to the conquerors. The ambassadors approached Cortez, and they used to do their gods, with golden pads or censers, in which they burnt aromatic gums, and other incense: the cacique afterwards came in person, and made his submission, bringing him twenty beautiful Indian virgins, which he made Cortez a present of. One of these, whom the general afterwards caused to be baptized by the name of Donna Marina, served him, during the whole expedition, in the double capacity of concubine and interpreter; for she was a

native of Mexico, a female of ready wit, and understood the customs of the country, and the language perfectly well; and indeed to her merit and address the Spaniards ascribe the success of their arms in a great measure. When the cacique of Tobasco came to make his submission, Cortez let him know, that he came from a powerful prince; and that his principal view was to make them all happy in this world and the next, by making them subjects of the same sovereign, and converting them to the true religion. To this the frightened cacique answered, that he and his people should think themselves happy in obeying a king, whose power and greatness appeared to such advantage in the valour of his subjects: but as to the point of religion, he gave very little hopes of their conversion.

As Cortez was about to advance still further with his fleet on the Mexican coast, he was under the greatest concern that he must leave those people before he had fully instructed them in the Catholic religion; and on Palm-Sunday, the day he appointed to embark his troops, he first caused an altar to be erected in the open field, where he celebrated high mass in the presence of the Indians, and all his troops marched in their ranks to the altar, with boughs or palms in their hands, to celebrate that festival: the procession seemed to excite in the natives the utmost awe and reverence, inasmuch that some of them cried out, "This must be a great God, that such brave men adore." Cortez sailed to the port of St. John de Ulva, where he landed, and Donna Marina acted as interpreter.

When the general was informed that Montezuma, the Emperor of Mexico, had sent to know the reason of the Spaniards invading his country, he answered ambiguously, but still preserved his design of penetrating into the country. Montezuma, in all his messages, tried to prevent the Spaniards from coming to Mexico, and Cortez as inflexibly persisted in that intent. He foresaw that the Mexicans would not be able to prevent his approaching Mexico, especially as he was joined, about this time, by a cacique, or prince of the country, named Zempoala, who offered to enter into an alliance with Cortez against Montezuma, whom he represented as a cruel tyrant and oppressor. The cacique furnished him with 400 men to carry his baggage, and others to draw his artillery, there not being any beasts in this part of the country fit to draw carriages, but every thing of this kind was done by the strength of men.

The Spanish commander continuing his march by the sea-coast to Vera Cruz, was joined there by about thirty caciques from the mountains, who reinforced his troops with 100,000 men; and some parties of Europeans, hearing of the success of Cortez, also voluntarily followed him thither, and joined his troops: whereupon he became so confident, that he burnt all his ships, and having fortified Vera Cruz, in which he left a small garrison, he began his march directly for the city of

Mexico, being joined by the people of Tlascalala, a country of great extent, who offered to become subjects of the King of Spain; at which Montezuma was so alarmed, that he offered to pay the Spaniards an annual tribute, amounting to one half of his revenues; and, when he found it in vain to oppose the general's march, he thought fit to give him an invitation to his capital; but Cortez, who was determined to have the plunder of the capital city, pretended that the Mexicans were not sincere in their invitation, but had entered into a conspiracy to surprize the Spaniards, when they had drawn them into an ambuscade, and massacre them; and, therefore immediately began hostilities, and cut to pieces some thousands of Montezuma's subjects.

The Spaniards, after this, continuing their march, were attended by several other caciques and lords of the country, who complained of the intolerable oppressions of Montezuma; telling Cortez, that they looked upon him as their deliverer, sent from heaven to restrain and punish the injustice and cruelty of tyrants; to whom he promised his protection, and drawing near to Mexico, in order to strike the greater terror into the natives, he ordered his artillery and small arms to be discharged; and caused several Indians to be shot, that approached too near his quarters, while he lay encamped at Amemeca, on the borders of the Mexican lake. Here Prince Cacumatzin, the nephew of Montezuma, attended by the Mexican nobility, came to the general, and bid him welcome; assuring him, that he would meet with a very kind and honourable reception from the emperor; but intimated, that there having been lately a great scarcity of provisions in the city of Mexico, occasioned by unseasonable weather, they could not accommodate them as they desired; and, therefore, entreated he would defer his entrance into that capital, if he did not think fit entirely to decline going thither. But Cortez appearing determined to advance, the prince seemed to acquiesce; and the preparations for the reception of the Spaniards were continued.

Arriving at Quitlavaca, a city situated on an island in the great lake, five or six leagues from Mexico, Cortez had some apprehensions that the Mexicans would break down the causeway, and remove the bridges on it, which would have very much embarrassed him, because he could neither have advanced or retired in that case, especially with his horse and artillery. But the cacique of Quitlavaca, who appeared to be a friend of the Spaniards, very much encouraged the general, telling him, he had nothing to fear; that the prodigies in the heavens, the answers of the oracles, and the fame of the great actions and surprising arms of the Spaniards, had perfectly dispirited their emperor, and disposed him to submit to whatever the general should impose on him. Soon after, Cortez entered Mexico at the head of 450 Spaniards and 6000 Tlascalans; when they were met by Montezuma himself, who was brought in a chair of braten gold, on the shoulders of his favourite

courtiers. The conference between the emperor and the general was short, their speeches were suitable to the occasion, and the emperor commanded one of his princes, his relation, to conduct the general to the palace assigned for his residence, and then returned to his palace.

About noon, the Spaniards were brought to the house appointed for their reception, which was so spacious, as to contain all the Europeans and their auxiliaries: it had thick stone walls, flanked with towers on the roof of the palace was flat, and defended by battlements and breast work; insofmuch that, when the general had planted his artillery, and placed his guns, it had very much the appearance of a fortress. To this place Montezuma came the same evening, and was received by Cortez in the principal square of the palace, and that monarch having entered the room of state and seated himself, ordered a chair for Cortez, and a signal was made for his courtiers to retire to the wall: whereupon the Spanish officers did the same, and Cortez being about to begin his speech by his interpreters, Montezuma prevented him, by speaking as follows;

" Illustrious and valiant stranger! Before you disclose the important message the great monarch has come from has given you in command, it is necessary some allowance be made for what fame has reported us on either side. You may have been informed some, that I am one of the immortal gods; that my wealth is immensely great, and my palaces covered with gold; and on the other hand, you may have heard that I am tyrannical, proud, and cruel. Both the one and the other have equally imposed upon you: you see I am a mortal of the same species with other men; and though my riches are considerable, my vassals make them much more than they are; and you find that the walls of my palaces are nothing more than plain lime and stone. In like manner, no doubt, but the severity of my government been magnificent, but suspend your judgment of the whole, till you have an opportunity of informing yourself concerning it, and you will find that what my rebellious subjects call oppression, is nothing more than the necessary execution of justice.

" After the same manner have your actions been presented to us: some speak of you as gods; affirming that the wild beasts obey you; that you grasp the thunder in your hands, and command the elements while others assure me, you are wicked, revengeful, proud, and transported with an insatiable thirst after the gold our country produces.

" I am now sensible ye are of the same composition and form as other men, and distinguished from them only by accidents which the difference of countries occasions.

" These beasts (horses) that obey you are, probably a large species of deer, that you have tamed and brought up in such imperfect knowledge as may be attained by animals

between the emperor and his subjects were suitable to the occasion. The emperor commanded one of his ministers to go and conduct the general to the palace, and then returned to his apartments.

When Cortez was brought to the reception, which was so liberal, the Europeans and their attendants were flanked with towers of flat, and defended by battlements; and when the general was so much that, when the general entered the room of state, he sat in a chair for Cortez, and his courtiers to retire to the palace. The Spanish officers did the same, and to begin his speech by his name, prevented him, by speaking

at stranger! Before you speak, the great monarch commanded, it is necessary for what fame has reported, that he may have been informed of the immortal gods; that he may be proud, and cruel. But he have equally imposed upon the mortal of the same species with us. My riches are considerable more than they are; and my palaces are nothing more than they are.

In like manner, no doubt the government been magnificent of the whole, till you have set yourself concerning the rebellion of my rebellious subjects, more than the necessary

to have your actions been known to you as gods; affirming to you; that you grasp the command the elements of you are wicked, revengeful, and an insatiable thirst after

are of the same composition and distinguished from the difference of countries.

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animals: your arms are made of a metal, indeed, unknown to us, and the fire you discharge from them, with such an astonishing sound, may be some secret taught by your magicians. As to your actions, my ambassadors and servants inform me, that you are pious, courteous, and governed by reason: that you bear hardships with patience and cheerfulness, and are rather liberal than covetous; so that we must, on both sides, lay aside our prejudices and prepossession, and depend on what our eyes and experience teach us."

To this the general answered, "That it was true, and the reports they had heard; some endeavoured to despise and asperse him, while others adored him. But the Spaniards, who were endowed with a penetrating spirit, easily saw through the different colours of discourse; and the deceit of the heart; that they either gave credit to his rebellious subjects, or those who flattered him; but came in his presence, assured that he was a great prince, and a friend to reason; but very well satisfied, however, that he was a mortal, as they themselves were: that the beasts which obeyed him were not deer, but fierce and generous animals, inclined to war, and seemed to aspire after the same glory as their masters. That their fire-arms were, indeed, the effect of human industry, and owed nothing to the skill of the magician, whose arts were abominated by the Spaniards."

Cortez, having thus given some answer to the emperor's speech, proceeded to inform him, "That he was ambassador from the most potent monarch under heaven, to desire his friendship and alliance: that there might be a communication and intercourse between their respective dominions; and by that means, the Spaniards might have an opportunity of convincing the Mexicans of their errors, and, instead of blocks of wood (the works of men's hands) instruct them to worship the true God, the Creator of the whole universe. That this was the first and principal thing he desired his master commanded him to insist on, as the most likely means of establishing a lasting amity; that, being united in principles of religion, their alliance might become indissoluble."

The emperor replied, that "he accepted the alliance proposed by the King of Spain; but as to the matter concerning religion, he totally objected to it," and making Cortez a rich present, returned to his palace.

For some time, Cortez continued very intimate with Montezuma, often visiting the Mexican court; and the monarch frequently came to the Spanish quarters, bringing presents to the general, and to his officers and attendants, exhibiting shows and entertainments for their diversion. The Mexicans still treated the Spaniards with a respect that favoured of great humility and deference. Montezuma spoke of their king with the greatest veneration. His nobility paid a profound respect to the Spanish officers, and the people bowed down to the meanest Spanish soldier.

But an accident happened, which very much lessened the esteem, or rather dread, the Mexicans at first entertained of these foreigners. It was this: One of the emperor's generals, levying the annual tax imposed on the vassal princes in that part of the country, which lay in the neighbourhood of the Spanish garrison of Vera Cruz, these caciques, who had thrown off their subjection to the Mexican empire, and entered into an alliance with the Spaniards, applied themselves to John de Escalante, governor of Vera Cruz, for protection; who thereupon marched out of that fortress, with 40 Spaniards, and 3 or 4000 confederate Indians, to their assistance; and though he had the good fortune to defeat the Mexican general, yet one of the Spaniards was killed, and his head sent up to the court; and the governor, with five or six more of his garrison, were mortally wounded. This news being brought to Cortez, gave him great uneasiness; and the more, because he was informed, by the confederate Indians, that the Mexicans were consulting how to drive him out of their territories, which they did not apprehend to be impracticable since the engagement near Vera Cruz. The Spanish general, therefore, finding it impossible to maintain his authority among the Indians any longer, without entering on some action that might give them fresh cause of astonishment, and recover that reputation they seemed to have lost by that unfortunate accident, resolved to seize the person of Montezuma, and bring him prisoner to his quarters; and accordingly, at an hour when the Spaniards were used to pay their court to that prince, Cortez, having given orders for his men to arm themselves without noise, and possess themselves of all the avenues leading to the palace, in small parties, that no notice might be taken of it, went to the Mexican court, attended by several of his officers, and 30 soldiers, whose resolution he could rely on, and being admitted to the emperor's presence, he complained of the violation of the peace between them, by one of the Mexican generals falling upon his confederates, and afterwards killing a Spaniard he had taken in cool blood. To which Montezuma answered, "That if any thing of that nature had been done, it was without his orders; and he was ready to make satisfaction for any injury that might have been done undesignedly, either to the Spaniards or their allies." But Cortez gave him to understand, that nothing would satisfy them but his surrendering himself into their hands, and residing with them in the palace assigned to the Spaniards for their quarters.

This insolent demand at first astonished Montezuma, who remained for some time silent; but recovering from his surprise, he said, that princes of his rank were not accustomed to yield themselves up to a prison; nor would his subjects permit this, even if he should forget his dignity so far. Cortez answered, "If he would go along with them voluntarily,

tarily, they were not afraid of any opposition his subjects should make; and they would treat him with all the regard due to his dignity: he might continue to exercise his authority as formerly, and no restraint should be put on his actions; only, for their security, he insisted that the emperor should reside among them." Montezuma, still refusing to put himself into their hands, was given to understand, that if he would not, they would carry him off by force, or murder him if they were opposed; whereupon he submitted to do what he found it was impossible to avoid; and gave orders to his officers to prepare for his removal to the Spanish quarters, whither he went in the usual state, and voluntarily, to all appearance, except that he was attended by a company of Spaniards who surrounded his chair.

The Indian monarch, as must be easily supposed, was rendered very miserable by this indignity; and his servants, lamenting their emperor's hard fate, threw themselves at his feet, endeavouring to ease him of the weight of his fetters; and though, when he recovered from his first amazement, he began to express some impatience, yet, correcting himself, he acquiesced in his misfortunes, and waited the event, not without apprehensions that there was a design against his life: but Cortez having seen his plan performed, by which he found he had struck such a terror into the Mexicans, that little was to be feared from them, he returned to Montezuma's apartment, and ordered his fetters to be taken off; and, as some writers relate, he fell on his knees, and took them off with his own hands; for which favour the emperor embraced and thanked him. But, what is still more difficult to be believed, they assure us, that Cortez gave the emperor leave to return to his palace, and that he refused the offer out of regard to the Spaniards; telling them, he knew very well that as soon as he was put out of their power, his subjects would press him to take up arms against them, to revenge the wrongs he had suffered: nay, the Spanish historians positively affirm, that, notwithstanding all the injuries and indignities they had offered to Montezuma, he expressed a more than ordinary friendship and regard for them, preferring their interest to that of his own subjects.

The Spanish historian, De Solis, relates, that Cortez gave Montezuma leave to go whither he pleased, which he seems to contradict in a very few lines afterwards: for he tells us, when that prince only desired to perform his devotions in one of his temples, it was granted upon certain conditions, namely, that he should give his royal word to return to the Spanish quarters again, and from that day abolish human sacrifices; and we make no doubt but they insisted on a third, viz. that he should take a guard of Spaniards with him; for they acknowledge that a body of Spaniards actually attended him to the temple, which they could do with no other view than that of se-

curing their prisoner: though De Solis says, indeed it was at the request of Montezuma that they went with him: nor did he ever go abroad without a Spanish guard, or without asking leave of Cortez, or ever lay one night out of their quarters, by their own confession; which they would have us ascribe purely to choice, and his affection to the Spaniards, who had put such indignities upon him. They add, that Cortez was now become his prime minister; that all posts of honour or profit were disposed of by him and his principal officers, who were courted by the Mexican nobility, when they saw that no places or preferments could be had but by their interest, which possibly might be true; but surely it is much more probable that Montezuma was influenced more by his fears than his affection for the Spaniards. And we may observe from hence, that, with all these advantages, Cortez, and his Spaniards, might have established their power upon such a foundation, could not easily have been overthrown, without such a deluge of blood as they spilt afterwards, if Cortez had been as able a politician as he was a soldier; or if his benevolence and humanity had exceeded his cruelty and avarice.

Cortez seems to have left scarce any means tried for his security and establishment but the principal, namely, gaining the affections of the Indians, and winning them over to his party, as well as to the Christian religion, by acts of generosity and beneficence. He was so careful of himself, that he caused some brigantines to be built on the lake of Mexico, whereby he entirely commanded the lakes and the causeways leading to the city; and at the same time he increased his reputation with the Mexicans by the artful management of those vessels; for the Indians were, at this time, ignorant of the use of sails and rudders.

About this time, Don Diego Velasques, governor of Cuba, being informed that Cortez had met with great success in Mexico, and was endeavouring to render himself independent of him, declared him a rebel, and sent Pamphilio de Narvaez, with 800 men, to reduce him, and take upon him the command of the Spanish forces in Mexico. Whereupon Cortez leaving a garrison in the city of Mexico, and confining Montezuma there, marched to meet Narvaez his rival, surprised him in the night, made him prisoner, and so corrupted the officers of the troops that came over with Narvaez, by the presents he made them, that they agreed to join Cortez. Thus reinforced, he returned to the city of Mexico again; and now imagining himself powerful enough to subdue that empire by force, without counting Montezuma or his subjects, he treated the monarch with great contempt. But some of the Spanish historians observe, that in this he committed a very great error: for had the general, on his returning in triumph with such an addition of forces, en-

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De Soto says, indeed, Montezuma that they were never go abroad without asking leave of Cortez of their quarters, by they would have us ascribe affection to the Spaniards upon him. They add some his prime ministers profit were disposed of by others, who were courted by them they saw that no place had but by their interest; but surely it is much Montezuma was influenced more affection for the Spaniards; hence, that, with all the his Spaniards, might have soon such a foundation, overthrown, without such spilt afterwards, if Cortez as he was a soldier; humanity had exceeded his

left scarce any means of establishment but the private affections of the Indians to his party, as well as the acts of generosity and careful of himself, that to be built on the lake were merely commanded the lake to the city; and at his reputation with the Mexicans of those vessels; at the time, ignorant of the

Diego Velasquez, governor that Cortez had met with and was endeavouring to get of him, declared him to be de Narvaez, with whom he take upon him the command in Mexico. Whereupon he in the city of Mexico there, marched to meet him in the night-time, to corrupted the officers of with Narvaez, by the night that they agreed to join Cortez returned to the city, imagining himself powerful in the empire by force, without his subjects, he treated them apt. But some of the Spaniards in this he committed the general, on his return an addition of forces, en-

tered into a treaty with that emperor and his nobility, they would have yielded to almost any terms; and he might have gained the dominion of that empire, for the King of Spain, his master, without any bloodshed. But he was too much elated with success, to think of such measures. On the contrary, he resolved to give the Mexicans all manner of provocations, and even rendered them desperate, that he might have a colour to destroy them, and seize all their possessions, whether lands or treasure. He found a garrison of 80 Spaniards able to repel the whole force of Mexico; and he did not doubt, now he saw himself at the head of 1100 Spanish horse and foot, with a multitude of confederate Indians, he should be able, by force, to reduce the Mexicans, and make slaves of them.

But Cortez was near paying very dear for his presumption; for sending out a detachment of 400 Spaniards and confederate Indians in search of the enemy, who were retired to the furthest part of the city, they were surrounded, and in danger of having their retreat cut off; and he himself, with the rest of his troops, very narrowly escaped being starved, or cut in pieces; the Mexicans, rendered brave by their despair, were not afraid to attack Cortez in his quarters, though defended by a numerous garrison, and a train of artillery; and when, at any time, he made a sally, he found intrenchments in the streets, and the bridges broken down, which rendered his cavalry, in a manner, useless; and though he usually came off victorious, he found he had committed a very great error in putting himself up in Mexico, from whence it was almost impossible to make his retreat, and where he found it impracticable to fetch in provisions; the enemy being masters of all the causeways that led to the town, and of all the boats upon the lake; so that if his people were not destroyed by the continual attacks of the enemy, they must certainly, in a short time, be reduced by famine. In this distress, Cortez thought fit to endeavour a reconciliation with Montezuma, and to make use of the authority he still retained among his subjects, to induce them to lay down their arms, and permit the Spaniards to march out of Mexico, which, if it was presumed, they would readily have come into, that they might get rid of a people so much dreaded, as well as hated, by them.

Accordingly, a parley being proposed and agreed to, Montezuma appeared on the battlements of the place, and some of the Mexican nobility advancing to hear what overtures he would make them, the Spaniards tell us, their emperor made a speech to his subjects, wherein he greatly reprimanded them for taking up arms without his leave, though it was with intention to obtain the liberty of their prince, desiring that he was, in reality, under no manner of constraint, but remained with the Spaniards from choice; that he thought himself obliged to throw the Spaniards in favour, on account of the respect they had always

paid him, and out of duty to the prince that had sent them; that their embassy being dispatched, he was about to dismiss these foreigners from his court, and desired his subjects would lay down their arms, and not interrupt their march, and he would readily pardon their having taking up arms; or to that effect.

This speech was but little regarded by the Mexicans, who knew that whatever their emperor's words were, they were put into his mouth by the Spaniards, whose prisoner he was, and tended only to procure them a safe retreat; and they were sensible, if they lost the advantage they had, they must never expect such another opportunity of getting rid of these unwelcome guests. They had them now cooped up in this fortress, where no relief could be brought them, and from whence it was scarce possible for them to retreat, if the Mexicans broke down the bridges and causeways upon the lake, and made such ditches and trenches in the streets, as the Spaniards themselves had taught them; but forefaw, if ever their enemies got over the lake again, they might not only receive fresh reinforcements from Spain and their Indian allies, but they must engage them to great disadvantage in their open country, having nothing to oppose their horse and artillery. The Mexicans resolved, therefore, not to consent to a cessation of arms, but rejected the overture with disdain, as being framed only to give their mortal enemies an opportunity of escaping out of their hands, and reinforcing themselves to the destruction of their country; and they were so enraged at the overture, that they shot at their emperor for making it to them, and mortally wounded him.

The Spaniard, finding the Mexicans were not to be amused with insidious proposals, from what hand soever they came; that his provisions were almost spent, and that it would be impracticable to make his retreat in the day-time; resolved to attempt it in the dark night. Having divided the treasure, therefore, amongst his men, with which they were pretty well loaded, for it amounted to an immense sum, he issued out of his quarters at midnight, the weather being extremely tempestuous, whereby his march was for some time concealed; but he had not advanced a mile upon the causeway before he found himself attacked on every side by the Mexicans, both by land and water, the lake being filled with their canoes or boats; and as they had broken down the bridges, and cut the causeways through in several places, the Spaniards were in great danger of being entirely cut off. Cortez, indeed, had foreseen this, and provided a portable bridge to pass the breaches in the causeway, which was of great use to him in several places; but the Indians found means to destroy this bridge before they were all passed over, and their rear-guard, consisting of 2 or 300 Spaniards, and 1000 confederate Indians, were cut in pieces. They also lost their artillery, prisoners, baggage, and treasure, with 46 horses. Cortez,

tez, however, with the best part of his force, broke through the Indians, and escaped to the other side of the lake. Some impute this loss to the avarice of his soldiers, who were so loaded with gold and silver, that they could scarce make use of their arms; and possibly there may be some truth in it: but we believe every one who considers his circumstances, must be of opinion, that he was very fortunate in escaping so well. Had the enemy provided a body of forces to oppose him on the further side of the lake, he must inevitably have perished; but they did not expect his falling out so suddenly, especially in that tempestuous season, and were not, therefore, provided to attack him.

The Spanish historian endeavours to give us a particular account of this action, admires the valour and conduct of Cortez and his officers, and informs us how every one distinguished himself in this memorable retreat. He proceeds to inform us, that they arrived just as it was day-light on firm land, and thought themselves very happy that there was no army to oppose them there, and that they were pursued no further, till they had time to form and recover themselves from their consternation.

This good fortune, it seems, was owing to the compulsion the Mexicans expressed for the two sons of Montezuma, and several princes of the royal blood, whom they found slaughtered among the Spaniards, when the day-light appeared. The Mexicans relate that Montezuma himself was of this number; and that the Spaniards murdered both him and his sons, when they found they could not carry them off. The Spaniards, on the other hand, say, that Montezuma was killed before by the arrows of the Mexicans; and that the princes, also, were accidentally killed in the engagement while it was dark, as they could not distinguish friends from foes. But however that was, it is agreed that the princes were found dead, pierced through with many wounds; and the Mexicans deferred the pursuit of the Spaniards, to solemnize the obsequies of those two princes, or of Montezuma himself. To which piece of piety, Cortez and the Spaniards, who were left alive, in a great measure owed their safety.

The Spanish forces having halted some time to refresh themselves, and take care of their wounded men, continued their march towards Tlascala, the country of their faithful allies and confederates: but they had not advanced many leagues before they were again overtaken, and attacked by the Mexicans, at a time when they were so fatigued and harassed, that had not Cortez taken possession of a temple, that very fortunately lay in his way, he would have found it difficult to have repulsed the enemy. But the Mexicans, finding they could make no impression on the Spaniards, as they lay entrenched within those walls, thought fit to found a retreat. However, Cortez apprehending he should be distressed here for want

of provisions, began his march again at midnight, with great silence, in hopes to have got the start of the enemy so far, that he should have reached the Tlascalan territories before they could have overtaken him; but, to his great surprize, being arrived on the top of a very high mountain, he discovered the whole army of the Mexicans, consisting of 200,000 men drawn up in battalia in the valley of Otumba, through which it was necessary to pass, in his way to Tlascala; whereupon Cortez made only this short speech to his officers, "We must either die or conquer," and finding an uncommon ardour in his soldiers, he immediately led them on.

The fight was, for some time, bloody and obstinate, and Cortez, apprehending his men would be wearied out by the continual supplies of fresh forces, which the Indians poured in upon him, gave a surprizing turn to the battle, by attacking the imperial standard carried by the Mexican general, who was surrounded by the nobility; for having routed them, killed the general, and taken the standard, the rest of their troops turned their backs and fled, and were pursued with incredible slaughter by the Spaniards and their Indian allies, who made themselves ample amends with the spoils of the enemy, for the treasure they lost in retiring from the city of Mexico. Cortez now found it necessary to cultivate a good understanding with the caciques and princes of the country, and to take the troops into his service; and made himself master of such posts as might be of most advantage to him, reducing the city of Mexico; and as he could not approach it by land, but on the causeways, he built brigantines and sloops, whereby he became master of the navigation of the lake, and then attacked the town by water as well as on the land side, having about 1000 Spaniards in his army, and 200,000 Indian allies. He took the city by storm on the 13th of August 1521. One hundred thousand Mexicans perished in the defence of the city; and this conquest was attended with the submission of most of the neighbouring provinces, who consented to acknowledge themselves the subjects to the king of Spain (the emperor Charles V.)

The city of Mexico being thus reduced, Cortez distributed the plunder among his soldiers, retaining only a fifth, with the most remarkable curiosities, for the king, which he sent to Spain by some of his principal officers, together with an account of his conquest, and the state of that country, desiring his majesty would confirm the magistrates he had appointed to govern it, with the grants of the conquered lands and Indian slaves he had made, to his soldiers. Among the rich jewels Cortez sent to the emperor, it is said there was a fine emerald, of a pyramidal form, as large as the palm of a man's hand at the biggest end, a noble set of gold and silver vessels; several things cast in gold and silver, viz. beasts, birds, fishes, fruits, and flowers; bracelets, rings, pendants, and other

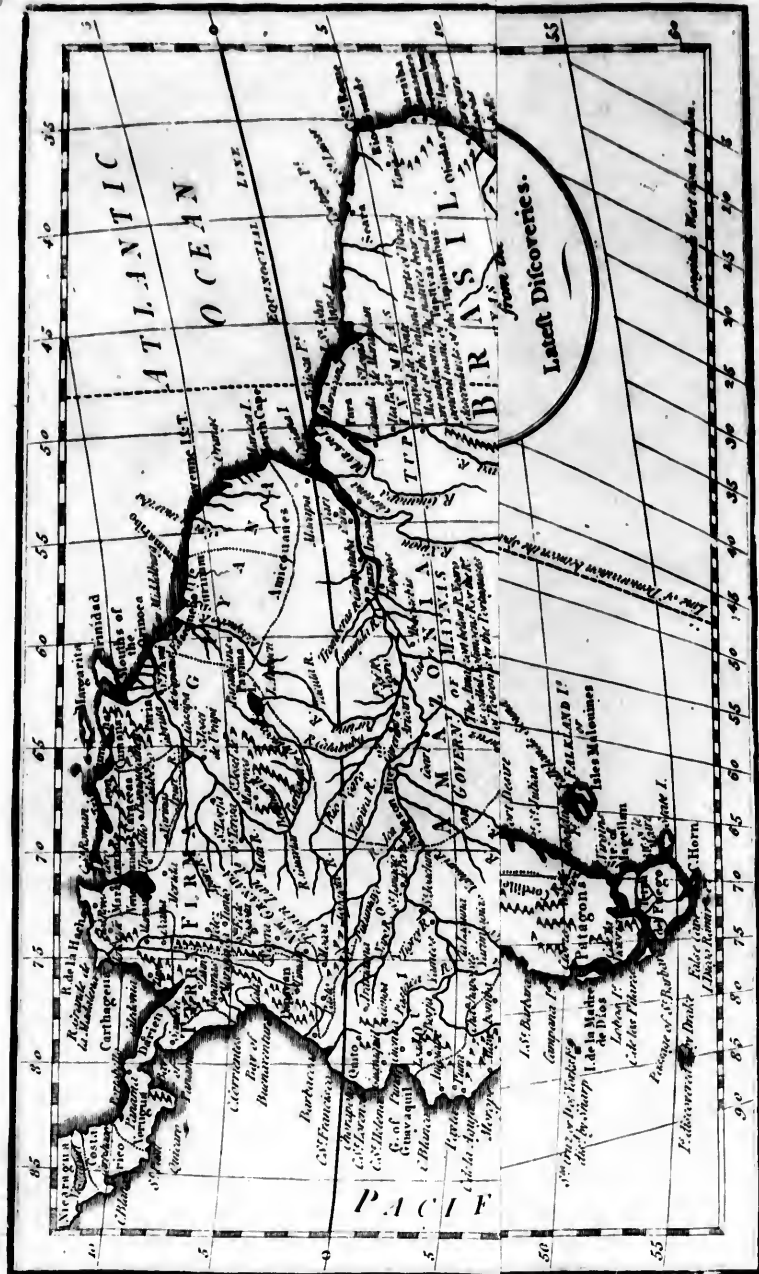
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ornamental pieces of plate and jewels; some of their cloths, cotton vestments of their priests, furs, and feathers of various colours.

The general requested his Imperial Majesty to send over persons qualified to survey the country, that it might be improved to the best advantage, with the priests and missionaries for the conversion of the people; as also cattle, with seeds and plants to improve the lands: but, it is said, he provided particularly

against the sending over physicians or lawyers. What could have been his reason against sending physicians, is not easy to be conceived; but he had certainly all the reason in the world to desire that neither laws or lawyers should be admitted there, having determined to treat the natives as slaves, and seize both their persons and possessions, and, indeed, to usurp an arbitrary dominion over both Spaniards and Indians in the New World.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

C H A P. XXI.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILLA DEL ORO.

Location, Boundaries, Divisions, Bays, Harbours, Capes, Climate, Soil, Vegetable Produce, Animals, Fish, Nations, Commerce, and Government.

THE province of Terra Firma is situated between the equator and 12 deg. north lat. and between 80 and 82 deg. of west long. being about 1400 miles length, and 700 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by a part of the Atlantic Ocean, called the North Sea; on the south by Peru and the country of the Amazons; on the east by Guiana; and on the west by Old Mexico and the Pacific Ocean. It is divided as in the following table:

DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
North Division	Terra Firma	} Porto Bello, Proper, or Panama.
	Darien.....	
	Carthagena.....	Carthagena.
	St. Martha.....	St. Martha.
	Rio de la Hache.....	Rio de la Hache.
	Venezuela.....	Venezuela.
South Division	Comana.....	Comana.
	New Andalusia.	} St. Thomas.
	or Paria.....	
	New Granada..	Santa Fé de Bagota.
	Popayan.....	Popayan.

The line which separates Terra Firma from the Kingdom of New Spain, forms also the boundary between North and South America. This boundary is drawn across the isthmus of Darien, a few leagues to the westward of Porto Bello and Panama. It

crosses the isthmus in its narrowest part, which is not here above sixty miles in breadth.

The chief bays in Terra Firma are those of Panama and St. Michael, both in the South Sea. In the North Sea are the bays of Porto Bello, Sino, Carthagena, Maracaiba, Guiana, and Curiaico, together with the gulfs of Darien, Venezuela, Tricsto, and Paria.

The principal harbours are those of Porto Bello and Carthagena.

The capes most worthy of notice are, Cape del Agua, de Vela, Conquibacao, Cabelo, Blanco, Galera, Three Points, Nassau, Sambles Point, Point Canoa, and Swart Point.

The climate is neither pleasant nor healthy; the inhabitants, one part of the year, being scorched by the most intense and burning heat, and the other almost drowned with perpetual floods of rain, pouring from the sky with such violence as if a general deluge was to ensue.

In so large a tract of country, the soil must necessarily vary. Accordingly, in some parts, it is a barren sand, or drowned mangrove land, that will scarce produce any kind of grain; in others, it yields Indian corn, balsms, gums, and drugs, almost all manner of fruits, as well of Old as of New Spain, sugar, tobacco, Brazil wood, and several kind of dyeing woods; a variety of precious stones, particularly emeralds and sapphires; venison, and other game. The plantations of cacao, or chocolate nuts, in the district of Caracas, are esteemed the best in America. The trees, most remarkable for their dimensions, are, the cedar, the maria, and balsam-tree. The manchinel tree is very remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. Such is the malignity of this tree, that should a person only sleep under it, he would find his body all scalled, and racked with the severest tortures. The bralls, from instinct alone, avoid it.

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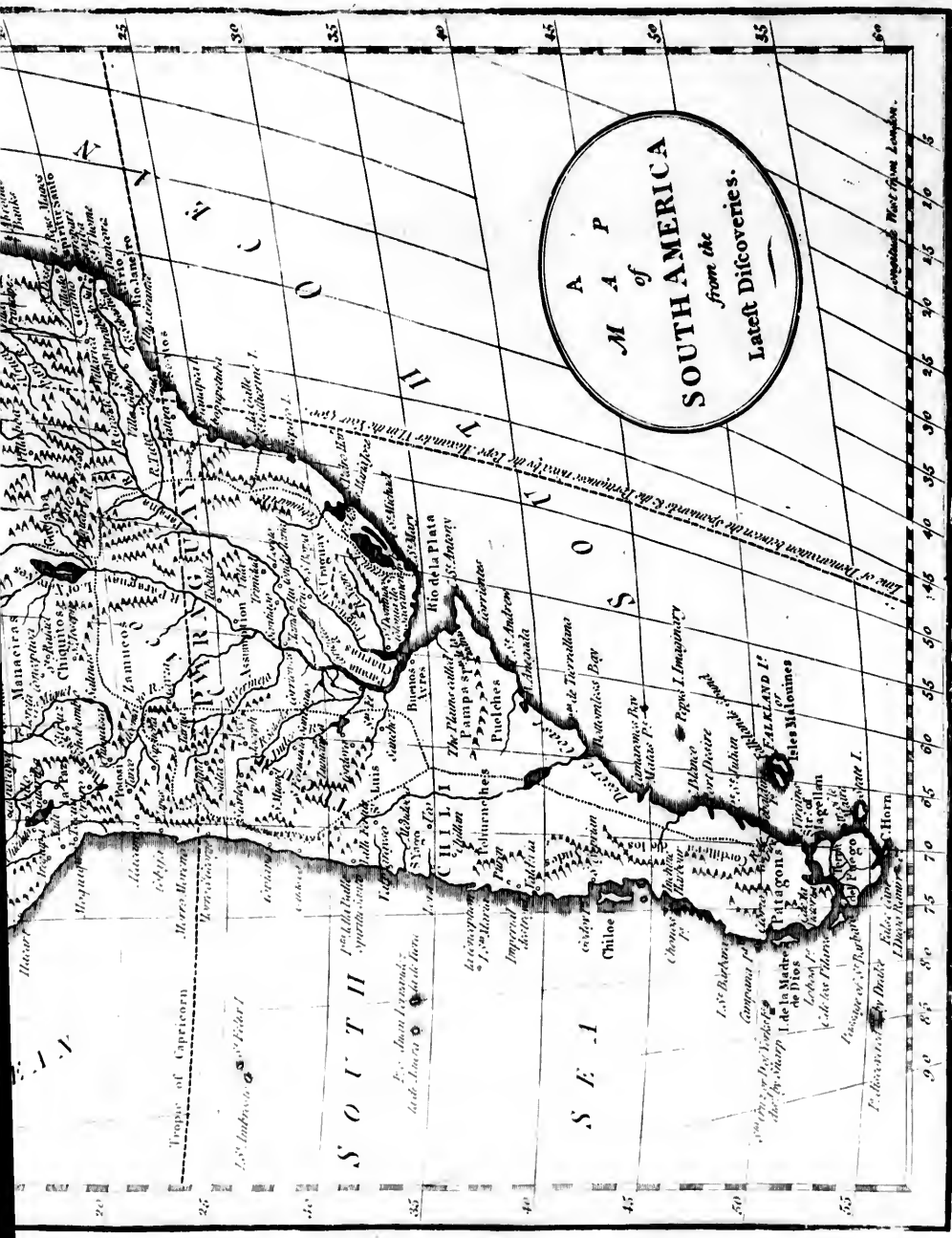
ATLANTIC OCEAN

PACIFIC OCEAN

GOVERNMENT OF MEXICO

Map labels and geographical features:

- Latitude: 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, 50, 55, 60, 65, 70, 75, 80, 85
- Longitude: 85, 90, 95, 100, 105, 110, 115, 120, 125, 130, 135, 140, 145, 150, 155, 160, 165, 170, 175, 180
- Geographical Features: Tropic of Capricorn, Tropic of Cancer, Equinoctial Line, Isthmus of Panama, Gulf of Honduras, Gulf of Amatique, Yucatan Peninsula, Central America, Caribbean Sea, Atlantic Ocean, Pacific Ocean.
- Cities and Towns: Tegucigalpa, Comayagua, San Salvador, San Pedro de Sula, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, Mexico, Yucatan, Chiapas, Oaxaca, Veracruz, Campeche, Quintana Roo, Yucatan, Chiapas, Oaxaca, Veracruz, Campeche, Quintana Roo.
- Other Labels: 'GOVERNMENT OF MEXICO', 'ATLANTIC OCEAN', 'PACIFIC OCEAN', 'EQUINOCTIAL LINE', 'TROPIC OF CANCER', 'TROPIC OF CAPRICORN', 'Isthmus of Panama', 'Gulf of Honduras', 'Gulf of Amatique', 'Yucatan Peninsula', 'Central America', 'Caribbean Sea', 'Atlantic Ocean', 'Pacific Ocean', 'MEXICO', 'GUATEMALA', 'EL SALVADOR', 'HONDURAS', 'NICARAGUA', 'COSTA RICA', 'PANAMA', 'YUCATAN', 'CHIAPAS', 'OAXACA', 'VERACRUZ', 'CAMPECHE', 'QUINTANA ROO'.



M A P
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SOUTH AMERICA
from the
Latest Discoveries.

SOUTH AMERICA

CHILE
 Imperial City
 Valparaiso
 Concepcion
 Antofagasta
 Copiaco
 Iquique
 Arica
 Pisco
 Arequipa
 Cuzco
 Lima
 Callao
 Huancabamba
 Arequipa
 Puno
 Cochabamba
 Sucre
 La Paz
 Potosi
 Oruro
 Mocha
 Antofagasta
 Copiaco
 Iquique
 Arica
 Pisco
 Arequipa
 Cuzco
 Lima
 Callao
 Huancabamba
 Arequipa
 Puno
 Cochabamba
 Sucre
 La Paz
 Potosi
 Oruro

PERU
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 Callao
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 Arequipa
 Puno
 Cochabamba
 Sucre
 La Paz
 Potosi
 Oruro

ARGENTINA
 Buenos Aires
 Montevideo
 Rosario
 Cordoba
 Mendoza
 Santiago del Estero
 Tucuman
 Salta
 Jujuy
 Catamarca
 San Juan
 San Luis
 Rio Negro
 Entre Rios
 Corrientes
 Misiones
 Parana
 Uruguay
 Montevideo
 Rosario
 Cordoba
 Mendoza
 Santiago del Estero
 Tucuman
 Salta
 Jujuy
 Catamarca
 San Juan
 San Luis
 Rio Negro
 Entre Rios
 Corrientes
 Misiones

BRASIL
 Rio de Janeiro
 Sao Paulo
 Bahia
 Recife
 Fortaleza
 Salvador
 Belo Horizonte
 Curitiba
 Brasilia
 Manaus
 Belém
 Recife
 Fortaleza
 Salvador
 Belo Horizonte
 Curitiba
 Brasilia
 Manaus
 Belém

Colombia
 Bogotá
 Medellín
 Cali
 Barranquilla
 Bucaramanga
 Pasto
 Quito
 Guayaquil
 Loja
 Cuenca
 Azuay
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 Cuenca
 Azuay

Venezuela
 Caracas
 Maracaibo
 Valencia
 Coro
 Mérida
 Trujillo
 Barinas
 Guayana Francesa
 Surinam
 Guayana Francesa
 Surinam

Other Regions:
 Guayana Francesa
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Islands:
 Falkland I.
 Malvinas I.
 Juan Fernandez I.
 Easter I.
 Phoenix I.
 Phoenix I.
 Phoenix I.

Geographical Features:
 Rio de la Plata
 Rio Negro
 Rio Uruguay
 Rio Parana
 Rio Amazonas
 Rio Orinoco
 Rio Magdalena
 Rio Cauca
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The mountains abound with tygers, and, according to fable, with lions, and great numbers of other wild beasts. Among the animals peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the Sloth, or, as it is called by way of derision, the Swift Peter. It bears some resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring, unless compelled by hunger, and is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, and blows do not make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such plaintive and disagreeable cries, as excites at once pity and disgust. The whole defence of this wretched creature consists in this cry; for on the first hostile approach he naturally puts himself in motion, which is always accompanied with disgusting howling, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of the horrid noise he makes. This animal, when he finds no wild fruits on the ground, looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with a great deal of uneasiness, moving slowly, crying, and stopping by turns. Having at length mounted the tree, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey, and rather than undergo the fatiguing labour of coming down again, he wraps himself together in a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground. Other species of monkeys are very numerous in these countries; they keep together 20 or 30 in a herd, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; if not, 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, when they see two or three people together. Many of the animals of North-America, already described, are found in these southern parts.

The rivers, seas, and lakes, teem with fish, and also with alligators; and the bowels of the earth were once furnished with the richest treasures, now almost exhausted. The same may be said of pearl fisheries on the coast, which are far from being so profitable now as formerly.

The natives of Terra Firma are bold and warlike, and as they have almost impregnable and inaccessible fortresses, and bear an inveterate hatred to the Spaniards, they never have been, and it is probable never will be, entirely subdued. They have lank, coarse, long black hair. Their natural complexion is a copper colour. The inhabitants are differently dressed, according to the Spanish fashion. The men wear a cassock without folds, descending to the knees, a large cape, and sleeves open at both sides; it has button-holes, and two rows of buttons. The habits of the

better sort are made of embroidered stuffs. The Indians wear a blue stuff, of the manufacture of the country, but in make it differs not from the other. The Indians of distinction are singular, in wearing a kind of trowsers of white cotton, which descends from the waist to the middle of the leg. The ladies wear the *Faldelin*, a species of stays or rather jumps, a shirt which descends only to the waist; a bay mantle encloses the upper part of the body, consisting of a full and a half of that stuff; and their whole dress is ornamented with rich laces. The dresses of the laboring women is not distinguishable from that of the ladies, but by its inferior quality, the fashion being the same. A mongrel, or Creole, is known by the superiority of his habit and his ingenuity. The Indian peasant wears a bay mantle; and the common native Indian, a piece of sackcloth fastened over the shoulders by two pins.

The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello, which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America, and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Three annual fairs, for Indian, American, and European commodities are held here. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma are the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, and their dexterity in this occupation is very surprising. This kind of fishing is of great advantage to the inhabitants of all the islands in the bay, since every one of these negro-divers is obliged to deliver to his master daily a certain number of pearls. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks.

The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico. The governor of Porto Bello, who always belongs to the army, is subordinate to the president of Panama, which is the capital town, whither all the treasures of gold and silver with other rich merchandise from all parts of Peru and Chili, are brought, and lodged in store-houses till they can be transported to Europe.

C H A P. XXII.

P E R U.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Animals, Birds, Vegetable Productions, Inhabitants, Slaves, &c.

PERU is situated between the 60th and 75th deg. of west long. and between the equator and 17th deg. of south lat. being 500 miles in breadth, and

GEOGRAPHY.

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It is bounded by Terra Firma on
the north; by the Cordilleras on the east; by Chili
the south; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west.

DIVISION.	PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
North division	Quito	Quito, Payta.
Middle division	Lima, or Los Reyes	Lima, Cusco, & Callao.
South division	Los Charcos	Potosi, Porco.

The Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, borders on Peru.
The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Mala-
ngo, Cuanchaio, Cofina, Vermeio, Guara, Ylo, Arica,
and Callao, the port-town to Lima. The rivers are,
Granada, or Cagdaleira, Oronoque, Amazon, and
late, which rise in the Andes, as do likewise many
others, which fall into the Pacific Ocean, between
the equator and eight deg. south lat. The water
of most of the rivers is as red as blood; others, in
their course, turn whatever they touch, or pass over,
into stone; and here are fountains of liquid matter,
called Coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used
for that purpose by the seamen.

Though this country is situated within the torrid
zone, it is not so prodigiously hot as tropical countries
in general are, and in some parts the cold is even
painful. By the elevation of Peru above the surface
of the sea, or rather of the whole earth, the winds
are more subtle, congelation more natural, and the
heat moderated. The sky too, which is almost con-
stantly covered with clouds, shields them from the
direct rays of the sun; but what is remarkable, it
scarcely ever rains here, which defect is supplied by a
soft, kindly dew that falls every night, and refreshes
the vegetable creation sufficiently, so as to produce in
many places the greatest fertility; but near Quito
they have sometimes very heavy rains, attended by
frequent storms of thunder and lightning; earthquakes
are also frequent, and sometimes very destructive in
this country. The soil, in the inland parts of Peru,
and by the banks of rivers, is usually very fertile, but
along the sea coasts it is a barren sand.

Vast quantities of cattle were imported by the
Spaniards into Peru, when they took possession of that
country; these are now so amazingly increased, that
they run wild, and are hunted like game. There are
a few wild beasts, and those not very fierce or dangerous;
but the most remarkable animals are the Peruvian
sheep, called lamas, and the vicunnas. The lama in
several particulars resembles the camel, as in the shape
of its neck, head, and some other parts; but has no
hump, is much smaller, and cloven-footed. Its upper
lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when
enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, that in-
flames the part on which it falls. The wool with
which it is covered, is of different colours, but usually
brown. These animals are naturally docile, so that
the Indians use them as beasts of burden, and they

will carry any load under a hundred weight. Formerly
they used to eat their flesh, and still continue to make
that use of such as are past their labour, esteeming it
preferable to mutton. The vicunna resembles the
lama in shape, but is smaller, and its wool shorter and
finer. It is brown all over the body except the belly,
which is whitish. In this creature is found the be-
zoar-stone, esteemed a specific against poisons.

The most remarkable birds found in Peru are the
cendors, and zumbadors or hummers. The cendor
is prodigiously large and strong, and in colour and ap-
pearance resembles the bird called galinazo, and
like that, is exceedingly carnivorous, frequently seizing
the lambs as they are feeding on the heath, and flying
away with them. The strength of this bird is so
great, that it will sometimes knock down with its
wing the man who approaches to kill it: their wings
also serve them as a shield, by which they ward off
blows aimed at them. The zumbador, or hummer,
is a bird peculiar to the mountainous deserts of Peru.
They are seldom seen, though frequently heard, both
by their singing, and a strange humming made in the
air by the rapidity of their flight, which, when near,
causes a noise equal to that of a rocket. The insects
found in Peru are musquitoes in prodigious numbers,
miguas, and several others equally venomous; also a
variety of beautiful butterflies; and that valuable
article in the commerce of this country, the cochineal,
formerly supposed to be the fruit or seed of a plant, but
is now proved to be an insect; as hereafter described.

The vegetable productions are, plenty of European
corn, maize, cassava, and other roots; pine-apples,
melons, grapes, from which the Peruvians make ex-
cellent wine and brandy, guavaes, patolas, bananas,
tamarinds, olives, and figs; several sorts of gums and
drugs, as sarsaparilla, dragons blood, balsam of Tolu
and Peru, some rhubarb, storax, and guaiacum. Among
their forest-trees the most valuable is that which yields
the quinquina, or Jesuits bark. It is about the size
of a common cherry-tree; the leaves are round and
indented, and it bears a long reddish flower, from
whence arises a pod, containing a kernel resembling
an almond; but neither the kernel nor the fruit have
the same virtue as the bark, which is an efficacious
medicine in intermitting fevers, and various other
disorders. In the plains of Truxillo there is a tree
which bears twenty or thirty flowers, all of them dif-
ferent, and of divers colours, hanging together like a
bunch of grapes. Another, called maguey, is of the
utmost use to the inhabitants, as it supplies them
with honey, vinegar, and drink. The stalks and leaves
are not only good to eat, but may be wrought like
hemp; and from them they make a thread called
pica. The wood is fit for covering houses; the
prickles or thorns, with which it abounds, serves for
needles, and the fruit has all the qualities of soap.
Guinea or Cayenne pepper, is produced in the great
abundance in the vale of Arica, a district in the

southern parts, from whence they export it annually to the value of six hundred thousand crowns.

That valuable article of the commerce of this country, cochineal, formerly supposed to be the fruit or seed of some particular plant, but now ascertained to be an insect; it is bred on a plant called Opuntia, or Prickly Pear, which consists wholly of thick succulent oval leaves joined end to end, and spreading out on the sides in various ramifications. The flower is large, and the fruit resembles a fig; this is full of a crimson juice, and to this juice the cochineal owes its colour. When the rainy seasons come on, those who cultivate this plant cut off the heads which abound most with such insects as are not arrived at their full growth, and preserve them very carefully from the weather and all other injuries. These branches, though separated from their parent stock, preserve their juices for a long time, and this enables the insect not only to live till the rains are over, but to grow to its full size, and be in readiness to bring forth its young as soon as the inclemency of the season is past. When this time comes on, they are brought out, and placed upon the proper plants, disposed in little nests of some mossy substance. By the enlivening influence of the fresh air, they bring forth in three or four days at furthest, when the young, scarce bigger than a mite, run about with wonderful celerity, and the whole plantation is immediately filled. What is singular, this animal, so lively in its infancy, quickly loses all its activity, and, attaching itself to the least exposed, and most succulent, part of the leaf, clings there without ever moving. It is also remarkable, that it does not, at least in any visible manner, injure the plant, but extracts its nourishment by means of its proboscis, through the fine teguments of the leaves. The males, of this species of insect, differ greatly from the females, than which they are smaller. The males, in fact, are of no value, the females only being gathered for use. The value of the drug chiefly consists in the method of killing and drying the insect. The first is, by dipping the basket, into which they are gathered, into boiling water, and afterwards drying them in the sun; the second, by drying them in ovens; and the third, by drying them on cakes of maize, which are baked upon flat stones. The last is the worst kind. One admirable quality of this drug is, that, though it belongs to the animal creation, it never decays. Without any other care than having been put into a box, some have been known to keep 60, and even an 100 years, and retain their quality. It is used in dyeing all the several kinds of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple.

In the northern parts, not far from Lima, there are many gold mines; and silver is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns thit with the mines. That of Potosi, when first worked at an easy expence, contained

90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one; but the miners having found very deep, the silver is not so easily brought up.

Lima, the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire, is situated in a fine valley, about two leagues from the sea, in lat. 12 deg. 2 min. south. It is large, magnificent, populous, contains many noble structures, and is the residence of the viceroy. The city is well watered by the river Rimac; and for the splendor of its inhabitants, the grandeur of its public festivals, the extent of its commerce, and the deliciousness of its climate, is superior to all other cities in South-America. These eminent advantages are however ever considerably overbalanced by the dreadful earthquakes which frequently happen here, and which have the inhabitants in perpetual apprehensions of being buried in the ruins of their own houses: it has more than once been laid in ruins by these tremendous convulsions of nature.

The last earthquake happened in the year 1746, when Callao, the sea-port of Lima, was entirely swallowed up, and three-fourths of the capital levelled with the ground. The destruction of Callao was the most perfect and terrible that can be conceived, not only of all the inhabitants escaping, and so by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable. This man was on the fort which overlooks the harbour, going to strike the flag, when he perceived the sea to retire to a considerable distance, and then swelling in a mountainous wave, returning with irresistible violence. The inhabitants ran from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; he heard a dreadful cry rise from all parts of the town, and immediately all was silent; the sea had utterly overwhelmed the place, and buried it for ever in its bosom; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved. The town, before this dreadful earthquake happened, contained about 3,000 inhabitants. But the calamity did not stop here; for the convulsions continued, with short intervals, for the space of four months afterwards, in which time no less than 450 shocks had been felt, some of them no less violent than the first, so that it was computed 12,000 people perished, some being swallowen up in the earth, or buried in the ruins of their houses and effects, and others drowned by the waves of the sea, which laid great part of the neighbouring country under water.

This city, which extends two miles in length, and one and a quarter in breadth, contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites make only a sixth part. Its wealth will be sufficiently demonstrated by the following remarkable event: when the viceroy, the Duke de la Paladas made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. Travellers in general

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general mention with astonishment the decorations of
the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones,
which load and ornament even the walls.

Cusco, the capital of the empire of Peru before the
arrival of the Spaniards, and the ancient seat of the
Incas, stands above 326 miles from Lima towards the
south. It was then very large, magnificent, and popu-
lar. Here stood the famous Temple of the Sun,
which was called Curiahanchi, and contained im-
mense riches. The Incas resided in a part of the
temple, the walls of which were incrusted with gold
and silver, and the whole fortress was built of stones,
so long that several oxen could hardly draw one of
them. It is still a considerable town, containing about
30,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians. The air is
very pure and wholesome, and the neighbouring
country very pleasant and fruitful. Here are some
manufactures of bays and cotton cloth, and leather;
and in the adjacent mountains are gold and silver
mines.

Quito, the capital of the province of the same
name, is seated in a pleasant valley, between two
chains of high mountains. It is about a mile in
length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth, and
is a bishop's see. There are several religious com-
munities, and two colleges, which are a sort of uni-
versities, under the direction of the Jesuits and Do-
minicans. It contains about 35,000 inhabitants, of
which one third are original Spaniards. All sorts of
merchandises and commodities are exceeding dear,
chiefly on account of the difficulty of bringing them
thither. It is the seat of the treasurer of the kingdom,
as well as of the other officers.

A very extensive commerce is carried on by the
merchants of Lima, who are immensely rich; they
are said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and
that both on their own accounts, and as factors for
others. Here all the products of the southern
provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at
the harbor of Lima for such articles as the inhabi-
tants of Peru have occasion for; the fleet from Europe,
and the East-Indies, land at the same harbour; where
the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are
bartered for each other. The merchants of Lima
purchase on their own accounts what there is not an
immediate vent for, which they lay up in warehouses,
knowing that they must soon have an opportunity of
selling them, from the great communication they have
with almost every trading nation. There are in Cusco
several manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which
supply all the kingdom of Peru with those articles.
Those who trade in European commodities, resort to
Potosi, as to a market, where they are sure of con-
verting their merchandise into silver. Another species
of commerce, carried on by a set of people called
Aviadores, consists in exchanging coin, towards paying
the necessary expences of the workmen, for ingots and
pianos. The article of silver is wholly engrossed by

the crown. At Lima, there is a treasury court, for
receiving a fifth of the produce of the mines, and cer-
tain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the
King of Spain.

The inhabitants of Peru greatly resemble those of
Mexico, only the former seem to be of a more liberal
turn, and of greater ingenuity; but they are equally
defstitute of all cultivation, and possess a most un-
bounded share of laziness and pride.

The slavery of the Indians is, if possible, more se-
vere than in other parts of the Spanish West-Indies.
The magistrate and the priest devour their whole sub-
stance, and every Spaniard insults them with impunity.
The native Spaniard has alone all the lucrative offices,
civil, ecclesiastical, and military. He despises the
Creolian: the Creolian hates and envies the Spaniard;
both contemn and maltreat the Indians, who, on their
side, are not insensible of the indignities they suffer:
even the Blacks are encouraged to trample on the
Indians, and to consider their interests as altogether op-
posite; whilst the Indians, in their nominal freedom,
look with an envious disdain upon the slavery of the
Negroes, which makes them their masters.

Peru is governed by a viceroy, who is absolute;
but it being impossible for him to superintend the
whole extent of his government, he delegates a
part of his authority to the several audiences and
courts, established at different places throughout his
territories.

THE HISTORY OF PERU.

THIS country was discovered by a Spaniard called
Valco Numez de Balbao, and no design was enter-
tained of conquering it, till the conclusion of the war
in Mexico, when the expedition was undertaken by
three private persons, viz. Pizarro, Almagro, and De
Luque; the two first being officers, and the last an
ecclesiastic. It was stipulated, that Pizarro should
command the embarkation; that Almagro should from
time to time raise and send him recruits: and, that
De Luque should remain at Panama, and lay in am-
munition and provisions for the support of the enter-
prize: and they agreed to share the profits arising by
the expedition equally, after the emperor's fifth should
be deducted.

Pizarro met with many difficulties, in his first at-
tempt, from the cross winds and currents; these, and
the incessant rains that fell near the Equator, were
such discouragements, that all his men forsook him,
and returned to Panama, except fourteen; but Al-
magro joining him with some recruits, these two
heroes determined to continue their course to the
southward, and having crossed the bay of Panama,
went on shore, expecting to have found a passage to
Peru by land; but the country being overflowed, or
encumbered by rocks, woods, and mountains, they
were

were obliged to return on board again, and setting sail to the southward, made so little way, that they were two years in advancing to the bay of Guaiquil. The first considerable town they visited there was the city of Tumbez, to the cacique whereof Pizarro sent one of his officers, to let him know they came as friends, and the cacique thereupon sent them all manner of refreshments.

Not having a sufficient body of troops to undertake so important an expedition, he returned to Panama for reinforcements, taking with him some of the inhabitants, animals, and treasures of Peru. Pizarro then went to Spain, procured the emperor's commission, returned and took with him three of his brothers, and set sail for Panama upon another expedition, A. D. 1530. He had now with him 125 soldiers, and 37 horses, with which he landed and began his depredations. The Indians fled before him, but many of his people dying, he sent the ships back laden with plunder, to bring more recruits. Almagro joining him with reinforcements, they advanced together, defeated a large body of Peruvians, took the town of Tumbez, with immense treasures which were heaped up in the temple of the Sun and the inca's palace. They now erected a fortress near the sea, and then pursued the inca or emperor Atabilipa.

Finding that the Peruvians were engaged in a civil war among themselves, Pizarro took pains to foment their intestine divisions, in order to prevent their uniting against him. The case was, that Atabilipa, a prince of illegitimate birth, had deposed and confined the emperor Huascar, and oppressed his friends. These latter applied to Pizarro for assistance to dethrone the usurper. On the contrary Atabilipa made a similar application to the Spaniards for their friendship and countenance. Atabilipa and Pizarro, having appointed an interview, the Spaniards traiterously attacked the Indians during the conference; and having slaughtered many, made the inca prisoner. Almagro, having raised a considerable body of forces at Panama, arrived at the camp of Pizarro soon after the slaughter of the Indians, and the imprisonment of their emperor Atabilipa.

Pizarro went out to meet Almagro, congratulated his arrival, received him with all the marks of affection and esteem imaginable, and offered to divide the spoils with him, though it is evident they were, at that time, meditating each other's destruction; and it is said, Pizarro distributed as much gold and silver at this time among the Spanish soldiers as amounted to 15,000,000*l*. sterling. The soldiers being possessed of this prodigious wealth, fell into all manner of excesses, raising the price of things to a very great rate, by offering any sums to gratify their appetites or fancies. And now Pizarro thought it a proper time to send over the fifth part of the treasure to the emperor, as he had stipulated, and with it his brother Ferdinand Pizarro, to solicit for such rein-

forcements as might establish the dominion of the Spaniards in Peru, and to petition that his government might be extended still further to the southward. Marshal Almagro also employed his agents to represent to the court of Spain, with what expense and application he had sent and carried reinforcements, and supplied the general with ammunition and provisions from time to time, to enable him to prosecute this conquest; and to desire that all that part of South America which lay to the southward of the lands granted to Pizarro, might be put under the government: and with these agents, sent by the general and the marshal, returned several adventures to the number of fifty or sixty, who having obtained 30,000 or 40,000 ducats apiece for their respective shares of the spoils, were perfectly satisfied with it, and chose to enjoy what they had got, the remainder of their lives, in their own country, rather than undergo more hazards and difficulties to increase their fortunes.

In the mean time, Atabilipa, the royal prisoner, having offered Pizarro a prodigious treasure for his liberty, and actually paid great part of it, was still detained, and at length being tried upon what were called Articles of Impeachment, was most unjustly put to death. Atauchu, the brother of this unfortunate prince, having determined on revenge, surprised the Spaniards on their march to Cusco, killed several, and took others, Sancho de Cellar, who had drawn up the process against the late inca, being among the latter. With these they retired, strangling Sancho at the very place where the emperor was put to death, but such of the Spaniards, as had been against the cruel measure, they restored to liberty. The Peruvians were still inclined to treat upon reasonable terms; but the Spaniards insisted that they should immediately renounce their religion, give up their country, and resign their freedom. This broke off the treaty, when Pizarro marched forward to the capital city of Cusco, where he arrived in the month of October 1532, the people having abandoned the city, and carried off the greatest part of their treasure; but still the Spaniards found so much left behind, that they were amazed at the heaps of gold and silver they met with there; but the reigning inca, Manco Capac, being about to assemble the whole Peruvian nation against these invaders, Pizarro thought fit to treat with the inca and the Peruvians. He even invited the emperor to return to his capital, and proclaimed him Inca. These measures Pizarro found himself under the necessity of taking at this time, not only because he saw all the southern provinces of Peru assembling against them, under the inca Manco Capac, but because Ruminavi, Quinquavi, and other Peruvian generals, had assembled a very great army in the northern provinces, and possessed themselves of Quito, which obliged him to send a considerable detachment of his forces under the com-

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of Sebastian Belcazar, to reinforce the new
colony to St. Michael's, and to make head against
the Peruvian generals in Quito. Belcazar, there-
upon, marching into Quito, made himself master of
the capital city, and was in a fair way of reducing
the rest, when advice was brought that Don Pedro
Alvarado was upon the coast of Peru with a con-
siderable fleet, and landed 700 or 800 men, intending
to take the government of Peru upon him, and expel
Pizarro and Almagro from thence; at which news,
these two adventurers were thunderstruck, appre-
hending they should be dispossessed of all the spoils
they had taken, and perhaps sent prisoners to Spain,
to give an account of their murdering the late Inca
Atablipa, and massacring his people; they continued
therefore to cultivate a good understanding with the
Indians of the southern provinces, and treated the
Inca and his subjects as their friends and allies,
promising to perform punctually whatever they had
agreed on; knowing how great an advantage it must
be to have the country in their interest, if they were
obliged to contend with Alvarado for the possession of
it. They, however, at length found means to bribe
Alvarado from the country, and to persuade most of
his followers to enter into their service.

These additional forces rendered the adventurers
very formidable; when Almagro marched to Cusco;
and Pizarro founded the city of Lima, and other
places on the coast. Pizarro now, according to the
grant of the emperor, remained in possession of Peru,
and Almagro made an expedition into Chili. Al-
magro advanced as far as the province of Charcas,
300 leagues to the southward of Cusco, without
meeting with any thing to obstruct his designs, that
country being all under the dominion of the Inca; and
supplying him with provisions as he went; but finding
Charcas a wretched barren country, and being ig-
norant of the rich mines it contained, he resolved to
proceed further to the kingdom of Chili; though, had
he known the invaluable mines of Potofi were situated
in this barren country, he would certainly have set up
his rest here, for in this mountain was afterwards
found more silver than any, or perhaps all the coun-
tries in the Old World produced at that time.

Almagro was now informed by the Indians, that
there were two ways to approach the kingdom of
Chili, both extremely difficult and hazardous. The
first was over a branch of the mountains of the Andes,
or Cordilleras, which, at this time (being winter)
were covered deep in snow, and so cold that no In-
dian could live on the tops of them, though this was
much the shortest passage, if it could be performed;
the other was over a sandy desert by the sea-side, in
which they would be in danger of perishing by ex-
cessive heat, and the scarcity of water; intimating
that they were averse to the journey either way, but
most dreaded that over the mountains of the Andes:
however, Almagro, resolving to remove forward, took

the way of the mountains, as being the shortest, and
more agreeable to the constitutions of his Europeans,
than the scorching sands; and having gathered what
provisions the country afforded, and laid it on the
shoulders of the Indian porters, he began to ascend
the hills; but had not advanced far before he found
the snows so deep, that they were forced to dig their
way through them, the Indians dying by hundreds
with the intense cold: the Spaniards, also, were al-
most starved, and many of them perished with their
horses on those mountains, either by cold or want;
and some of the men, who escaped with their lives,
lost their fingers and toes. However, Almagro him-
self, with between 300 or 400 Spaniards, the Inca
Paula, the high-priest, and about 5000 Indians,
reached the other side of the mountains, and came
into a fine temperate and pleasant country. The
people of Chili presented the Spaniards with many
presents; and Almagro penetrated into the country a
considerable way: but being informed, by the arrival
of some Spaniards from Europe, that the part allotted
to him by the emperor, included Cusco, he returned
to Peru.

Having suffered so much in their march over the
mountains, the Spaniards and Peruvians returned by
the way of the desert, where the hardships they un-
derwent were but little inferior to the former. In
the mean time the Inca Manco Capac, observing that
Pizarro only gave him the title of Inca, and that in
reality he had very little command even in the capital
city of Cusco, where he resided, put him in mind of
his promise of restoring him to his empire, and per-
forming the capitulations that had been agreed on
between them; but Pizarro put him off from time
to time, telling him he must wait with patience till
he heard that those capitulations were ratified by his
sovereign the emperor, which he expected to receive
every day by his brother Ferdinand, and was going
to Lima in hopes of meeting him there; desiring that
the Inca, during his absence, would reside in the
castle, and not stir from thence. The Inca finding
they would make him prisoner by force, if he
did not voluntarily submit to this confinement, dis-
guised his resentment, and immediately went to the
castle.

The Indians were far from taking this imprison-
ment of their emperor patiently, and only waited for a
favourable conjuncture to obtain his liberty; for Ferdi-
nando Pizarro returning from Spain with his brother's
new commission, and the patent for the title of mar-
quis, brought some orders with him that were not ac-
ceptable to the marquis or his people; particularly he
informed them, that the emperor expected they should
be accountable to him for all the treasure they had
received as the ransom of Atablipa, his imperial
majesty alone being entitled to it; or at least that they
should raise him a good round sum, to be sent over to
Spain in lieu of it; but the marquis and his officers

replied, this was neither reasonable or possible; as they had hazarded their lives, and made a conquest of the country at their own expence, without any charge to his imperial majesty, they ought to reap the fruits of their labour; and besides, that money had been long since spent in supporting the conquest, building towns, and planting colonies, to preserve what they had gained, which would all redound to the honour and profit of his majesty, who by that means was confirmed and established in the sovereignty of that rich country.

Ferdinando hereupon desired his brother would confer on him the government of the capital city of Cusco, and he did not doubt but he should soon have it in his power to raise a sum of money to gratify the court of Spain; which the marquis consenting to, his brother Ferdinando immediately repaired to his government of Cusco; where observing that several officers had been greatly enriched by presents Manco Inca had made them, in order to be kindly used, he applied himself also to the inca, giving him to understand, that he would be restored to his dominions, and all his demands granted, if he could procure a considerable sum for the court of Spain; and suffered the inca to come out of the castle to his palace in the city again, and to be treated with the honours of a sovereign prince. Whereupon the inca sent expresses to several parts of his dominions, directing them to bring their usual tribute of gold and silver plate, as the most probable means of delivering him from the hands of the Spaniards. The treasures were brought, but the Spaniards still deceived him, when he delivered himself by the following stratagem.

He pretended, that in the valley of Yarico great riches were hid, particularly a statue of solid gold as big as life, but that none but himself could find out the place. Ferdinando Pizarro was deluded by this pretence, and suffered the inca to go to the valley with only a guard of Spaniards, from whom (as they did not suspect his design) he made his escape. Being at liberty, he raised three powerful armies, one being designed against Lima, the second to attack Cusco, and the third to cut off Almagro. The principal army, under the inca himself, attacked Cusco with great fury, but were repulsed with terrible slaughter. After cutting off several detachments of Spaniards, the second Peruvian army invested Lima, which not being able to take, they only blockaded; but the third army did not attack Almagro, who arriving before the walls of Cusco, summoned Ferdinando Pizarro to surrender, who refused; but the place was betrayed to Almagro by some of the garrison, when the governor and another of the marquis of Pizarro's brothers were made prisoners.

The marquis of Pizarro, not hearing from his brothers, sent a strong force to Cusco under the command of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Peter de Lerma was ordered also to march with this detach-

ment as a private captain of a troop of horse, though he was an older officer than Alvarado, and had done great service in those wars; which so disgusted Lerma, that he, from this time, meditated the success of the enterprize, as is supposed by the Spanish writers. Alonzo de Alvarado continuing his march with the utmost diligence, most of the Indians that were to carry his baggage, amounting to upwards of four hundred, perished in the first part of the journey, either by intolerable fatigue, being loaded and driven beyond their strength, or starved for want of food.

Almagro, having received intelligence that Alonzo was advancing to the city, sent some Spaniards of quality to him, to represent that Cusco belonged to his government, according to the division the emperor made of Peru; between him and the marquis of Pizarro, and therefore advised him to retire to Lima again, till he and the marquis should adjust the limits of their respective governments; but Alvarado was far from entertaining any pacific thoughts, that he made all the gentlemen prisoners that were sent to treat with him. Whereupon Almagro took the field, constituting Don Orgonez his lieutenant-general; and having made a party of Alvarado's horse prisoners, understood by them, that great part of his troops were better affected to him, than they were to the Pizarros; particularly, he understood that Peter de Lerma, with a great many of his friends, would desert Alvarado at the first opportunity. He advanced therefore as far as the bridge of Abantay, on the other side where Alvarado lay encamped, so that there was nothing but a small river that parted their forces; they remained quiet, however, without attempting to attack each other all day; but in the night time, Orgonez fording the river, at the head of Almagro's horse, put Alvarado's forces into great confusion; and giving Peter de Lerma, and the rest of their friends, by this means, an opportunity to join them, Almagro gained an easy victory, with very little bloodshed, making Don Alonzo de Alvarado his prisoner; with which he returned in triumph to Cusco.

After the battle, Almagro marched with 500 Spaniards on horse and foot, and some thousand Indians, towards the valley of Chinca on the sea-coast, taking with him his prisoner Ferdinando Pizarro; but he left Alonzo Pizarro and Alonzo de Alvarado prisoners in the city of Cusco.

The marquis de Pizarro, in the mean time, hearing no news from Alonzo, and imagining the Indians might have possessed themselves of the passes in the mountains, and thereby cut off his communication with that general, marched in person at the head of 900 or 1000 Spaniards, towards the mountains, to get intelligence; and after some days march, received advice, that the Indians had raised the siege of Cusco: that Almagro was returned from Chili, had possessed himself of that capital, and made his brothers Ferdinando and Alonzo prisoners; and, that his other brother

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his Pizarro was killed during the siege of Cusco;
a day or two after he had news brought him of
the defeat of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Whereupon
thought fit to retire to Lima, and fortify himself
till he should receive a reinforcement of troops,
which he expected every day; and to divert Almagro
from taking the advantage of his present weakness,
by putting his brother to death, he dispatched several
hundreds of quality to attend him; and offer him any
terms he should insist upon, to procure his brother's
pardon: Almagro was willing to treat, and an inter-
view with only twelve horsemen of a side was agreed,
with so much treachery on Pizarro's side, that Al-
magro with great difficulty escaped an ambushade laid
for him.

At length Pizarro, by various artifices, obtained the
consent of his brothers, and then demanded not only
Cusco, but all the conquests in Peru. Almagro very
generally rejected this unreasonable requisition, when
war immediately commenced between those rivals;
Almagro was defeated and taken prisoner, and
at the same time the city of Cusco was lost. The
fortunate Almagro was afterwards cruelly put to
death by his rival Pizarro; but the latter did not long
survive him, being assassinated in his palace at Lima
by a natural son of Almagro. Thus untimely fell
two conquerors of Peru, by means of their own
reciprocal enmity, of whom it is only necessary to say,
that both were equally possessed of courage, fortitude,
temperance; but both were equally ambitious
and rapacious. Almagro was the most generous,
and Pizarro the most politic; the former possessed the
most noble sentiments, but the latter had the greatest
ambition.

C H A P. XXIII.

C H I L I.

*Location, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Animals,
Fowls, &c. Chief Cities, Commerce, and Exports.*

THIS country is situated between 12 and 37 deg.
south lat. and 50 and 75 deg. west long. being
but 1500 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth, and
bounded by Peru, on the north; La Plata on the east;
Magania, on the south; and the Pacific Ocean, on
the west.

DIVISIONS.	PROVINCES.	CH. TOWNS.
the west side of the Andes..	Chili Proper.....	{ St. Jago. Baldivia. Imperial.
the east side of the Andes. }	Cuyo, or Cutio....	{ St. John de Frontiera.

The Pacific Ocean, on the west, is the only sea
that borders upon Chili. The most noted rivers are,
the Salado, or Salt River; Gacafo, Caquimbo, Bohio,
and the Baldivia; these fall into the Pacific Ocean,
and are scarcely navigable but at their mouths. The
principal bays, or harbours, are; Castro, Brewer's-
Haven, La Moucha, Copiapo, Baldivia, Coquimbo,
Jata, Guvanadore, Voluparifo, Santa Maria; Con-
ception.

The climate of Chili, considered in general, is one
of the most delightful in the world, being a medium
between the intense heats of the torrid, and the
piercing colds of the frigid zone. Along the coast of
the Pacific Ocean, they enjoy a fine temperate air,
and a clear serene sky most part of the year; but
sometimes the winds that blow from the mountains,
in winter, are exceedingly sharp. There are few
places in this extensive country where the soil is not
exuberantly fertile, producing Indian and European
corn, hemp, grapes, and other fruits; some medicinal
plants, and the panqua, used in tanning leather;
and were its natural advantages seconded by the in-
dustry of the inhabitants, Chili would be the most
opulent kingdom of any in America.

The animal productions of Chili resemble those of
Peru, but the latter has the preference. Their horses
and mules, particularly the former, are in great esteem:
horses and asses were originally carried hither from
Spain, and are greatly improved. Here are prodigious
numbers of fine oxen, goats, and sheep. Turkeys,
geese, and all kinds of poultry and wild fowl, are
also found in great numbers in this country. A very
particular species of bird is found in Chili, called
disperadore, or the awakener. It is about the size of
a middling fowl; its plumage black and white, has
a thick neck, the head rather large, erect, and beauti-
fully adorned with a tuft of feathers; its eyes are
large, sharp, and lively; its bill well proportioned,
strong, and a little curved. On the fore-part of its
wings are two spurs, about an inch in length, of a
reddish tint towards the root, but their points re-
semble those of a cock, being very hard and sharp.

These are the weapons it makes use of against other
birds, particularly those of prey. It has obtained the
appellation of the awakener, from the notice it gives
to its companions on the least appearance of danger.
On hearing the noise of the approach of any creature,
whether man or beast, it immediately rises from the
ground, and makes a loud chattering, not unlike that
of a magpye, continuing the noise, and flying about in
the air over the object which caused the alarm. This
being understood by every bird near, they take wing,
and by that means avoid the impending danger.

The original natives of Chili, or the free Indians, have
hitherto eluded all attempts of the Spaniards to civilize
and reduce them. However, about the year 1723, the
missionaries had formed several villages, and flattered
themselves that they should induce their converts to
practise

practise the precepts they had endeavoured to inculcate; but an insurrection happening at that time, their innate savageness returned, they abandoned the priests, and joined their countrymen; and there have lately been some formidable insurrections of the Chileans against the Spaniards, which have greatly alarmed the Spanish court. The Spaniards amount to about 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are supposed not to be fewer than 60,000.

The chief cities are St. Jago, Concepcion, and Valdivia, or Valdivia.

St. Jago, the capital of Chili, is situated in 77 deg. west. long. and 34 deg. south lat. It stands at the west foot of the Cordilleras, on the little river Mapocho. The town is about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. The streets are all spacious, paved, and straight. The houses are low, to prevent their being demolished by the earthquakes, to which this place is subject. That in July 1730 laid the greatest part of it in ruins, and was succeeded by an epidemical distemper, which swept away most of those who had escaped the preceding calamity.

Concepcion stands on the south-west shore of a beautiful bay, on a small declivity, having a little river running through it. The houses are all either of mud-walls or unburnt bricks, but covered with tiles. This city suffered, if possible, more than St. Jago, by the same earthquake, succeeded by a dreadful inundation from the sea, which, being followed by other violent shocks, demolished the whole city.

Valdivia, or Valdivia, is situated on a river to which it gives its name. This city is defended by four strong castles, mounting above 100 pieces of fine brass cannon; but they are never properly supplied either with men or ammunition. This is the chief port whereby the commerce is carried on between Chili and Peru, and 10 large ships are constantly employed in that trade.

The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. Their articles of export to these places are gold, copper, cattle, salted provisions, corn, tallow, grass, hides, dried fish, neats tongues, hemp, flax, cordage, coconuts, bend leather tanned, Cordovan leather, wines, and fruits: in return for which, they receive iron, cloth, hats, bays, though not many of the latter, there being manufactures of the same kind in Chili; sugar, cacao, sweetmeats, pickles, tobacco, oil, earthen-ware, and all kinds of European goods, which are brought to the port of Callao for sale.

THE HISTORY OF CHILI.

IN the history of Peru, we have already observed, that Almagro, who fell a victim to the imperious cruelty of Pizarro, attempted the conquest of Chili, but was defeated in his design by the Indians laying

siege to Cusco, which rendered his presence necessary in that country. The conquest of Chili was therefore suspended till the year 1541, when Pedro Valdivia was sent to finish the war which Almagro had begun. He penetrated to the valley of Mapocho, where he founded the city of St. Jago, and built castles for its defence. The Chileans attacked the castles; but Valdivia, receiving reinforcements from the viceroy of Peru, did all he could to secure conquests. But still it appears that he was strong enough to make any great progress; and the Indians giving out that there were many very rich gold mines in a certain part of the country, not far from St. Jago, drew a detachment of his forces (he went in search of them) into an ambuscade, and cut off every man of them, except their commander, a negro, who escaped to St. Jago by the assistance of his horses; whereupon Valdivia sent for another reinforcement of troops, to enable them to advance against the Chileans, and built the town and castle of Coquimbo, or Serera, on a bay of the sea, to secure his communication with Peru.

The civil wars between the Spaniards in breaking out, Valdivia was recalled, but afterwards returned to Chili with a large body of veteran troops. The Spaniards now disagreeing among themselves, the Chileans took advantage of their broils, and destroyed the garrisons of Copiapo and Coquimbo, molesting, at the same time, the towns and fortifications. Valdivia, however, recovered what he had lost, rebuilt those towns, proceeded further southward, and erected the town of Concepcion. The fortifications here being finished, though under considerable difficulties, Valdivia determined to continue his march still further southward, when he founded the city of Imperial, four leagues east of the Pacific Ocean, and 40 south of Concepcion. From hence he marched to the mountains of Andes, 16 leagues east of Imperial, and built the city of Villa Rica.

The bravest nation of the Chileans, called Araucans, had opposed the Spaniards with the greatest success, but had been at last obliged to submit; this being one of the most desirable countries in Chili, Valdivia, in the distribution of the lands, had reserved this valley for himself; and being sensible that the natives were not to be kept under but by force, he erected three castles in this valley, and put garrisons in them, while he marched further southward. He built the town of Valdivia, where being still richer mines, it is said, he employed 30,000 Indians in working them, and spent so much time in amassing wealth, that the Araucans, taking advantage of his absence, engaged the whole country in a conspiracy against the Spaniards, and chose the celebrated Caupolican for their general.

Intelligence being received by Valdivia of the intended insurrection, he returned in some haste to the valley of Arauca, where he found 13 or 14,000

rendered his presence necessary for the conquest of Chili was the year 1541, when Pedro Valdivia, with the war which Almagro had led to the valley of Mapocho, and the city of St. Jago, and built the city of Valdivia. The Chileans attacked him, receiving reinforcements from Peru, all he could to secure the town. It appears that he was not able to make any great progress; and there were many very small settlements in that part of the country, not fit to be the seat of a detachment of his forces, but into an ambush, and except their commander St. Jago, by the assistance of a Valdivia sent for another to enable them to advance, he built the town and castle on a bay of the sea, to face Peru.

When the Spaniards in Peru were recalled, but afterwards a large body of veteran troops were sent to receive among themselves, the remains of their broils, and the cities of Copiapo and Coquimbo, and the towns and fortifications, recovered what he had lost, proceeded further southward to Concepcion. The fortifications, though under consideration, determined to continue his march, when he founded the city of Concepcion, on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, and from thence he marched 16 leagues east of Imperia Rica.

The Chileans, called Araucanians with the greatest reluctance, were obliged to submit to the Spaniards, as the most desirable countries in Chile, and the best situation of the lands, had been reserved for themselves; and being sensible that they could not be kept under but by perpetual wars in this valley, and he marched further south to the city of Valdivia, where he said, he employed 5000 men, and spent so much time in the Araucans, taking advantage of the whole country, he engaged the whole country of the Spaniards, and chose for his general.

He was invited by Valdivia of the city of Valdivia, and returned in some haste to Peru, where he found 13 or 14000

Spaniards assembled in arms, whom he charged with arms, and obliged them to retire into the woods and enclosures as often as they appeared, but was not in a condition to disperse them entirely. They frequently rallied, and attacked his troops; and thus they continued to encounter him for several days in a fort and a manning fight. The Chilean general, observing that his engaging the Spaniards with such numbers only occasioned confusion among the people, those in the front frequently giving way to the Spanish cavalry, he disordered the rest of his forces, before ever they were engaged, divided his army into battalions of 1000 men each, ordering them to charge the enemy by turns. He represented to them, that the Spaniards were but 2000 horse, and that 1000 of his brave countrymen might easily maintain their ground for some time against so small a number, notwithstanding the advantage the enemy had in their arms and horses. However, he only desired they would make their utmost effort. He had no expectation that the first battalion would gain the victory, but when they found themselves obliged to retire, required them to take care, in their retreat, not to disorder the other bodies, but rally themselves, and draw up in the rear, that they might be ready for a second charge; and the same commands he gave to the officers of the other battalions.

The first battalion, in pursuance of these orders, engaged the Spanish horse with great resolution, and having held them in play some time, leisurely retired, being succeeded by the second, and that by the third, and so on, till the Spaniards had continued the engagement for seven or eight hours without intermission, and both men and horses began to faint with the labours of the day, or for want of refreshment; which Valdivia too late observing, made a precipitate retreat, ordering his troops to take possession of a pass about five miles from the field of battle, where he did not doubt he should be able to defend himself against all the power of the enemy. But a Chilean, who had been sent to Valdivia, and baptized by the name of Philip, whose Indian name was Lautaro, hearing his master's orders for their retreat, deserted at that instant to his countrymen, and directed them to take possession of the pass before the Spaniards could arrive there. He bid them make use of the advantages they had in their hands, recover their liberties, and rescue their country from destruction, by cutting off these thieves and usurpers who had invaded it; and, taking a spear, charged his late lord Valdivia at the head of a company of Chileans, while another detachment of the Indians secured the pass as he directed them.

As the Chileans now perceived the Spaniards were unable to resist their attacks any longer, they assailed them on every side, without giving them a moment's time to breathe. They cut them all in pieces on the spot, except the general Valdivia; him

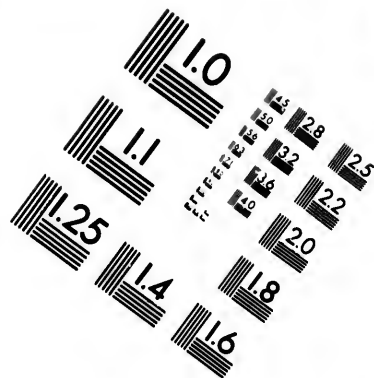
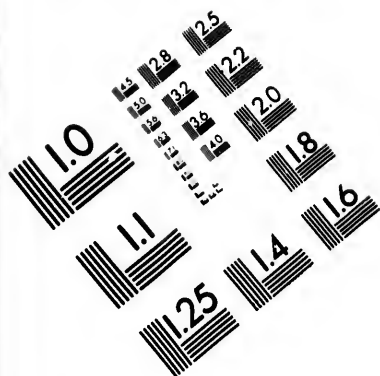
they bound and carried before Caupolican, the Chilean general, who ordered him to be tied to a tree, that he might be executed with more ceremony than those that fell in the battle. Valdivia, it is said, meanly begged his life of the conquerors, addressing himself chiefly to Lautaro, who was but a few hours before his slave. He promised, if they would spare him, to withdraw all the Spanish forces out of Chili, and never more disturb their peace, swearing by all that was sacred to perform his promise; but the unrelenting enemy was deaf to his entreaties: even Lautaro observed, that it was madness to trull to the promises of a captive, who would infallibly change his note if he was set at liberty; whereupon the general pronounced his doom.

Authors differ about the manner of Valdivia's execution. Some affirm that they poured melted gold down his throat, bidding him satisfy himself with that metal he so violently thirsted after. Others relate, that one of the Indian caciques, not bearing to hear it debated whether the destroyer of their country should live or die, beat out his brains with a club, without asking the general's leave: and all the Spanish writers agree, that they made trumpets and flutes of his bones, and preserved his skull as a memorial of that important victory, which they celebrated by feasting and dancing after their country manner; and instituted public sports and exercises, such as running, wrestling, and leaping, to be observed annually in memory of it; and expecting the Spaniards would give them another visit, they encamped in some of their most inaccessible woods and mountains, and Caupolican constituted Lautaro his lieutenant-general, for the services he had done in the late battle, finding him every way qualified for that post. The Spaniards, however, attempted to recover their losses; the war continued about 50 years, but the Chileans were most generally successful, and at length almost expelled them from their country.

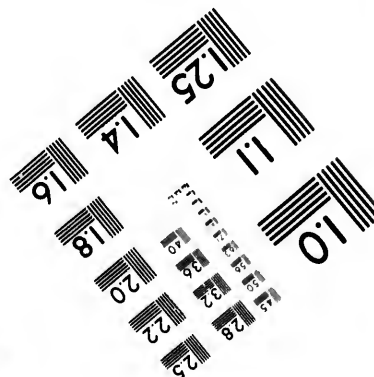
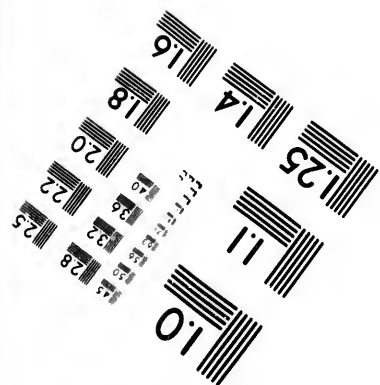
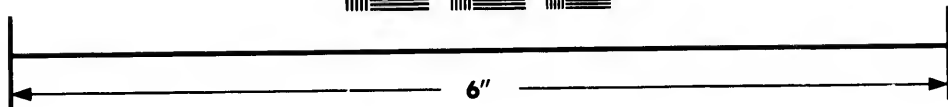
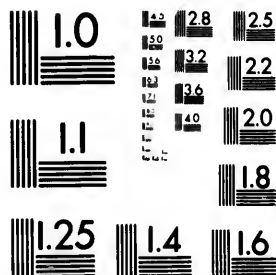
The Dutch being informed of these particulars in 1642, sent a squadron of men of war under the command of Captain Brewer, with some land forces on board, to make a settlement at Chili. This officer arrived on the coast of Chili on the 30th of April, 1643; and landing 50 soldiers on the 20th of May, they had a smart engagement with a Spanish party, whom they defeated, and some Chileans came on board, who gave the Hollanders hopes of success; but Brewer, the Dutch commodore, dying, who projected the enterprize, and the natives growing jealous of the designs of the Hollanders, and seeming ready to join the Spaniards against them, Herekerman, who succeeded Brewer in the command of the squadron, thought fit to return home without effecting anything, having first demolished a little fort they had erected on the harbour of Valdivia.

An old Spaniard, who resided in the court of England, having represented to King Charles II. that the





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Spaniards had been beaten out of most of their settlements on the coast of Chili, and that it would be no difficult matter for the English to possess themselves of them. Sir John Narborough was sent, in 1669, with a man of war, called the Sweepstakes, of 36 guns, to view the coast of Chili, and inquire into the feasibility of planting colonies there: he was accompanied thither by the old Spaniard, named Don Carlos. Sir John passed through the straits of Magellan, and not round Cape-Horn, as Brewer had done; and arriving on the coast of Chili near Valdivia, Don Carlos was set on shore, and took the road to the fort of Valdivia, which the Spaniards had rebuilt, being then in possession of the country, and Don Carlos was never heard of more. The Spaniards permitted the English to trade with their people for trifles at first, but would not suffer them to have a communication with the Indians, and, at length, made one of the lieutenants and three seamen prisoners, whom they refused to release, and what became of them was never known. Sir John Narborough soon after returned home, having no authority to commit hostilities against the Spaniards. In Queen Ann's reign the design of making settlements here was resumed, but proved abortive.

Thus the martial genius of the natives continually retarded the progress of foreigners, and has always been the cause why the Spanish settlements here are so disproportionate to the extent, fertility, and riches of the country. The free Indians are much more numerous than the Spaniards, who are computed at no more than 20,000. All the inhabitants of Chili, including Europeans, Mestizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, are reckoned at 150,000 only. Even the free Indians, it seems, now acknowledge the dominion of the King of Spain, and pay tribute to his governor; but the subjected Indians belong entirely to the Spaniards, living among them, and serving them in the same manner as the natives of Peru and Mexico.

The greater part of Chili is still possessed by the free Indians, who are rather allies than subjects of Spain; having, it is said, in the last treaty, consented to acknowledge the king of Spain for their lawful sovereign, only upon condition that they were suffered to continue under the protection of their own laws and government; an engagement which it will be hazardous for the Spaniards to break, however it may counteract their great design of gaining entire possession of these countries, and thereby repairing the constant decline of wealth and decay of their precious metals in their other settlements. The free Indians are governed by their own chiefs, whom the Spaniards call caciques, who claim no authority, besides that of administering justice, and commanding their tribes in times of war; having neither palaces, guards, revenue, or any other badges of sovereign authority, vested in them.

C H A P. XXIV.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

Situation, &c. Divisions, Cattle, Poultry, Wild Animals, Chief Towns, Provinces, and Commerce.

THIS country is situated between the 50th and 75th deg. of west long. and between the 12th and 37th deg. of south lat. being 1500 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth. It is bounded by Amazonia on the north; by Brazil on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by Peru and Chili on the west.

DIVISIONS.	PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
The east division contains	Paraguay.....	Assumption.
	Parana.....	St. Ann.
	Guaira.....	Cividad Real.
	Uragua.....	Los Reyes.
The south division contains	Tucuman.....	St. Jago.
	Rio de la Plata.....	Buenos Ayres.

Besides horses, mules, sheep, goats, hogs, poultry, game, grain, fruits, &c. this country produces an admirable drug called by the name of the country, Paraguay; which is an excellent emetic, and of itself might form a considerable article of commerce. The forests abound with wild beasts, and the rivers and lakes, besides various kinds of fish, with crocodiles, alligators, &c. The mines contain gold, silver, copper, iron, amethysts, &c. To the west of the great river Paraguay, the country is barren, but to the east, where the Jesuits have erected a temporal and spiritual monarchy, it is fertile. The next considerable river is that of Plate or La Plata, which rises in Peru, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean.

This country abounds with lakes, the chief of which are the Xaraya, the Caracoracs, and the Veronas. The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres, hereafter mentioned; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory.

The climate of Paraguay differs but little from that of Spain; and the distinctions between the seasons are much the same. In winter, indeed, violent tempests of wind and rain are very frequent, accompanied with such dreadful claps of thunder and lightning, as fill the inhabitants, though used to them, with terror and consternation. In summer, the excessive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which constantly begin at eight or nine in the morning. In short, for the enjoyment of life, especially with regard to the softness of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined.

P. XXIV.

OR LA PLATA.

Cattle, Poultry, Wild Animals,
Fishes, and Commerce.

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breadth. It is bounded
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and by Peru and Chili on

VINCES. CHIEF TOWNS.

Paraguay..... Assumption,
Asuncion..... St. Ann.
Cordoba..... Ciudad Real,
Cordoba..... Los Reyes.
Santiago..... St. Jago.
Buenos Ayres..... Buenos Ayres.

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Nostra

Nostra Señora de Buénos Ayres, the capital of
Paraguay, stands on a point called Cape Blanco, in 34
34 mi. south lat. in a fine plain, rising by a
ste ascent from a small river fronting it. It has
eight broad streets, and is of a considerable extent,
containing no less than 3000 houses, built mostly of
plank or brick. The river La Plata, is here seven
leagues in breadth, and navigable for any ship 60
leagues above the town, but no further, by reason of
the narrows. The Spaniards bring hither, down the
river, part of the treasures of Peru; and ship them
to Spain, with vast quantities of hides, cotton, stuffs,
silks, and other commodities of this country, and
their returns are very valuable.

There are three other towns in Paraguay, called
Monte de Vides, Corrientes, and Santa Fé; but nei-
ther of them merits a particular description.

What has rendered this province so very remarkable,
is an extraordinary species of commonwealth which was
established in the interior parts by the labours of the
Jesuits. The foundations of this remarkable republic
were laid about the middle of the last century, when
the fathers obtained an uncontrolled liberty to prac-
tise every expedient, within certain limits, for con-
verting the Indians, and forming them into a body or
nation. At the same time the governors of the ad-
jacent provinces received strict orders not to interfere;
nor suffer any Spaniard to enter into this district with-
out a licence from the fathers. On the other hand,
the Jesuits agreed to pay a certain capitation tax in
proportion to the number of their converts, and to send
a certain number to work in the mines, whenever they
should be wanted; and the missions became sufficiently
copious to answer the demand.

The terms being settled (says a modern author)
the Jesuits applied themselves with indefatigable indu-
stry to settle the country of which they had obtained a
licence. They began with gathering a few Indian fam-
ilies they had before converted, from the several
parts of the country where they were settled, and uni-
ting them into a small township; upon this slight
foundation they have erected a superstructure which
has astonished the world. Wholly intent upon exe-
cuting the arduous undertaking, no difficulties could
stop, no dangers: repress their ardour. They visited
every tribe of the Indians; they mollified the minds
of the most savage nations; they fixed the most ram-
bling; they subdued the most averse to government.
Thousands of dispersed families embraced their reli-
gion, and submitted to their government. By this ra-
pid increase, their subjects amounted a few years ago
to near 400,000 families. They lived in towns, were
regularly clothed, practised agriculture, carried on
manufactures; and some of them professed the polite
arts of music and painting. They were instructed in
the military art with the most exact discipline, and
could bring a force of sixty thousand men, well armed,
to the field. In order to effect these valuable pur-

poses, the fathers had from time to time brought
over from Europe several mechanics, musicians, paint-
ers, &c.

"The whole country was divided into forty-seven
missions or districts, over each of which a Jesuit pre-
sided in chief. He resided in a large and commodious
house, called the Presbytery; adjoining to this house
were the church and the magazines. No person under
the jurisdiction of the fathers had any thing that could
be justly called his own property. Each man's labour was
allotted him in proportion to his strength, or to his
skill in the profession which he exercised. The pro-
duce was brought faithfully to the public magazines,
from whence he was again supplied with all things
which the managers judged to be expedient for the
sustenance of himself or his family. All necessaries
were distributed regularly twice a week; and the ma-
gazines always contained such a stock of provisions
and goods of every kind, as to answer not only the
ordinary exigencies, but to provide against a time of
scarcity, or for those whom accidents, age, or infir-
mities, have rendered incapable of labour. Under the
Jesuits, magistrates or caciques were chosen from
among the Indians; these regulate all matters respect-
ing marriages, decide such differences as were too mi-
nute for the attention of the father, and gave him re-
gularly an exact account of the state of his district,
and the merit and demerit of its inhabitants; and
according to this report they were rewarded or pun-
ished. Nothing could equal the obedience of the
people of these missions, except their contentment un-
der it. Far from murmuring that they have only the
necessaries of life, by a labour which might, in some
degree, procure them the conveniences of it, they
thought themselves a distinguished and favoured peo-
ple in wanting them; and they believed their obedi-
ence a duty, which not only secured their order and
reposé in this world, but the very best means of in-
suring their happiness in the next. This was care-
fully inculcated; and the Indians under their juris-
diction were, by their instructions, rendered an in-
nocent people; civilized without being corrupted.

"In order to preserve this innocence and tranquil-
lity, the Jesuits were extremely strict in preserving
their privilege in keeping all strangers from among
them. If any person happened either through acci-
dent, or in pursuing his journey, to enter the coun-
try of the missions, he was immediately carried to the
Presbytery, where he was treated with great hospitality
during his stay, but watched with the utmost circum-
spection. The curiosities of the place were shewn
him in company with the Jesuit; but he was allowed
no private conversation with any of the natives. In a
reasonable time he was civilly dismissed, with a guard
to conduct him to the next district without expence,
where he was treated in the same manner till he had
passed the limits of the country of the missions. Cau-
tions equally strict, and in the same spirit, they ob-
served,

served, whenever the natives were obliged to go out of their own territories. They avoided all manner of conversation with strangers, looking upon them with a kind of horror; and therefore returned to their country as uninformed and untainted as they left it.

"It is impossible to imagine any thing in the Indies more regular or more magnificent than their parish churches: they were capacious, well built, and very elegantly furnished; gilding and painting strike the eye on every side, all the sacred utensils were gold and silver, and many of them adorned with emeralds and other precious stones. Divine service was celebrated with the most solemn splendor: on one side of the high altar were tribunes for the civil magistrates; and, on the other, the same conveniences for military officers: the father himself officiated with the utmost devotion. Their music, both vocal and instrumental, was far from being contemptible; and the Indians had a genius for music, which the fathers took care to cultivate."

In the year 1757, the court of Spain thought proper to make a cession of some part of this territory to the crown of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacramento, and to make the Uragna the bounds of their possessions; but the inhabitants refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. We were, however, informed, upon government authority, that the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to reduce them. And in 1767 the Jesuits were sent out of America by order of the king, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

P A T A G O N I A.

SOME writers have described Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren, inhospitable country. Some of the inhabitants are from six to seven feet high, but the greater part of them are of a moderate and common stature. Some are mere savages, and others of a more gentle, humane disposition. They live upon fish and game, and what the earth produces spontaneously. Their huts are thatched, and, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of seal-skin, or the skin of some beast, and that they throw off when they are in action. Their complexions are tawny, their hair black, and they paint their faces and bodies with several colours. They are exceedingly hardy, brave, and active, making use of their arms, which

are bows, and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity. In 52 deg. south lat. are the Straights **MAGELLAN**, having Patagonia on the north, and the islands of **TERRA DEL FUEGO**, or the Land of Fire on the south. These Straights extend from east to west 110 leagues, but the breadth in some places falls short of one. They were first discovered by **MAGELLAN**, or **Magelhaens**, a Portuguese; in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. In 1616, **La Maire**, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of the Straights, discovered in lat. 54, one-half of another passage, since known by the name of **Straights La Maire**, and this passage, which is practicable only in January and February, and is called **doubling Cape Horn**, has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators.

GUIANA in South America, extends from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and is bounded by the river **Oronoque** on the north, and the **Amazons**, on the south, but is little known, except a little along the coast, where the French at **Cayennes**, and the Dutch at **Surinam**, have made some settlements, which, from the unhealthiness of the climate, almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back. The inhabitants of **Guiana** are either natives who are of a reddish brown, or negroes and Europeans, or a mixed progeny of these. This country abounds in serpents of various kinds; one sort, not venomous, measures sometimes above 30 feet in length, and three in circumference: it has a taper tail armed with two claws like those of a dunghill cock; small deer have been found in their stomach.

AMAZONIA is bounded by **Terra Firma** on the north, **La Plata** on the south, **Brazil** and the **Atlantic Ocean** on the east, and by **Peru** on the west. It is 1800 miles in length, and 960 in breadth; but this vast extent of country is but little known, except along the banks of the great river **Amazons**, and towards the **Brazilian** frontiers. The river of **Amazons** is the largest in the world. It rises in the **Cordillera**, and increases in a most amazing manner as it proceeds towards the **Atlantic**, into which it discharges itself by 84 channels. It winds 5000 miles, is several miles broad, and near 40 fathoms deep. Many rivers fall into it, particularly the rivers **Negro**, **Xaux**, and **Maranhon**. No European nation has hitherto made any settlement here: some attempts have indeed been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese, but always attended with vast difficulties, so that few of the adventurers ever returned back; and no gold is found in the country, as was expected.

THE SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

C H A P. XXV.

C U B A.

Situation, Fertile Soil, Produce, Towns, Commerce, and Valuable Exports.

THIS island extends in latitude from 20 deg. 20 min. to the tropic of Cancer, and from 75 deg. 15 min. west long. It lies 60 miles to the west of Hispaniola, 25 leagues to the north of Jamaica, 100 miles to the east of Yucatan, and as many to the south of Cape Florida, being about 700 miles in length, and not above 70 in breadth. A chain of hills, which runs through the middle of the island from east to west, gives rise to several rivers, but their course is short from thence into the sea, that scarce any of them are navigable. The land near the sea, being on the most part level, is flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical.

The whole island is well watered, and agreeably fertilized with woods, lawns, and vallies. The soil is capable of producing, in the greatest plenty, every thing that grows in the other American islands; and Cuba, commonly called the Havannah tobacco, is particularly thought to excel that of all the world; and their sugar would equal their tobacco in goodness, if they hands to cultivate the canes. The other products are, ginger, long pepper, and other spices; cassia, mastic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, plenty of large vines, the cotton trees, plantains, bananas, ananas, guavas, lemons, coconuts, and two sorts of fruit, called camiloro and guanavana; the first like a china-orange, and the other shaped like a heart, with a juice between sweet and acid. There are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, advantageously situated, and strongly fortified, but neither populous nor rich. The Havannah, the capital, on the north-west part of the island, and fifty leagues from Cape Antonio, is a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, a great number of convents and churches, and about 26,000 souls. Towards the close of the war of 1756, this city, after a long and obstinate defence, surrendered, with all its forts and dependencies, to his Britannic majesty's arms, in capitulation, on the 12th of August 1762; but was restored at the peace. The value of the cargo of the galleons, flota, and other ships which rendezvous here in September to take in provisions and water,

previous to their return to Old Spain, is seldom less than 7,000,000l. sterling.

The other towns in the island, worth mentioning, are, St. Jago, which is much inferior to the Havannah, and stands at the bottom of a large bay, about two leagues from the sea, on the south side of the island; Santa Cruz, which has a tolerable harbour, and stands about 163 miles east of the Havannah; Porto del Principe, situated on the coast, about 300 miles south-east of the Havannah; and Baracoa, situated on the north-east part of the island, and having a small harbour.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

THIS island is possessed in common by the Spaniards and French, but the far most considerable part is now in the hands of the French. The great Columbus discovered it in 1492, and called it The Spanish Island, a denomination it has preserved, under that of Hispaniola, ever since. It is situated about 13 leagues to the east of Cuba, between the 17th and 21st deg. north lat. and the 67th and 74th of west long. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be uncommonly fertile, producing sugar, indigo, cotton, maize, cassava-root, cocoa, coffee, tobacco, ginger, various kinds of drugs and dyeing woods, pineapples, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, tamarindos, limes, dates, and apricots: in the centre of the island are mountains well covered with cabbage-trees, elms, oaks, pines, acajon, and other large and lofty trees. Salt is found in plenty, and great quantities of ambergris. Mines of silver and gold have been discovered, but they are not worked. Herds and herds of cattle are so numerous in this island, that they supply the neighbouring colonies. There are also several kinds of fowl, and the coasts abound in fish, but are also infested with alligators. The north-west parts, which are in possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles above-mentioned in great plenty. In short, this is the pleasantest and most fruitful island in the West-Indies, being every where diversified with hills and vallies, woods and rivers.

St. Domingo, the capital, is situated on the south side of the island, has a spacious harbour, and is a large, well built city, inhabited by Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, mestizoes, and negroes, whose number is about 30,000. This most ancient town in all the

new world was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the Admiral, in 1504, who called it Domingo in honour of his father Dominic, which appellation the French give to the whole island. Conception, twenty leagues north of St. Domingo, belonging to the Spaniards, is also a considerable town.

Cape François, the capital of the French division of the island of St. Domingo, is situated on a cape on the north side of the island, at the edge of a large plain, twenty leagues long, and about four broad, between the sea and the mountains. There are few lands better watered, but there is not a river that will admit of a sloop above three miles. This space is cut through by straight roads, forty feet broad, constantly lined with hedges of lemon-trees, intermixed with long avenues of lofty trees, which lead to plantations producing a greater quantity of sugar than any country in the world. The town, which is situated in the most unhealthy place of this most extensive and beautiful plain, consists of twenty-nine straight, narrow, and dirty streets, divided into 226 allotments, which comprehend 810 houses. The governor's house, the barracks, and the king's magazine, are the only public buildings which attract the notice of the curious; but those that deserve to be considered by the humane, are two hospitals, called the houses of Providence, founded for the support of those Europeans who come thither without money or merchandize.

The harbour is only a bay, open to the N. and E. winds, before which is a considerable extent of sand-banks, reefs, and rocks, by which it is sheltered from the sea. What is called the port, is in the bottom of the bay, about three quarters of a mile from the town; the W. point going in, which is high and steep, is called Point Picolet.

The town is situated on the W. side, about two miles from Point Picolet, close to the water, and near the mountains; lat. 19. 45 N. long. 72. 13 W.

On the 18th of June 1793, the Civil Commissioners, Messrs. Sonthonax and Polverrel, arrived at the Cape from Port-au-Prince: they immediately suspended Mons. Galbau, the governor and commander of the troops at that place, and sent him on board; on the 12th a number of mulattoes were encouraged by these gentlemen to come into the town, who, by unfair means, armed all the negroes belonging to the citizens, and encouraged them to assist in destroying the whites; which scene actually began on the 20th about noon, when a most horrid massacre took place, neither women nor children were spared; upwards of 10,000 white inhabitants were butchered, and 2500 saved themselves in the French and American vessels in the harbour: the wretches then began to plunder the town, after which they set fire to it; and on the 23d, when the Captain sailed, the burning was going on, and there was only the church, govern-

ment-house, le Caferne, and Gregarie saved; the rest there the Amerique of seventy-four guns. Captain Fanning sailed in company with about 150 sail vessels, bound to different parts in America, under convoy of two French seventy-fours, and six frigates.

Cape François was a neat, well-built city, the buildings chiefly of stone—said to be as large as New-York. The large church has escaped the flames, being all of stone, and covered so as fire cannot make any impression. The government-house suffered much from the cannon shot. The soldiers were still engaged in fighting in town. It is supposed that this disastrous affair proceeded entirely from the difference between the two Commissioners who assumed the power, and the Governor Galbau, who thought his rightful authority invaded. He headed a number of sailors from the ships, who made the first attack, and repulsed the mulattoes, but having at hand a number of negroes with arms, repulsed the sailors and whites. Capt. Fanning, who brought this account to New-York, observes, that could have carried off loads of plunder when he came away, as the inhabitants had left their houses and property to save their lives.

As the French possess the most fertile part of the island, they omit no pains or industry which may tend to its improvement. Upwards of thirty years ago it is said, their exports in sugar, indigo, tobacco, and coffee, amounted to 1,200,000l. annually, and there is no doubt they have been much exceeded by the time. The Spaniards themselves also contrived greatly to increase the power and wealth of the French in this island; for, being possessed of great treasures and no industry, they lavish their dollars in exchange for the manufactures and commodities of their indefatigable neighbours.

When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least one million; but such was the infernal cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry the oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The gold mines here were found to be exceedingly rich, which brought all the robbers of Spain in crowds. The greater part of the male Indians perished in these mines; and almost all the females, by the excessive labour of cultivating the fields of maize for the use of the conquerors; the others were massacred either in cool blood or in ranged battles, for so they called those kind of chaces which the Spaniards, covered with iron and followed by bull-dogs, made to a multitude of these unhappy wretches quite naked, and flying with all their might.

For further particulars of the Spaniards' cruelties, see p. 318. of this work.

PORTO

P O R T O - R I C O .

THIS island is situated between the 64th and 67th deg. of west long. and in the 18th of north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's. It is about 100 miles in length, and 40 in breadth.

The chief part of the country is diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the air is excessive hot, and, during the rainy season, very unwholesome.

The north part of the island, which is the most barren, contains several mines, some of which formerly produced great quantities of silver and gold. It was on account of the latter that the Spaniards settled here, but there is no longer any considerable quantity of gold in it.

The woods are stored with parrots, wild pigeons, and other fowl. European poultry is found here in plenty, and the coast abounds with fish. A breed of dogs, which the Spaniards brought over to hunt and tear in pieces the defenceless natives, are said to run wild in the woods near the sea-shore, and subsist upon land-crabs that burrow in the ground.

Porto-Rico, the capital town, is situated on a small island on the north coast. This island forms a capacious harbour, and is joined to the chief island by a causeway. It is defended by forts and batteries, which render the place almost inaccessible: it was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the Earl of Cumberland, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The town is well built, and populous, being the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the Spaniards; it is also the seat of a governor, as well as a bishop's see.

The Spanish government have taken great pains to prevent an illicit trade being carried on at this place; but such is the convenience of its situation for that traffic, that all the severe edicts issued against it have been ineffectual.

At the east end of Porto-Rico are a number of small islands, called Virgin Islands; and there is one on the same coast called Crab's Island, from the great number of crabs with which it abounds.

T R I N I D A D .

THIS island is situated between the 60th and 62d deg. of west long. and in the 10th deg. of north lat. It lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish main, from which it is separated by the Streights of Paria, and is about 90 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The number of inhabitants is small when compared with the extent of the island, which may be attributed to the unwholesomeness of the climate. The soil however is fertile, and produces sugar, to-

bacco, indigo, cotton, ginger, and Indian corn. This island was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered it, and extorted from the inhabitants a considerable sum of money.

M A R G A R E T T A .

THIS is a small island situated in 65 deg. of west long. and in 11 deg. 30 min. of north lat. being about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth. It abounds in wood, pasture, Indian corn, and all kinds of fruit, but has very little good water. Formerly a valuable pearl-fishery was carried on here, but it is now discontinued. In 1620, the Dutch invaded this island, and demolished the castle, since which it has been entirely abandoned by the natives.

There are several other small islands in these seas, belonging to the Spaniards, but entirely disregarded by them. In the South-Seas they claim the islands of Chiloe, St. Mary's, Quiriquina, de la Moca or Mochia, Juan Fernandez, Tierra, Fuerra, and many others; but Chiloe and Juan Fernandez are the only ones that deserve to be described.

C H I L O E .

THIS is a considerable island, on the coast of Chili, lies between 42 and 44 deg. south lat. is above 112 miles long, and 21 broad. The south part is divided from the continent by a narrow sea, and the continent there makes a bay. This coast is subject to tempestuous weather, especially in March, when winter begins. The Spaniards have but one little fort in this island, called Chacao, always ill provided with warlike stores. Except wine, this island produces all necessary refreshments and provisions; and a great deal of ambergris is found here. About this island are forty more, all taking name from it.

These islands of Chiloe are by a late navigator reputed barren; but their soil is not really so, only the excessive rains choke the seed, and let no corn thrive; so that they are without wheat, wine, or oil, and other plants which need much sun.

With respect to the climate of this cluster of islands, we are told, it rains almost all the year; so that only maize, or other such grain, can ripen, that do not want so much sun. The diet of the natives is mostly of a root called papahs, which grows bigger here than in any other place. The manufactures are clothing for the Indians, who have a kind of vest, which they call macun, without sleeves, over which is a kind of cloak. They have vast woods of cedar trees of a prodigious size, so as hardly to be encompassed by a rope of six yards long. Castro is the principal town, and is the residence of a governor; it has a harbour well fortified.

J U A N

JUAN FERNANDEZ.

THIS island, which lies in 83 deg. west long. and 33 south lat. 300 miles south of Chili, is at present uninhabited; but having some good harbours, is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being discovered, unless when, as is generally the case, our good friends in Brasil give notice to the Spaniards of their arrival in the South-Seas, and their motions. This was formerly a place of resort for the Buccaneers, who annoyed the western coast of the Spanish continent; they were induced to come hither from the multitude of goats, which it nourished; to deprive them of this advantage, the envious Spaniards transported to it a considerable number of dogs, which increasing greatly, have almost extirpated the goats, who now only find security among the steep mountains in the northern parts, which are inaccessible to their pursuers.

There are instances of two men living, at different times, alone on this island for many years; the one was a Musquito Indian; and the other Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who being left ashore in this solitary place by the crew of an English ship, was at length discovered by Capt. 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 goat's skins, would drink nothing but water, and he could not for a considerable time relish the ship's victuals. During his stay in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Thirty years after, some of those were caught by Lord Anson's people, and bore strong marks of antiquity. From the history of this recluse, Daniel Defoe is said to have conceived the idea of writing his celebrated performance, called the Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, Selkirk having, we are told, put his papers into the hands of Defoe, to prepare them for publication, for which they were probably too crude and indigested.

The GALLIFAGO ISLES, situated 400 miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's, or Pearl Islands; are besides the above described, the only places deserving notice.

FUERA, OR MASA-FUERO.

IN 1765, Commodore Byron anchored off this island, and sent out his boats to endeavour to get wood and water; but as the shore was rocky, and a surf broke with great violence upon it, he ordered the men to put on cork jackets, by the help of which

they brought off a considerable quantity of wood. Here they found plenty of goats, which proved to be as good food as venison in England. In this expedition the gunner, and a seaman who could not swim, went on shore with the waterers, and when the business was completed, the violence of the surf which beat against the shore, made them afraid to venture off to the boat; they were, therefore, left behind on the island. The next day the Commodore sent out a boat to bring them back. The gunner swam through the surf, and got on board; but the seaman had so thorough a presage of being drowned in the attempt to reach the boat, that, preferring to social intercourse, he chose to remain on the island at all events.

Having formed this resolution, he took an affectionate leave of the people in the boat. A midshipman, however, just as they were about to return without him, taking one end of a rope in his hand, jumped into the sea, and swam through the surf to the beach, where the poor insolated dependant sat mourning on his situation. The young man remonstrated to him on the absurdity of the resolution he had formed, and having made a running noose in the rope, suddenly threw it over the sailor, and fixing it round his body, the people in the boat began to drag him through the surf, and thus brought him on board; though he had swallowed so great a quantity of water on his passage, that he was to all appearance dead; but proper means being used, he soon recovered, and was, no doubt, abundantly thankful for the friendly violence that had forced him from the dreary solitude which his fears had before courted.

This island is by Capt. Carteret described to lie in 33 deg. 45 min. south longitude, 80 deg. 46 min. west from Greenwich. It is very high and mountainous, and, at a distance, appears as one hill or rock. It is of a triangular form, and seven or eight leagues in circumference. Here is such plenty of fish, that a boat, with a few hooks and lines, may presently catch as much as will serve 100 people. Here are coal-fish, cavilliers, cod, halibut, and cray-fish. Capt. Carteret's crew caught a king-fisher that weighed eighty-seven pounds, and was five feet and a half long. The sharks here were so ravenous, that, in taking soundings, one of them swallowed the lead, by which they hauled him above water; but he regained his liberty by disgorging his prey. Seals are so numerous here, that Capt. Carteret says, if many thousands were killed in a night, they would not be missed the next morning. These animals yield excellent train oil; and their hearts and plucks are very good food, having a taste something like those of a hog. Their skins are covered with very fine fur. There are many birds here, and some very large hawks. Of the pingado bird the crew of the swallow caught 700 in one night.

After

considerable quantity of boats
of goats, which proved to be
in England. In this case
a seaman who could not swim
th the waterers, and, when
ed, the violence of the fur
shore, made them afraid
they were, therefore, let
the next day the Commodore
them back. The gunner
and got on board; but the
a preface of being drowned
the boat, that, preferring his
chose to remain on the island.

resolution, he took an affec-
tion in the boat. A minute
s they were about to return
end of a rope in his hands
swam through the surf to the
isolated despondent fat rum-
The young man remon-
absurdity of the resolution
ing, made a running noose
rew it over the sailor, and
y, the people in the boat
the surf, and thus brought
he had swallowed to great
passage, that he was to all
oper means being used, he
no doubt, abundantly thank-
ence that had forced him
which his fears had before

After the foregoing descriptions of the Spanish
settlements in America and the West-Indies, a few
remarks on the policy of the Spaniards with regard
to their colonies in the New World, may not be im-
proper.—Happy would it have been for the natives,
if even for the Spaniards themselves, had not South
America produced such amazing quantities of gold,
had the veins of that metal still remained unknown
to the bowels of the mountains: the former would
then have been sacrificed at the shrine of avarice
to cruelty, nor the latter bartered their virtue, in-
dustry, and military character, for inhumanity, in-
fluence, and ease. No country in Europe receives
such vast treasures as Spain, yet in no country in
Europe is seen so little money; and, strange as it
may appear, from the time the Indies fell into the
hands of Spain, the affairs of that monarchy have
been constantly going backward. The treasure which
is poured in annually from the New World, found them
in debt to every part of the Old; for to the rest of
their revenues they had forgot to add œconomy; a
great revenue itself, and a sure support of all others.
The Spaniards unhappily adopted no means of re-
forming their conquests but by extirpating the people;
no schemes for the advancement of trade; no attempts
at the reformation of abuses, which became formi-

dable in proportion to the mischiefs they had suffered
by them; so that in government, there was tyranny;
in religion, bigotry; in trade, monopoly. The Spanish
nation have relied too much upon their riches; and
the whole state being moulded into a system of cor-
ruption from the top to the bottom, things grew at
last so bad, that the evils themselves became a species
of remedies, and they felt so severely the consequences
of their former conduct, that they have for some years
past turned their thoughts into a new and much better
channel. They are beginning to open the American
trade to some other ports in Spain besides Cadiz.
They have made a difference, in point of duty, be-
tween their own manufactures and those of foreigners.
They are, in short, opening their eyes to the true
interest of their country; they are moving their hand,
though slowly, to promote it; and may in time, by
perseverance, rise again, while others shall fall, by
adopting the abuses which brought them to the brink
of ruin.

At present, the politics of Spain, with regard to
America, seem to be;—to preserve South-America,
and particularly the navigation of the South-Seas,
as much as possible, to themselves; to destroy ef-
fectually the contraband trade; and to encourage the
export of their own manufactures.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

CHAP. XXVI.

B R A S I L.

*Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil,
Produce, Animals, Lakes, Rivers, Fish, Inhabitants,
Towns, Trade, and Exports.*

THIS country is situated between the 35th and
51st deg. of west long. and between the equator,
and 33 deg. of south lat. being about 700 miles in
breadth, and 2500 in length. It is bounded by the
mouth of the river Amazons and the Atlantic Ocean,
to the north; by the same Ocean, on the east; by
the mouth of the river Plata, on the south; and by a
chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay,
to the west.

DIVISIONS.

PROVINCES. CH. TOWNS.

North division con- tains the captain- ships of.....	{	Para.....	Para, or Belim.
		Marignan.....	St. Lewis.
		Siara.....	Siara.
		Petaguez.....	St. Luc.
		Rio Grande....	Tignares.
Middle division con- tains the captain- ships of.....	{	Payraba.....	Payraba.
		Tamara.....	Tamara.
		Pernambuco...	Olinda.
		Seregippe.....	Seregippe.
		Bahai.....	St. Salvador.
South division con- tains the captain- ships of.....	{	Ilheos.....	Paya.
		Porto Seguro..	Porto Seguro.
		Spirito Sancto..	Spirito Sancto.
South division con- tains the captain- ships of.....	{	Rio Janeiro....	St. Sebastian.
		St. Vincent....	St. Vincent.
		Del Rey.....	St. Salvador.

After

There are also some small islands on the coast of Brasil, where ships touch sometimes for provisions in their voyage to the South-Sea; particularly Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's. These will be described in their proper place.

The name Brasil was given to this country, because great quantities of a wood of that name were found in it.

The coast of Brasil is washed by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north and north-east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; viz. the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, of St. Vincent, of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata, and the harbour of St. Gabriel. The principal capes are Cape St. Mary, the most southern promontory of Brasil, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, and Cape Trio.

In the southern provinces the heat, though excessive, is tolerable; the air being constantly refreshed with breezes that blow from the sea, and likewise from the mountains in the inland parts of the country. But the northern provinces are subject to great rains, and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, accompanied with storms and tornadoes, that the country is almost entirely overflowed, and the climate rendered extremely unwholesome. The soil is in general amazingly fertile, producing sugar, tobacco, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copiaba, and Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, chiefly used in dyeing, but the colour produced by it is none of the best. Here are also five different sorts of palm-trees, woods of ebony, mastic, cotton-trees, citron, &c. and many others which produce admirable fruits and balsams, diffusing around a most delicious fragraney.

The animals in Brasil nearly resemble those of Peru and Mexico: and no country in the world affords a greater number of birds; some remarkable for their beauty, and others for their taste. Their eatable fowls are turkies, very large and delicious; also hens, ducks, &c. Their bats are of a prodigious size; they will go into houses in the night-time, and if they find any persons asleep and uncovered, will fasten on them, and suck their blood.

The sea-coasts, lakes, and rivers, are stored with great plenty and variety of fish, among which is the globe fish, called by the Latins *orbis minor*, from its circular form; it is so beset all round with sharp spikes, like those of a hedge-hog, as to bid defiance to all fishes of prey. But of all the living creatures in this sea, the most remarkable is the sea bladder, so called because it greatly resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves. The inside is only filled with air, except about a spoonful of water that serves to poise it. The skin is thin and transparent, and, like a bubble raised in the water, reflects a great variety of colours.

The Portuguese in America are represented, by most judicious travellers, as a people at once sunk in the most effeminate luxury, and practising the most desperate crimes; of a dissembling, hypocritical temper; of little honesty in dealing, or singularity of conversation; also lazy, proud, and cruel. They are poor and penurious in their diet, not more from necessity than inclination; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they prefer parade, state, and attendance, to the joys of free society, and the satisfaction of a free table; yet their feasts, though seldom made, are sumptuous even to profusion. Being ambitious to distinguish themselves from the rest of mankind, by shewing themselves above using the legs which nature hath given them to walk on, they cause themselves to be carried about, in a most showy manner, on beds of fine cotton hanging by the ends a long pole, which two negroes carry either on the heads or shoulders. The bed is covered with a tapestry or canopy, to which are hung some curtains to defend from close or open, by which the person is secured from rain, wind, and if he pleases from sight. Thus lying along at his ease, and his head reclined on a soft rest or pillow, the proud saggard is carried about by his domestics more gaily than in a coach, or sedan. These canopies, hammocks are called, according to our author, hammocks, and not palankins, as travellers commonly call them. Almost every person of fashion passes in this manner through the streets.

The city of St. Salvador, or Ciudad da Bahia, is situated in the bay of All Saints, and has a most spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built on a high rock, having the sea on one side, and a hill forming a crescent, inverting it wholly on the other. This situation has rendered it almost impregnable in nature, to which strong fortifications have been added by the Portuguese. The houses are handsome, and the public buildings sumptuous and magnificent. A prodigious trade is carried on in this city; and the streets are crowded with negroes of both sexes, naked, except a piece of cloth wrapped round the middle.

All the ships in the Brasil trade, being under the direction of the government, have their appointed seasons for going and returning, under a convoy of certain number of men of war; nor can a single ship clear out, or set sail, except with the fleet, but by special licence from the king, which is seldom obtained. The fleets sail in exact order and at the same periods, viz. the first to Rio Janeiro, in January; the second to Bahai, or the Bay of All Saints, in February; and the third and last to Pernambuco, the month of March. About May or June they rendezvous in the bay of All Saints, and set sail together for Europe, with a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the flota and galleons: the value alone amounts to near four millions sterling; but this is not all extracted from the mines in Brasil, for the

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 Mozambique, vast quantities of gold, together with
 and Ivory, which goes into the amount of the
 of the Brasil fleets for Europe. Great part of
 gold is coined in America.
 The exports of Brasil are gold, diamonds, and other
 precious stones; ambergris, sugar, tobacco, indigo,
 silks, cotton, hides, tallow, Brasil wood, rosin, and
 treatments. Formerly the Portuguese employed only
 ve ships in their Brasil commerce; but at present
 are no less than twelve hundred sail of large
 sels constantly going to and returning from these
 colonies. The slave-trade, from the number of slaves
 usually transported from Africa to Brasil, also em
 ys a great number of ships.
 In order to form some idea adequate to the riches of
 the Brasil fleet, it is necessary to observe, that the
 wood-mines are not rented at one-fifth part of their
 value; and that there is returned to Europe, in
 of precious stones, to at least the value of 130,000l.
 This, with the sugar, which is principally the cargo
 of the Fernambuco fleet, the tobacco, the hides, the
 shable drugs for m^edicine and manufactures, may
 convince us of the importance of this trade, not only
 Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.
 The returns to Brasil are not the fiftieth part of the
 produce of Portugal: they consist of the woollen goods
 of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the
 silks and laces of Holland, France, and Germany;
 the silks of France and Italy; oil from Spain; lead,
 iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in
 these metals, from England, as likewise salt-fish, beef,
 cur, and cheese: wine, with some fruits, is nearly
 all with which they are supplied from Portugal. The
 profits in this trade are exceedingly large, yet few of
 the Portuguese merchants trade upon their own
 stocks, but are generally credited by the foreign
 merchants, whose commodities they vend, especially
 the English.
 The Portuguese, following the example of the
 Spaniards, have endeavoured to prevent all foreign
 powers from trading to their plantations; but these
 regulations are as little attended to in Portugal as in
 Spain. The Portuguese are properly nothing more
 than trustees and factors, in which capacity they act
 with a fidelity equal to that of the Spaniards; though
 it is well known that, in most other occurrences, this
 nation is not remarkable for their sentiments of
 honour.
 Some writers have represented the Brasilians as very
 savage, devoid of all principles of religion, cruel in
 war, and cannibals, or devourers of flesh; but these
 stories are generally looked upon as fictions of the
 Portuguese, to justify their cruel and inhuman treat
 ment of them. They believe in certain invisible
 beings, the dispensers of good and evil, the rewarders
 and punishers of virtue and vice; and their notion
 with respect to a future state is, that after death they

shall visit their ancestors, dwelling beyond the Andes;
 but they have no temples. Their priests make them
 believe, that if they bring them offerings, those in
 visible beings, who give them food and all the good
 things they enjoy, will prosper their affairs, but if
 they neglect this, some terrible misfortune will befall
 them. They have caciques who rule them in peace,
 and lead them in war. Their towns are without
 walls; their mode of carrying on war is by ambuscades,
 and their weapons are bows, arrows, wooden
 clubs, and shields for defence.

THE HISTORY OF BRASIL.

AMERICUS VESPUTIO was the first discoverer
 of Brasil, in 1498. but the Portuguese did not plant it
 till 1549, when they settled at the bay of All Saints,
 and founded the city of St. Salvador, or St. Saviour.
 The court of Spain, considering the whole continent
 of South America as their property, gave them some
 interruption at first; but the affair was at length ad
 justed by treaty, and the Portuguese were allowed to
 possess all the country lying between the two great rivers,
 Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French
 afterwards attempting to plant colonies on this coast,
 were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who re
 mained without a rival till 1580, when they were
 struck down by one of those incidents, which at one
 blow often decides the fate of kingdoms. Don Se
 bastian, king of Portugal, lost his life in an ex
 pedition against the Moors in Barbary, by which event
 the Portuguese lost their liberty, their kingdom being
 absorbed into that of Spain. Some time after, the
 Dutch becoming independent, first attacked the Spanish,
 and afterwards the Portuguese American territories:
 they took almost all the fortresses of the latter in the
 East-Indies, and some time after took seven of the
 captainships or provinces of Brasil; and would have
 subdued the whole country, had not their career been
 stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks,
 and a few scattered forces: however, about the year
 1654, the Dutch were entirely driven out of Brasil;
 but their West-India company, continuing their pre
 tensions, still pursued the Portuguese at sea, till the
 latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of
 gold to relinquish their interest in that country; which
 was accepted.

The only islands on the coast of Brasil, belonging to
 the Portuguese, which merit description, are those of
 Fernando de Norona, Barbara, and St. Catharine's.
 Fernando de Norona lies in 3 deg. 50 min. south
 lat. and 39 deg. 35 min. west long. It is only about
 twenty miles in circumference, and almost wholly
 insusceptible of tillage, for want of moisture, in
 somuch that from the scarcity of water, the plants
 wither

wither and die in their growth. Here are two harbours capable of receiving ships of the greatest burden, and two small forts are erected on the east part. The French took possession of this island soon after the Portuguese settled at Brasil, but they were driven out in 1738, when the latter sent a colony thither.

St. Barbara is a very small island situated near the coast of Brasil, in 18 deg. six min. south lat. and 40 deg. 4 min. west long. it is no more than 12 miles in circumference, but very fertile, and at the same time very thinly inhabited: it has no harbour capable of receiving ships of any considerable burden, and therefore very little frequented.

St. Catharine's is situated in 27 deg. 45 min. south lat. and in 47 deg. 58 min. west long. It is about 27 miles in length, and six in breadth, and lies about 40 miles east of the coast of Brasil. The soil is very luxuriant, producing fruits of most kinds spontaneously. The ground is covered with one continued forest of trees, of a perpetual verdure. Fruits and vegetables of all climates thrive here, almost without culture, and are produced in the greatest plenty; so that there is no want of pine-apples, peaches, apricots, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, melons, plantains, onions, and potatoes. Here are a species of wild black cattle, resembling buffaloes; monkeys, parrots, and pheasants. The harbours and bays are stored with plenty of excellent fish, of various kinds. The water is extremely good, and found in various parts of the island. But amidst all these bounties of nature, the air is far from being salutary, owing to the woods and mountains, which prevent a free circulation, and to other causes.

CHAPTER XXVII.

FRENCH AMERICA.

BEFORE the war of 1756, the French made their possessions in North America, as appears by the maps, to consist of almost the whole continent; and divided this vast country into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada (comprehending a much greater extent than the British province of that name, and in which a great part of the provinces of New-York, New England, and Nova-Scotia, was included). They called the southern province Louisiana, comprising therein a division of Carolina. These unreasonable claims, and the measures taken by the French to support them, laid the foundation of the war in 1756, between Great-Britain and that nation, the issue of which has been already noticed. But while the French were using every means to increase their infant colonies, and with the most flattering hopes forming vast designs of an extensive empire, one judicious step in politics lost

them the whole; and their imaginary dominions which had no existence but in their maps, vanished like smoke. Having over-rated their strength, they commenced hostilities many years too soon; and the consequence was, they were forced to yield to Great-Britain all that fine country of Louisiana, eastward of the Mississippi; but at the treaty of peace in 1763, they were allowed to keep possession of the western banks of that river, and the small town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; and even this they ceded to Spain in 1769, for reasons best known to themselves.

OLD CAYENNE, OR, EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

THIS country is situated between the equator and 5th degree of north lat. and between the 50th and 53rd of west long. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; is bounded by Guiana, on the west; by Amazonia, on the south by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; and by Surinam on the north. Caen is the chief town. The land along the coast is low, marshy, and very subject to inundations during the rainy seasons, from the multitudes of rivers which descend with great impetuosity from the mountains; higher up there are five hills very proper for settlements, where the air is healthy, and the heats greatly mitigated by the sea breeze; but the French have not yet extended them so far as they might, though they raise here the same commodities which they have from the West-India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity.

The island of CAYENNE, which the French have taken possession of, on this coast, lies at the mouth of the river of that name, and is about 45 miles in circumference, it is very unhealthy, but having some good harbours, they have several settlements; but the fort, which stands at the bottom of one of the harbours, has no other fresh water than what is brought from rain in large cisterns. The island is, however, extremely fertile in sugar, coffee, tobacco, Indian corn, plants, fruits, and other necessaries of life.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

MARTINICO.

THIS is the most considerable of all the West-India islands belonging to the French. It is situated about 120 miles north-west of Barbadoes, between

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XXVIII.

DS IN AMERICA.

MARTINICO.

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between the 14th and 15th deg. of lat. and in
deg. west long. The island is a mountain-
ous, and from thence arise numerous rivulets,
which in their course towards the sea at once adorn
and fertilize the country. The soil is in general fer-
tile, and yields sugar, tobacco, cotton, coffee, ginger,
cacao, indigo, cocoa, aloes, plantains, and such
plants as are common in these parts. Its bays and har-
bours, are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so
well fortified, that they for some time bid defiance
to the attempts of the English to take the place; but
in the war of 1756, when the British arms were every-
where triumphant, this island surrendered to them,
and was restored to the crown of France at the peace.
Sugar is here, as in all the West-India islands, the
principal commodity, of which they export every year
a considerable quantity. Martinico is the residence
of the governor of the French islands in these seas.
The most considerable places in the island are St.
Pierre, Port-Royal, and Trinity-Town. An ineffectual
attempt to take this island was made by the English
in 1793.

GUADALUPE.

THIS island is situated in 16 deg. north lat. and
64 deg. west long, about 30 leagues north of Mar-
tinico, and almost the same south of Antigua; it is
about 45 miles long, and 38 broad, and divided into
two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a nar-
row channel, through which no ships can venture; the
inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. It has a healthy
climate; and the soil is amazingly fertile, producing sugar,
coffee, cotton, indigo, ginger, bastard cinnamon, and
a variety of vegetables. This island is in a flourish-
ing condition; and its exports of sugar, which is of
an excellent quality, are almost incredible, amounting,
it is said, to 100,000 hogsheds annually; and it is
asserted, that if the soil of Guadalupe was as well
cultivated as that of Barbadoes, it would yield sugar
enough to supply all Europe. Every attempt to re-
duce this island proved ineffectual; till the year 1759,
when it was obliged to submit to the English valour;
but, like Martinico, it was, by the treaty of peace in
1763, given back to the French. Guadalupe was fo-
und by Columbus, from the resemblance of its
mountains to those of that name in Spain.

ST. LUCIA.

THIS island is about 23 miles in length, and 12
in breadth; and situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in
61 deg. west long. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes.
It is diversified with hills and valleys, well watered,

and furnished with excellent harbours; so that upon
the whole, it is esteemed one of the best islands
among the Caribbees. The land is rich, but little of
it cleared. The woods yield excellent timber, and
abound in wild fowl, as the surrounding sea does in
fish. The English first settled on this island in 1697.
From this time they encountered with various misfor-
tunes from the natives and French; and by the De-
finitive Treaty it was agreed on between the latter and
the English, that this island, together with Dominica
and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But before
the war of 1756 broke out, the French began to set-
tle these islands, which, by the treaty of peace, were
yielded up to Great-Britain, and this island to France.
The English made themselves masters of it in 1778,
but it was restored to the French by the subsequent
peace; and is now declared a free port under certain
restrictions.

T O B A G O.

THIS island lies in 11 deg. 15 min. north lat. and
in 60 deg. 27 min. west long. being 40 leagues south
by west from Barbadoes, about 35 south-east from St.
Vincent, 40 east from Grenada, and between 30 and
40 from the Spanish main. It is 32 miles in length,
about 9 in breadth, and 70 in circumference; so that
it is rather larger than Barbadoes, or, indeed, any of
our Leeward Islands; and near the north-west ex-
tremity lies a small island called Little Tobago, which
is two miles in length, and one in breadth.

The climate is far more temperate than could be
expected in an island that is but 11 deg. 10 min.
north from the equator; for the force of the sun is
diminished by the sea breezes. The spice and gum
trees, with which it abounds, contribute to its salu-
brity. Tobago has another favourable circumstance
to recommend it, namely, its lying out of the track
of those hurricanes that often prove so fatal to the
other West-India islands. The north-west extremity
is mountainous, but the rest of the island agreeably
diversified with risings and fallings. The soil, in ge-
neral, is a rich black mould, proper for producing, in
the greatest plenty, whatever is raised in other parts
of the West-Indies. There are many springs, toge-
ther with commodious bays and creeks. But the va-
luable trees which grow here are, perhaps, its greatest
riches; for, besides the different kinds of wood that
are found in the other West-India islands, it is said,
that the true nutmeg-tree, and the cinnamon-tree, with
that which produces the real gum-copal, are found on
this island. The fig-trees of Tobago are reckoned
equal to those of Spain and Portugal. Indian and
Guinea corn, French beans, various kinds of peas,
the cashou-apple, that is both meat and drink, and
yields an excellent lamp-oil; the prickly-apple, bā-

mana, pomegranate, pine-apple, sweet and bitter orange, lemons, sugar, tobacco, indigo, ginger, farfaparilla, semper vivum, citrons, vanellus, limes, guavas, plantains, tamarinds, grapes, custard-apple, four-apple, papaw-apple, mamma-apple, yellow plum, cherries; the cocoa-tree, that yields both meat, drink, and clothing; musk, cucumbers, water-melons, pumpkins, gourds, potatoes, yams, carrots, turnips, parsnips, onions, cassada-root, natural balsam, silk-grass, with five different sorts of pepper, the long, the cod, the bell, the round, and the Jamaica.

As for animals, here are wild hogs, pickarees, which resemble a hog; armadilloes; guanoes, which are of the alligator kind; Indian conies, badgers, horses, cows, asses, sheep, deer, goats, and rabbits. No island in the world, we are told, can boast such a variety of fishes, both shell and others, particularly turtle and mullets, of a most delicious taste. Of the feathered species there is also a great variety. Lastly, in different parts of the island are found green tar, soap earth, with many curious shells, stones, marcasites, and minerals.

King Charles II. granted this island to the duke of Courland, under whose auspices a colony of English, and another of Dutch, were settled on it: but their plantations were so often ravaged by the Caribbees of the neighbouring continent, that the English abandoned the place. The Dutch, however, continued in their settlements, and had such an opinion of their value and importance, that they long supported themselves with the most obstinate perseverance against all the attempts of the English and French. It was declared a neutral island by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748; ceded to the English by the treaty of 1763; taken by the French in June 1781, and yielded to them by the late peace. It was taken by the English April 15, 1793.

MARIGALANTE.

THIS island was discovered by Columbus, in his second voyage to America, in 1493, and received its appellation from that of his ship. It is situated a little to the south-east of Guadalupe, about five leagues in length, and four in breadth: it abounds in all the productions of the other islands. A great many grottoes are found here, abounding with large land crabs; and the high rocks, that run along the eastern shore, being full of great holes, give shelter to vast numbers of tropical birds. There are several rivers and ponds of fresh water in the island. The French began to send colonies hither about the year 1647; and, before the last reduction of it by the British arms, it manufactured above one thousand hogheads of sugar annually.

St. MARTIN, St. BARTHOLOMEW AND DESEADA.

THESE are three of the most inconsiderable islands the French possess in these parts.

St. MARTIN lies a little to the north-west of Bartholomew, and is of no consequence whatever.

St. BARTHOLOMEW is situated about ten leagues north of St. Christopher's, and, though encompassed with formidable rocks, produces tobacco and calico with some excellent woods, and lime-stone; but the island is now to be considered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France 1785.

DESEADA, which is a corruption of the word Desiderada, or the Desirable Island, was so called by Columbus, from being the first land he discovered his second voyage to America. It is situated about twenty miles north-east of Guadalupe, and is said to produce the best cotton of any of the French West India islands.

Though the French were among the last nations who formed settlements in the West-Indies, they have made ample amends for the time they had lost by the vigour with which they pursued their undertakings, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage which the nature of the climate would admit, and in struggling with the difficulties which attend infant settlements, especially in the torrid zone.

As France is become sensible that all the benefits of her labours and acquisitions, as well as all the prosperity of her plantations, must be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home; we shall therefore lay before our readers some part of the wise plan of conduct which this politic nation pursued in order to render her colonies so highly advantageous to the mother country.

The colonies were particularly under the care and inspection of the council of commerce; a board judiciously constituted to answer all the purposes for which it was designed: for, to give it a proper respect and authority, it is composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the crown; and then to enable it to judge perfectly of the matters which come before it, these twelve are assisted by the deputies of all the considerable trading cities and towns in France, chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid handsome salaries for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week. The deputies propose plans for redressing every grievance in trade; for raising the branches that are fallen; for extending new ones; for supporting the old; and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their

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their own lights, or the instructions of their constituents.
They keep a watchful eye upon every article of com-
merce; and they not only propose helps and improve-
ments to it themselves, but they hear the proposals of
others, which are not disdainfully rejected, nor rashly
received; nor do they render the access to themselves
difficult by unwieldy state. They do not discourage
those who apply, by admitting the vexatious practice
of fees, perquisites, and exactions in their inferior of-
fices. They do not suffer form and methods to load
the public burden that business they were solely intended to
advance. They summon and examine those who are
supposed the most competent judges of the matter before
them, and of every part of it, even the lowest
officers. But though they examine those men, and
obtain instruction from their experience, they are not
determined by their opinions. When they are satisfac-
ed of the usefulness of any regulation, they propose
it to the royal council, where their report is always
received with particular attention. An edict to enforce
it issues accordingly, and it is executed with a punc-
tuality which distinguishes their government, and
which alone can render the wisest regulations any-
thing better than serious mockeries. To the care of
this body the plantations are particularly intrusted.

That the colonies may have as little load as possi-
ble, and that the governor may have less temptation
to stir up troublesome intrigues, or favour factions in
his government, his salary is paid by the crown. His
perquisites are none; and he is strictly forbidden to
carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the
islands or on the continent, or to have any interest
whatsoever in goods or lands within his government,
except the house he resides in, and a garden for his
convenience and recreation. All the other officers
are paid by the crown out of the revenues of France; the
fortifications are built and repaired, and the sol-
diers are paid out of the same fund.

The colonies pay hardly any taxes; and when upon
extraordinary emergency taxes have been raised,
they are very moderate; and even then, they who
have begun new plantations are exempted from them.
The duty upon the export of their produce at the
islands, or at its import into France, is next to no-
thing; in both places hardly making two per cent.
The commodities exported from France to the islands
pay no duty.

Besides those above-mentioned, their regulations re-
specting the judges of the admiralty, law-suits, reco-
very of debts, lenity to such as have suffered by
earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad seasons, the peopling
their colonies, number of whites to be employed by
the planters, and, lastly, the management of negroes,
cannot be sufficiently admired; and some of them
would, no doubt, be of great service, were they in-
troduced into our sugar islands, where suitable re-
gulations in many respects seem to be loudly called
for.

C H A P. XXIX.

D U T C H A M E R I C A .

SURINAM, OR DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS country is situated between 5 and 7 deg.
north lat. bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, on
the north; by the French settlements, on the east and
south; and by the Spanish settlements, on the west: ex-
tending 100 miles along the coast from the mouth of
the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or
French Guiana, south.

Surinam is the most considerable of all the Dutch
colonies in Guiana; the plantations extend 30 leagues
above the mouth of this river, on which the town is
built. The climate of this country is generally rec-
koned unwholesome; and a considerable part of the
coast is low, and covered with water. The colony
itself is in a less prosperous condition than it was some
years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars
the Dutch have been engaged in with their fugitive
negroes, whom they have treated with great barba-
rity, and who are become so numerous by their con-
tinual increase year after year, that they have formed
a kind of colony in the woods, which are almost im-
penetrable, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca,
and Copename, and have been very troublesome neigh-
bours. They have even elected chiefs among them-
selves, cultivate lands for their support, and take fre-
quent opportunities of revenging the injuries they
have received from their old oppressors, by making in-
cursions into their plantations.

The exports from Surinam consist of sugar, tobacco,
coffee, gums, dyeing woods, drugs, cotton, flax, and
skins. In these the Dutch trade with Europe, and
our American colonies; from the latter of which they
receive in return, molasses, horses, live cattle, and va-
rious kinds of provisions. They also carry on a con-
siderable traffic with the West-India islands, to which
they transport various kinds of timber, adapted for the
building of mills. This is purchased by the planters
at a very advanced price, not less than sixty pounds
sterling being given for the largest pieces.

The two Dutch colonies of Ilsequebo and Demera-
ry, on account of their proximity, are comprised in
one colony, which bears the name of them both.
Ilsequebo, however, is the most ancient, having been
settled between 60 and 70 years, while the settlement
of Demerary does not exceed 20 years. On these
rivers are several forts, islands, and plantations. One
of the islands in the Demerary is the residence of the
commandant, and there the courts of judicature are
held, and the company's troops stationed. They were
taken by the English in 1781, and retaken by the
French.

The

The inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are a mixture of whites or Europeans, blacks, and Aborigines, improperly called Indians, together with their several castes or divisions, already enumerated in our account of New Spain, and whose colours depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes; the several intermediate divisions of them proceed from their heterogeneous intercourse with each other. The four tribes of Indians are distinguished by the appellations of Caribbees, the Warrrows, the Accowars, and the Arrowauks.

Horses, asses, mules, bulls, cows, &c. run wild in this country, as in many other parts of America: Among the amphibious animals are the hippopotamus and the laubba; the latter is peculiar to this country; it is about the size of a pig four months old, its head resembles that of a pug dog; it has a short thick neck, small eyes and ears, short legs, and no tail; and is covered with a fine short hair of a chestnut colour, intermixed with white circular spots, except under the belly, where it is agreeably white. The flesh of this creature, being extremely delicate and tender, is preferred by the Europeans who reside here to all other kinds of meat. There are in this country an immense number and variety of snakes, which form one of its principal inconveniences. Some years ago a snake was killed on a plantation that belonged to Peter Amyatt, Esq. which was upwards of 33 feet in length, and three feet in circumference near the middle of the body: it had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. The birds are very numerous here, and of various species; some of them are so remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, that several persons in Guiana have employed themselves advantageously, with their slaves and dependents, in killing and preserving some of the most curious sort for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe.

The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of hard American wood, communicates a shock perfectly resembling that of electricity. The insects of this country are very numerous, some of them venomous, and others destructive; but the beetles and butterflies are extremely beautiful.

C H A P. XXX.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA.

THIS island, situated between 17 and 29 min. north lat. and 63 deg. 10 min. west long. is only a mountain, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and

almost round. It is about 29 miles in circumference and is well cultivated. Besides tobacco, the inhabitants have of late years raised and exported great quantities of sugar. They also breed hogs, rabbits, goats, and most sorts of poultry. The air is wholesome, but it is subject to terrible thunder-claps, earthquakes, and hurricanes; and there is a scarcity of fresh water.

St. Eustatius is reckoned the strongest of all the Caribbee islands, there being but one landing-place which is commanded by a fort, and may be easily defended by a few men. The Dutch took possession of it in 1635; and since the treaty of Ryswick, has preserved it without interruption, till after hostilities were commenced by Great-Britain against Holland in 1781, when this island surrendered at discretion to Admiral Rodney, who was sent against it with considerable land and sea force: but on the 27th of November, the same year, it was retaken by the French, commanded by the marquis de Bouille, whose force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about three hundred men. After the capture of St. Eustatius by the English, as above mentioned, the private property of the inhabitants was confiscated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and entirely inconsistent with the humanity and generosity by which the British nation used to be characterised, even by her rival neighbours. The reason assigned for this extraordinary conduct was, that the inhabitants of the place had assisted the Americans with warlike stores during her contest with the mother country.

CURASSOU, OR CURACOA.

THIS island is situated about ten leagues from the coast of Terra Firma, in 12 deg. 14 min. north latitude. It is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. The climate is neither wholesome or agreeable, nor the soil fruitful; yet the island is populous, and the industry of the inhabitants such, that it produces a great deal of sugar and tobacco. It is well supplied with provisions, and all other commodities from Europe, and the other Dutch settlements, in which it carries on a very lucrative and extensive contraband trade with the Spaniards in Terra Firma. Let the Spanish governors prohibit this trade never so severely, the Spaniards find so much in need of European commodities, that they will run all hazards to obtain them: for these they pay in gold and silver coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jesuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable articles. In times of peace the trade of this island is said to be annually worth 500,000l. to the Dutch, but the profit is still greater in time of war, when it furnishes the contending parties with arms and ammunition to destroy each other.

so miles in circumference besides tobacco, the inhabitants raised and exported great quantities of hogs, rabbits, and poultry. The air is wholesome, and there is a scarcity

of the strongest of all winds, being but one landing-place, and may be easily defended. The Dutch took possession of the island by the treaty of Ryswick, but were expelled by the English, till after hostilities between Great-Britain and Holland were suspended at discretion, when they were sent against it with a fleet of 12 ships of the line, but on the 8th of August, it was retaken by the Spaniards, and the marquis de Castille sent only three frigates and 1000 men to retake it. After the battle of the Clouds, the English, as above, were expelled, and the property of the inhabitants was restored. The degree of rigour very uncommon in the West-Indies, and entirely uncommon in America, and generosity by which the Spaniards are characterized, even by the English, is a reason assigned for this, that the inhabitants of the West-Indies are more warlike than the Europeans of the mother country.

CURACAO.

is about ten leagues from the coast of Guayana, 12 deg. 14 min. north latitude, 60 miles in length, and is bounded on the north and west by the sea, and on the south and east by the island of Bonaire, neither wholesome or agreeable to the inhabitants such, that it produces little sugar, and tobacco. It is well watered, and all other commodities are abundant. The Dutch settlements, however, are very lucrative and extensive. The Spaniards in Terra Firma prohibit this trade, and would so much in need of it, that they will run all hazards to get it, and they pay in gold and silver, for the purchase of vanilla, jesuits bark, cochineal, and other articles. In times of peace, it is said to be annually worth 100,000 dollars, but the profit is still greater, and it furnishes the contending nations with ammunition to destroy each other.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements is originally carried on by the West-India company, and at present, such ships as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licences: the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of the trade that is carried on between Africa and the American settlements.

The chief town and harbour is about three leagues from the south-east end of the island. The town, for its size, is one of the fairest and finest in America, and contains every thing necessary to render it commodious and agreeable, as far as the climate and soil will permit.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade; which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish vessels to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights for defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Other their islands are, Bonaire, Aruba, Saba, and St. Martin's.

Bonaire and Aruba are chiefly considerable for their situation near the coast of Terra Firma, which gives the inhabitants an opportunity of carrying on a clandestine trade with the Spanish settlements in Terra Firma: they may also be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions. Saba and St. Martin's are two small islands, situated about 13 miles north-west of Eustatius, and are too inconsiderable to merit particular description. They were both captured by Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan, about the time of the surrender of Eustatius, but the French retook them afterwards.

On the south side of Bonaire is a good salt-pond, whither the Dutch sloops come for salt, which is become a considerable commodity.

CHAP. XXXI.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE Danes have very little interest in America. They have no settlement on the continent, and only two small islands lying in the Archipelago,

known by the name of the West-India islands: these are St. Thomas, and St. Croix, or Santa Cruz.

The island of St. THOMAS is situated in the 64th deg. of west long. and the 18th of north lat. It is the largest of that cluster called the Virgin Islands, being about 15 miles in circumference. It has an excellent harbour, nearly surrounded by two promontories, which defend the ships that lie within from almost every wind. In the centre of the port is a very small fortress very indifferently fortified. The soil is tolerably good, and every foot of it cultivated; the chief production being sugar, of which the annual quantity is about 3000 hogheads of 1000 weight each. The Brandenburgers have a considerable factory here; but the principal persons now belonging to it are French refugees, who fled thither when the Protestants were expelled from the French islands. The inhabitants, who are very numerous, are supplied with most of their provisions from Porto Rico.

The principal town, called St. Thomas, consists of one long street, at the end of which is the magazine, a large, magnificent, and convenient building, wherein there is room for stores, slaves, and goods of all sorts. This is the residence of the governor, who is always a man of rank, and soon acquires a large fortune, as do most of the inhabitants, owing to the extensive and various kinds of trade carried on here. The Spaniards not only purchase slaves, which the Danes bring hither from Africa, but likewise all sorts of European goods, of which there is always a considerable stock in the magazines, belonging principally to the Dutch, who carry on an extensive and advantageous commerce in the island of St. Thomas. In time of war, the trade of this island is amazingly increased; for being a neutral port, the privateers of all nations resort hither to sell their prizes, and the Dutch have always agents there, with large sums of money, ready to purchase these goods.

This island derives a peculiar advantage from its commodious harbour, mentioned above: it lies on the south side, where 50 ships may lie in safety. It is defended by a fort, whose batteries at the same time protect the small town built round the shore. This harbour is much frequented by merchant ships: when they are chased, in time of war, they find here a safe protection; and, in time of peace, a vent for their goods, by the clandestine trade which the boats of St. Thomas continually carry on with the Spanish coasts.

Two leagues to the south of St. Thomas is another island, about the same size, called St. John's. It is the best watered among the Virgins, and its harbour has not only the reputation of being better than that of St. Thomas, but passes also for the best to the leeward of Antigua. The English give it the name of "Crawl Bay." But notwithstanding these advantages there is so little good land in the island, that its planting and exportations form only a trifling object.

ST. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ, situated about five leagues to the east of St. Thomas, is between ten and twelve leagues in length, and about four in breadth. The soil is rich and fertile, yielding several kinds of fruits, and excellent timber. This island, not many years since, was a perfect desert; but the number of settlers now begin to increase apace: several persons from the English islands, and among them some of great wealth, have gone to settle there, and received very great encouragement. The air of St. Croix is extremely unhealthful; but this ill disposition will probably continue no longer than till the woods, with which the island at present is almost covered, are cut down, and the land improved by cultivation.

The Danes, when they first settled in America, were under the government of a West-India company; so that their affairs appeared with a very unpromising aspect, and nothing like the proper advantages were made of these settlements. The late king of Denmark, who was inferior in abilities to none of his ancestors, saw that there were no hopes of rendering these islands flourishing while the company continued their preposterous measures; accordingly he purchased the company's stock, and laid the trade open. The effects were soon perceived; commerce raised its head, and the colonies were soon changed from a state of torpid indolence into that of vigorous traffic; the plantations daily increased, new settlers continually arrived; and the island of St. Croix, from an almost desolate wilderness, became a cultivated garden, and the inhabitants an opulent people.

In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandise.

The Dutch and Danes, hardly deserve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their possessions there are comparatively nothing. But as they appear extremely worthy of the attention of these powers, and as the share of the Dutch is worth to them at least 600,000*l.* a year, what must we think of our extensive and valuable possessions? what attention do they not deserve from us? and what may not be made of them by that attention?

"There seems to be a remarkable providence (says an ingenious and polite writer) in casting the parts, if

I may use that expression, of the several European nations who act upon the stage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an aversion to walk in which to expatiate; a soft climate to indulge his love of ease, and a profusion of gold and silver to procure him all those luxuries his passions demand, but which his laziness would refuse him.

"The Portuguese, naturally indigent at home, and enterprising rather than industrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but possesses them in a more useful, though less ostentatious manner.

"The English, of a reasoning disposition, though cool and calm, and men of business rather than great industry, impatient of much fruitless labour, abhorrent of constraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor silver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exercise of agriculture, sufficient to furnish their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the most useful restraints, their commerce flourishes from the freedom every man has of pursuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own fashion.

"The French, active, lively, enterprising, pliable, and politic; and, though changing their pursuits, always pursuing the present object with eagerness, are, notwithstanding, tractable, and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their dispositions, and wind and turn them to proper courses. These people have a country (when Canada was in their possession) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires constant motion, flourishes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by struggling with them, and where their obedience to a wise government (meaning the excellent regulations already mentioned respecting the French colonies in America) serves them for personal wisdom. In the islands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

"The Dutch have a rock or two, on which to display the miracles of frugality and diligence (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted these virtues, and shewn those miracles."



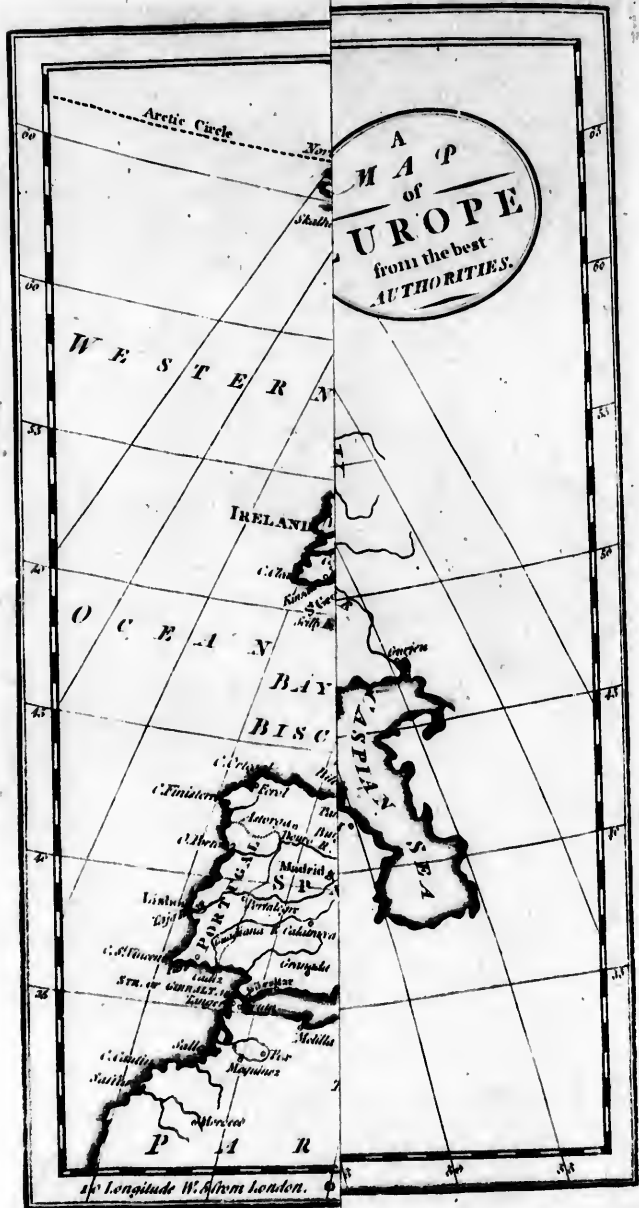
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BOOK V.
EUROPE.

INTRODUCTION.

EUROPE, though by far the smallest division of the globe, is in many respects superior to the other three, and that which particularly deserves our attention. It is situated between the 36th and 72d degree north latitude, and between the 10th degree west, and 65th degree east longitude, computed from the meridian of London; being 3000 miles in length from Cape St. Vincent in the west, to the mouth of the river Volga in the north-east; and 2500 in breadth from north to south, from the North Cape in Norway to Cape Matapan in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. 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.

This quarter of the globe, though the least extensive, is beyond comparison the most happy and valuable part of it, both with regard to religion, arts, learning, riches, and commerce. It justly claims a pre-eminence over the other parts, because the human mind hath here made the greatest progress in whatsoever is useful and ornamental to mankind in general. The mildness of the climates of most parts of Europe; the fertility of its soil, which produces every thing necessary for the support, and even luxury of human life; the flourishing state of the arts and sciences; and the nature of the several governments, which are far less despotic, and far more equitable than those of either Asia or Africa; render this the most desirable quarter of the terraqueous globe for the residence of a rational being. To these advantages we may add, that no part of it is situated within the torrid, and but a small portion within the frigid zone; and the difference of its face, or variety of its surface, by seas, rivers, mountains, &c. which are at once innumerable and beneficial, contribute largely to its superiority.

The present inhabitants of the principal states of Europe are descended from those multitudes of northern people who destroyed the Roman empire. Constantine the Great had some time before removed the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople, and this occasioned its fall. The Visigoths forced a passage into Italy, and seized Rome in the year 409, and settled in Italy, Languedoc, and Spain. The provinces of Gaul fell to the share of the Franks and Burgundians, and still retain the name of their conquerors. About the same time Hunns subdued Pannonia, and called it Hungary after their own name. The Britons, being expelled from their habitations by their foreign allies, crossed the Severn, and took refuge in the lofty mountains of Wales, the inhabitants of which principally are said to be immediately descended from the original natives of Britain, and to retain their language in its purity.

The languages of Europe are derived from six radical ones, namely, 1. Latin, of which the Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese, are dialects. 2. Teutonic, from whence proceed the German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, and English tongues. 3. Slavonian, which reigns in different dialects in Poland, Muscovy, Bohemia, and a great part of Turkey in Europe. 4. The Celtic, of which there are remaining dialects in Wales, Ireland, the Highlands of Scotland, Brittany in France, and Lapland. 5. Greek, of which several dialects are spoken in the Morea, and the islands of the Levant. 6. Gothic, some remains of which are preserved in the islands of





A
MAP
of
EUROPE
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

the Baltic, and the southern parts of Sweden. To these we may add the languages spoken in Turkey and Little Tartary as European languages.

Most of the European governments are monarchical; but many, if not all of them, are checked by a variety of little springs which break their force, and soften their rigour. But besides monarchical, there are aristocratical and republican governments in Europe. Venice is an aristocratical state, where the government is in the hands of the nobles; and Holland is a democracy, or government of the people. Great Britain is a government of a very singular kind, consisting of the three species above-mentioned, and partakes of all their benefits, while it rejects the inconveniences annexed to them. The other mixed governments of Europe, Poland, Sweden, &c. are composed of two only of the simple forms; as will be explained in their proper places.

The Christian religion is established in every part of Europe, except the districts possessed by the Tartars, where the Mahometan tenets are professed. The Christians are divided into a number of different sects, which may be comprehended under three general denominations; namely, 1. The Greek church; 2. Popery; 3. Protestantism: which last is again divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism, so called from Luther and Calvin, the two eminent reformers of the 16th century: but all their principles are founded upon the same basis, since they all acknowledge Christ to be the Redeemer of mankind, and that the scriptures were written by divine inspiration.

The following TABLE contains the principal Kingdoms and States of Europe, their Length, Breadth, Chief Cities, Distances and Bearings from London, Difference of Time from London, and their Religions.

Kingdoms.	Length	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Distance and Bearing from London.	Religions.
Greenland	Uncertain.				
Greenland	Uncertain.				
Lapland	Uncertain.				
Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540 N.	} Lutherans
Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	
Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750 N. E.	
Russia	1500	1100	Petersburgh	1140 N. E.	
Poland	700	680	Warsaw	760 E.	
King of Prussia's Dominions	Uncertain, from the continual fluctuation in the affairs of the different monarchs.		Berlin	540 E.	Lutherans & Calvinists
Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	} Papists, Luth. & Calvinists
Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	
Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	180 E.	Calvinists
Flanders	200	200	Brussels	180 S. E.	} Papists
France	600	500	Paris	200 S. E.	
Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	
Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	850 S. W.	} Calvinists and Papists
Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420 S. E.	
Papedom, or Ecclesiastical State	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	} Papists
Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	
Piedmont	140	98	Turin	
Montferrat	40	22	Casal	
Milan	155	70	Milan	
Parma	48	37	Parma	
Modena	65	39	Modena	
Mantua	47	27	Mantua	
Venice	175	95	Venice	
Genoa	160	85	Genoa	
Tuscany	115	94	Florence	
Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	} Mahometans and Greek Church.
Danubian Provinces	600	420	Constantinople	1320 S. E.	
Little Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500 F.	
Greece	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	

Including the general Names of

Italy.

Turkey in Europe

EUROPE contains the following principal ISLANDS, exclusive of the British before mentioned.

Islands.	Chief Towns.	Subject to
the Northern Ocean .. Iceland	Skalholt.....	Denmark.
{ Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femenen, Mona, Bornholm..... }	Ditto.
Baltic Sea..... { Gothland, Aland, Rugen	Sweden.
{ Ofel, Dagho	Russia.
{ Ufedom, Wollin	Prussia.
{ Ivica	Ivica	Spain.
{ Majorca	Majorca	Ditto.
{ Minorca	Port Mahon	Ditto.
{ Corfica	Bastia	France.
{ Sardinia	Cagliari	King of Sardinia.
{ Sicily	Palermo	King of Two Sicilies.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice. Lufiana, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia.	Venice.
Archipelago, and Levant Seas..... { Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece .. }	Turkey.

We judge it expedient to begin our description of EUROPE with an account of the dominions belonging to his Danish majesty, being the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1. East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2. Norway; 3. Denmark proper; and 4. The Danish territories in Germany. The following TABLE will exhibit, at one view, the dimensions of these countries:

The Dimensions of the Danish Dominions.

Denmark.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	
Denmark proper. { North Jutland ..	9,600	155	98	Wyburg.	
{ South Jutland, or Sleswick, }	2,115	70	63	Sleswick.	
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea.	Zealand.....	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN, { N. Lat. 55—41. E. Long. 12—50.
	Funen.....	768	38	32	Odenfec.
	Falster and Langland..	220	27	12	{ Nikoping. Naxkaw.
	Femenen.....	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alsen.....	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona.....	39	14	5	Stege.
	Bornholm.....	160	20	12	Rostcomby.
	Iceland Island..	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
	Norway.....	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Danish Lapland.....	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.
Westphalia, Oldenburg....	1,260	62	32	Oldenburg.	
Lower Saxony, Stormar.....	1,000	52	32	Gluckstadt.	
Danish Holstein.					
Total	163,001				

C H A P. I.

WEST GREENLAND.

Description of the Country, Climate, Soil, Vegetable and Animal Productions, &c.

WEST GREENLAND, otherwise called Old-Greenland, or Greenland, begins in 59 deg. 50 min. north lat. The eastern coast is supposed to extend as far northward as Spitzbergen, or East Greenland; and the western part is only separated by a channel of 40 miles in breadth. The western shore has been discovered higher than the 70th deg. of north lat. The country is exceeding mountainous; and the mountains are so very high that they may be discerned at sea at the distance of 30 leagues. The inland mountains and hills are perpetually covered with snow; but the low lands on the sea side are, in summer, clothed with verdure. The coast is difficult of access, on account of the great number of rocks with which the surrounding seas, and the mouths of the Greenland rivers, abound, independent of the vast mountains of floating ice which seem to threaten with destruction the adventurous navigator.

The climate, from the most southerly part of Greenland to the 68th deg. of north lat. is not so severe as might at first be imagined. The summer includes the latter end of May, the whole of June, July, and August, and half the month of September; during which the weather is generally warm: while the wind blows easterly the sky is always serene, but when it veers to the other points, storms are sure to ensue. The sea coast is generally infested with unhealthy and disagreeable fogs, which are, however, so fattening to the land, that the shores are covered with verdure; but the inland mountains are capped with snow perpetually.

The weather, to the northward of the 68th deg. is much more severe, and the cold so very intense, that even in the midst of summer the very strongest spirituous liquors will freeze close to the fire side. The winter in this part continues from September to May, and sometimes June, during which time the sea is covered with vast mountains of ice. "Nothing (says an eminent writer) can exhibit a more dreadful, and, at the same time, a more dazzling appearance than those prodigious masses of ice that surround the whole coast in different forms of rocks, castles, towers, and spires, reflecting a variety of colours according to the nature of the concrete, and floating from place to place, as if the whole scene was illusion, or enchantment; such are the prospects they yield in calm weather, but when the winds begin to blow, and the sea to swell in vast successive billows, the conflict of those congregated bodies of ice encountering, dashing,

cracking, bursting, and shivering into ten thousand fragments, fills the eye and ear with terror and astonishment.

Thunder and lightning seldom disturb the natural phenomena, such as shooting stars, and particular the aurora borealis, or northern-light. In the spring of the year, and about the new moon, this phenomenon appears so universally bright on the face of the whole northern sky, darting in rays and glaring with such radiance, as to afford sufficient light whereby to read

There is no night at the summer solstice, and people who reside here have the pleasure to see the sun above about the horizon all the twenty-four hours: but the depth of winter they have but little comfort in that planet, the nights being proportionably long; they can see to travel up and down the country, though sometimes it is neither moon-shine or star-light. The temperature of the air is not unwholesome; for, except the scurvy, and the distemper of the lungs, the inhabitants know nothing of many other diseases which other countries are plagued; and these peculiar infirmities are not so much the effect of the excessive cold, as of the foggy weather, to which this country is very much subject. From the beginning of April to the end of July is the foggy season; and from that time the fog daily decreases. But as in the summer time they are troubled with fogs, so in the winter season they are plagued with the vapour called frost-smoke, which, when the cold is excessive, rises out of the sea, as the smoke out of a chimney, and is as thick as the grossest mist, especially in bays, where it opening in the ice is found.

A wonderful harmony and correspondence is observed in Greenland between fountains and the sea: at spring tides in new and full moon, when the strongest ebbing is at sea, the hidden fountains and springs of fresh water break out on the shore, and discover themselves often in places where they might be little expected, especially in winter, when the ground is covered with ice and snow; yet there are no water springs in those places at other times.

In Greenland the hills are barren, and indeed frozen all the year; the low lands are tolerably fertile, particularly towards the sea. A few oak trees are found in the southern parts near the States Promontory. In these particular parts the meadows are rich in grass: turnips and coleworts are easily raised, and excellently flavoured: underwood, which grows to a vast height, is plentiful: birch, elm, and willows are not scarce, and juniper-berries grow in abundance. The herb angelica grows wild, and is found in great profusion: it is endued with a turpentine flavour, and yields an aromatic oil, which is extracted by distillation.

A pleasant and salutary kind of scurvy-grass grows in great plenty on the shores, and the mountains near

bays and creeks a species of grass bears several, and many of them, abound in this country, are bramble-berries, and juniper-berries. Here it is said relative to the southern part of the northern parts no herbs various metals are toward of the Dutch Egele once received Greenland, and himself. He likewise saw a land mixed with copper company, which is as much as what he did not, however, ever after able to find specimens in the midst among a great number he had set up that he could not

Red and white rock woolly; and a bastard very plentiful about known by the name natives make bow the seas and bays, believe great quantities of the greatest natural curiosities, or amianthus, of earth-flax, a general substance, elements. It is a stone differing from is neither so bright is not composed elements, like flax. formed into paper, and not to be are flexible. The cloth; the latter in manufacture appears, which, according to the dead in cloth their ashes separate of use to which some kind of cloth. This country is animal, the great wher, very seldom appear the quadrupedes of rein-deer. The speckled; and the peculiarity belongs

days and creeks are covered with wild thyme. Various species of grass bearing yellow flowers, the herb
ment, and many other plants, herbs, and vege-
ables, abound in this country. The fruits of Green-
land are bramble-berries, bil-berries, blue-berries, and
raspberries. Here it is to be observed, when any
thing is said relative to the fertility of Greenland,
that the southern parts are only meant, for in the
northern parts no herbs and plants will grow.

Various metals are produced in Greenland: to the
northward of the Dutch colony copper ore is found.
Egede once received a lump of ore from a
Greenlander, and himself found calamine of a yellow
colour. He likewise sent a considerable quantity of
yellow sand mixed with vermilion streaks to the
Dutch company, who, by letter, requested him to
secure as much as possible of that commodity; he
could not, however, execute his commission, as he
was never after able to find the place where he got
his first specimen: it was, it seems, one of the
islands among a great cluster of islands, and the
spot he had set up was blown down by a storm,
so that he could not trace out the spot a second
time.

Red and white rock crystals are the produce of this
country; and a bastard marble, of various colours,
is very plentiful about the Danish colony, which
is known by the name of Good Hope; of the latter
the natives make bowls, lamps, pots, and crucibles.
On the seas and bays, besides a variety of beautiful shells,
are found great quantities of excellent coral. But one of
the greatest natural curiosities of this country is the
earth-flax, or amianthus, which has the vulgar appella-
tion of earth-flax, and is a fibrous, flexible, and
general substance, composed of short and abrupt
filaments. It is a stony concrete, of the talcky kind,
though differing from talc in its external appearance.
It is neither so bright, so smooth, or so unctuous,
nor is not composed of leaves or plates, but of long
filaments, like flax. It has been spun into cloth,
and formed into paper, both of an incombustible
nature, and not to be consumed by fire. Some kinds
of filaments that are rigid and brittle, and others
are flexible. The first cannot be spun, or formed
into cloth; the latter may, but not without difficulty.
This manufacture appears to have been known to the
Ancients, who, according to Pliny, wrapped the bodies
of the dead in cloth made of earth-flax, to preserve
their ashes separate from those of the funeral pile,
use to which some of the Tartarian chiefs still apply
this kind of cloth.

This country is not infested with any ravenous
animal, the great white bear excepted, which, how-
ever, very seldom appears near the Danish colony.
The quadrupedes of Greenland are dogs, foxes, hares,
and rein-deer. The dogs are large and rough, white
speckled; and their ears stand upright, which is
peculiarly belonging to curs in general in all cold

climates. These dogs are timorous and stupid, do not
bark, but make a most dismal howling at times. In
the northern parts they are rendered of infinite ser-
vice, as the natives there yoke them to sledges, which,
when heavy laden, they are able to draw upon the
ice at the rate of seventy miles a day. These poor
useful animals are, however, very ill rewarded for
their services, being left to provide for themselves,
except when their owners happen to be successful in
taking a great number of seals, at which times their
masters gratify them with a meal, composed of the
entrails and blood. The foxes appear of different
colours, white, grey, and blueish. They are neither
so hairy, or so large, as those of Denmark and Nor-
way. Hares are found in Greenland in great abun-
dant; they are of a white colour, very fat in sum-
mer, and of an exquisite flavour. Rein-deer feed in
great herds, and are hunted all the summer by the
natives, who are usually accompanied by their wives
and children in these excursions, and in pursuit of
their game will penetrate very far into the country.

Lizards, serpents, toads, newts, &c. are unknown
in Greenland; but gnats swarm, and are exceedingly
troublesome in the summer time.

Here are vast numbers of partridges, which are
white in winter, and grey in summer; as well
as sparrows, linnets, snow-birds, and ice-birds. A
great many ravens hover about the huts of the
Greenlanders, as, near the habitations of these people,
the ground is usually strewed with the offals of seals,
and other fish. Greenland likewise abounds with
eagles and falcons of a prodigious size, and large
speckled owls.

Bees, wasps, spiders, and flies, are the insects of
this country. The people, however, are not plagued
with beetles, ants, mice, or rats.

The inhabitants are fond of the seal, which con-
tributes at once to their sustenance and convenience.
There is some difference in seals, but the most re-
markable species is that called the Cap-miss, which
appellation it receives from the cap, or cawl, with
which it covers its head occasionally. The head itself
resembles that of a dog with cropped ears, his snout is
bearded like a cat, his eyes are large, and his teeth
sharp. His skin is covered with a short thick fur,
which is white, black, brown, or tawny: he is web-
footed, which is a great convenience to him in swim-
ming; and he seems to drag himself along, rather
than walk. Seals are from five to eight feet in length.
The fat of this creature furnishes the Greenlanders
with oil, the flesh with food, the skin with clothing,
and with coverings for their huts and boats.

The Greenland seas abound also with turbot, cod,
haddock, scate, salmon, halibut, cat-fish, roe-fish,
flents, whittings, bream, muscles, crabs, shrimps, and
other fish. Under the article of East or New Green-
land, that astonishing creature the whale will be
amply described from some late minute observations.

The

south part of the island, another house, which he called Stelburg, that is, Starburg; there he kept several instruments, and lodged some students and servants, who applied themselves to some particular study. But Uraniburg is now gone to decay; and the island of Huen belongs now to the Swedes.

The chair in which Tycho Brahe used to sit, to make his astronomical observations, is still preserved in the royal museum, and held, by the Danes, in the highest veneration. "Thus," says a judicious traveller, in a letter to a friend, "it ever happens! I need not remind you that the astronomer himself was driven from his native country by faction and malevolence; or that he died at Prague, in the court, and under the protection, of the emperor Rodolphus, who sheltered this illustrious fugitive, and afforded him an asylum."

Fredericksburg is a small town, twenty miles distant from Copenhagen to the north-west, and eighteen from Ellineur to the south-west. It is considerable only by the stately castle and royal palace which stands near it. That castle was formerly but a small seat belonging to a private gentleman. King Frederick II. being charmed with its situation, bought it of him, and began to enlarge it. His son, Christian IV. finished it. This is the Versailles of Denmark. The house is built on piles in a lake. The body of the castle consists of a very fair front, with two great wings. The chapel is well adorned, and covered with gilt copper. It has twelve silver statues of the apostles; and all the locks, bolts, &c. were silver, till it was plundered by the Swedes. The hall is adorned with paintings, and has the pictures of several of the kings of Denmark, and of the royal family, as large as the life; and a frame of paintings, which represent the sea and land battles of the kings of Denmark. It is hung with rich tapestry of mohair, representing the actions and battles of Christian IV. There is a gallery which leads from the castle to the hall of audience, adorned with pictures, most of which were bought in Italy. Here is a park about nine miles long, of a proportionable breadth, and interspersed with pools and fish ponds, with a mixture of green plods, hillocks, and small vallies. It was stocked with fallow-deer from England. There is a pretty flower garden behind the castle, in the very lake; in which, though it is exceeding deep, they have built a kind of terrace on piles that cost an hundred thousand crowns.

The town of Roschild, or Roskild, lies at the bottom of the bay of Iseford, and is eighteen miles distant from Copenhagen to the west. It was formerly the capital of Denmark, when the king resided there; but since they have chosen Copenhagen for their residence, it has dwindled greatly in point of importance, and is much decayed with respect to wealth and commerce. Of twenty-seven churches, which formerly embellished this town, only two are now standing. It continues,

Among the monuments of the Danish sovereigns, of which are extremely magnificent, stands a beautiful marble pillar, erected by queen Margaret, as a monument to the whetstone sent her by Albert, king of Sweden, who sharpened her needles, in derision to her sex. But it testified her resentment in such a manner, that he suffered severely for his sarcasm; for he was taken prisoner by the queen, detained seven years in custody, and obliged to relinquish all his pretensions to the crown of Sweden.

Here is a convent of Lutheran nuns belonging to the best families; but they are not obliged to wear any particular habit, or to be restricted by the vows common in convents; but are permitted, if they think proper, to quit the convent, and marry. In 1658 the famous treaty of peace was here concluded between Denmark and Sweden. The university is in a declining condition; and, indeed, the whole town exhibits evident marks of poverty and decay.

Sora is situated on the banks of a lake, about the centre of Zealand, was formerly the seat of a bishopric, and has many pleasant fields and forests near it. To this place the academy of Fredericksburg was removed, and the foundations of the university were augmented by Christian IV. Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, was educated here, and retained such a veneration for the place, that when he invaded Zealand, he would not suffer his soldiers to enter the town. But the revenues of this seminary have been annexed to the crown of Denmark, and the whole is gone to decay. Absalom, archbishop of Lund, once founded here an establishment for the maintenance of the poor who should write the history of Denmark; and to this foundation we owe the history written by the celebrated Saxo Grammaticus.

FUNEN is the next island to that of Zealand, in point of scale of importance, among the several parts which form the Danish kingdom. It is bounded by the Greater Belt on the east, by the Lesser Belt on the west, by the Baltic on the south, and by a little channel, which separates it from the island of Samsey, to the north. It is about 36 miles from east to west, and 30 from north to south. The country is fertile and agreeable, being finely diversified with verdant hills, shady woods, pleasant groves, fruitful fields, rich pastures, &c. The soil is good, well cultivated, and affords a great deal of grain; not only for home consumption, but exportation. Great quantities of black cattle, horses, hogs, &c. are bred here. This island is an appendage to the eldest sons of the kings of Denmark; and is deemed one of the richest governments belonging to that sovereignty. It contains five fortified towns, and 264 villages; but the most considerable places, and the only ones of any consequence, are

Odense, the capital, and is a capital of the kings once met before the sovereign absolute dedicated to St. Car near a century a copper coffin. The most beer in the wks On the narrower women and Zealand some trade, the h country is fertile. nations in the law thoroughly repaired. land are made at Schwenborg is an harbour, situated. From hence 1658, began his march, Zealand, the small town a little gulf on against the island distant from Schwed In the duchy of this island, over is about 11 miles the year 1535 it was founded by John R Christopher, earl of Moll, archbishop of this town On the western the Lesser Belt, it is 17 miles distant as many from it is a small, but with all the necessity of this place, it is not being by the island. On Gustavus, king of Denmark, king of this place, he died him, and the island of Funen.

FALSTER lies which it is separated as Zealand on the north-east. breadth. Its foundation from hence

the Danish sovereigns, magnificent, stands a beautiful tower, erected by King Albert, king of Sweden, in her sex. But it was taken prisoner by the Danes, and obliged the crown to pay a ransom of 100,000 rix-dollars. In 1658 the town was taken prisoner by the Danes, and obliged the crown to pay a ransom of 100,000 rix-dollars. In 1658 the town was taken prisoner by the Danes, and obliged the crown to pay a ransom of 100,000 rix-dollars.

Odensee, the capital of the island, stands about its centre, and is a capacious, well-built, pleasant town. Here the kings once resided, and the assembly of the estates met before the crown became hereditary, and the sovereign absolute. In a church here, which is dedicated to St. Canute, the body of that prince was deposited near a century and a half ago. It was deposited in a copper coffin, gilt, and adorned with precious stones. The most particular circumstance relative to this town, at present, is, that the inhabitants brew the beer in the whole kingdom.

On the narrower part of the Greater Belt, between Funen and Zealand, lies Nyburg. This place has a good trade, the harbour is good, and the adjacent country is fertile. The damages done to the fortifications in the late wars with Sweden, are not yet thoroughly repaired. Embarkations for the island of Zealand are made at this town.

Schwenborg is an agreeable town, with a commodious harbour, situate on the south-east part of the island. From hence Charles Gustavus, in the year 1658, began his march, over the ice, to the islands of Langeland, Zealand, and Falster.

The small town of Woburg, or Foburg, is situate on a little gulf on the southern coast of Funen, over against the island of Arros, and is about 10 miles distant from Schwenborg to the west.

In the duchy of Sleswick, on the south-west coast of this island, over-against Hadersleben, lies Affens. It is about 11 miles distant from Odensee to the south.

In the year 1535 the army of king Christian III. commanded by John Rantzaw, routed that commanded by the bishop, and killed Gustavus Troll, archbishop of Upsal. Rantzaw afterwards settled this town with the ground.

On the western shore of the island, lies Middlefar, in the Lesser Belt, hence also called Middlefar-Sound. It is 17 miles distant from Affens to the north-west, and as many from Odensee towards the south-west.

It is a small, but neat town, in a country abounding with all the necessaries of life. It is the common passage from this island to Colding in Jutland; the Belt not being broader here than the Thames is at Gravesend. On the 13th of January 1658, Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, led his army over the ice to this place, routed the Danish forces that opposed him, and made himself master of the whole island of Funen.

FALSTER lies to the north-east of Laland, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. This island lies Zealand on the north, and the island of Moon on the north-east. It is 20 miles in length, and eight in breadth. Its soil is very fruitful; and much corn is sent from hence to Mecklenburg, and other parts of Germany. It is divided into two bailiwicks; that of

or Norre-Herrit. It has several towns; among which the chief are Nyccoping, on the western coast of the island, of which it is the capital. It is one of the most pleasant and well-built towns in the whole kingdom, and styled, by Dr. Heylin, the Naples of Denmark. It has a strong castle, and a well frequented harbour. Stubcoping, in Latin, Stubcopia, seated on the north coast, is a place of some trade, being the usual passage from Zealand into Germany.

ARROE is situated near the coast of Funen, being eight miles in length, and two in breadth. It is extremely fruitful in corn, and abounds in aniseed, with which the inhabitants give a flavour to their bread, and season their meat. In this island are plenty of horses and black cattle; and some woods, in which are abundance of hares. The whole island has but three parishes, the most considerable of which is Kopin, or Kioping. The town belonging to it stands on the southernmost part of the island, and bears the same name as the parish. It has a trade on account of its port, and is situated at the bottom of the bay.

LALAND is situated on the eastward of Langeland, and to the southward of Zealand, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called Grono Sound. From its lowness, or flatness, it has the appellation of Laland, or Lowland. It is near 40 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth, where widest. The soil is very fertile; so that Copenhagen is supplied from hence with great quantities of corn, besides what the Dutch traders are furnished with for exportation. This island is divided into five districts, or bailiwicks, the seat of a governor, and has several small islands subject to its jurisdiction. It contains various pleasant little villages and hamlets, and a few seats belonging to the noblesse, exclusive of four towns, Nascow, Saxcoping, Levenscoping, and Nysted.

Nascow, or Naxkow, the capital, is 59 miles south-west from Copenhagen, and has a commodious harbour for trade. The fishery is of some consequence, and the circumjacent country is rich in meadow and pasture lands.

MOON lies to the south-east of Zealand, and to the north-east of Falster. It is about 20 miles long, eight broad, and full of high chalky hills. Here is some pasture ground, but very little corn land. It was formerly part of the Danish admiral's allowance, as being the first place for him to reside in. There are in this island several villages, large parishes, and a considerable city, called Stege, or Stekoe, which lies on the north of the island, on a little rivulet, that

Lubeckers in the year 1510, and forced them to retreat; and the valour of the inhabitants of the whole island was signalized in 1659, when they defended themselves better against the Swedes than the larger islands had done.

LANGELAND is 22 miles long, and eight broad, is situated on the Greater Belt, to the southward of Funen. This island abounds with wheat, rye, and barley, of which the natives export great quantities. It is divided into 16 parishes; and Ruteoping, on its western coast, is the most considerable town, being defended by the fort of Tranekar, which is always furnished with a strong garrison.

FEMEREN lies near the coast of Holstein, from whence it is separated by a streight which is not above two miles broad, and is called Der Femmer Sundt, i. e. the Straights of Femeren. Though it is but a small spot of ground, yet it has always been looked upon as one of the keys of Denmark, with regard to the empire. Therefore king Christian IV. was more afraid of the Germans becoming masters of this island, than of their over-running Jutland, which caused him to fortify all the old castles, and put strong garrisons in every place of importance here. This island is extremely fruitful in corn and pastures, and yet has but two parishes, namely, Borg and Petersdorp. There is a fort at the place where people land from Holstein, called Fethschans, that is, the Fort of the Passage.

BORNHOLM, anciently called Boringia, is said to have been discovered by Thieloraus, the son of a prince of Jutland. It is the remotest and most easterly of all the islands belonging to the king of Denmark, being about 75 miles distant from Zealand to the east, and not above 15 from the nearest coast of Schonen to the south-east. It is about 18 miles long, from north-west to south-east; and about 10 in breadth, from south-west to north-east. Bornholm is a place of great importance for its situation and fruitfulness, and belonging once to the archbishop of Lunden; but king Christian II. took possession of it in the year 1524, as being absolutely necessary for the fleet he was preparing against Sweden; which usurpation George Sesteburg, who was then archbishop, opposed with all his power, but in vain; for he was forced afterwards to fly into Germany, to avoid the effects of the king's displeasure. The Swedes have frequently laid this island waste; and in the war with Frederick II. they made themselves masters of it.

May 27th, 1660. The most considerable places Sandwyck, on the northern coast; Ratenby, on the south-western; Nex, on the eastern; and Sand-Hans, to the north of Nex, on the same coast; besides which here are several villages.

Many little islands surround the above-mentioned more considerable ones; but they are either uninhabited, or of so little importance, as not to be thought worthy of notice by travellers; or of mention by geographers. Some others are contiguous to them, and belong to the other provinces of Denmark; the most considerable of which are Samsoe and Lessaw, on the coast of Jutland.

SAMSOR, or **SAMSOI**, is in the Baltic, eight miles from the coast of Jutland. It is near nine miles in length, three in breadth, fruitful, healthy, and pleasant.

LESSAW belongs to the diocese of Aabur, opposite to which it lies, at about the distance of 12 miles from the shore. It is surrounded by sand-hills, but has two places where ships may ride safely at anchor on the north and east sides, and contains three fine villages.

Appertaining and contiguous to the duchy of Sleeswick, are the following islands, viz.

1. **ROM**, which is in length seven, and in breadth four miles, contains several small hamlets, and about 1500 inhabitants. Towards the eastern parts the pasture for cattle is excellent; and on the western side of the island are several harbours, in which small vessels may ride in safety.

The greatest part of Manoe, formerly a considerable island, has been swallowed up by the sea.

2. **SYLT**, situated to the northward of Fora, and is of a triangular form, the longest side being about 14 miles in length. It is sandy, barren, and inhospitable; and the people, who are a hardy, clownish race, are annually engaged in the whale fisheries, on the coasts of Iceland, Greenland, and Spitzbergen. Earthen urns, containing human bones, ashes, &c. have been found in the hills of this island, which further evinces that the ancient inhabitants burned their dead.

3. **NORTHSTRAND** lies opposite to the bailwick and town of Hufum, and was, it is said, separated from the continent by a violent storm. When it became an island it was about 12 miles long, and four broad, in some places, and in others less. Its soil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the inundations we shall mention hereafter. It had also very fat pastures, where they fed exceeding good cattle; and they used to send daily to Hufum, and other places, a prodigious number of sheep, which

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fatal inundations. In the year 1300 the little city
Rangholt, with several churches and villages, were
carried away by the waves, which drowned also great
numbers of people, as well as cattle.

In 1539 there arose such a violent storm here, that
small the whole island was overflowed; when 1600,
according to others, 1900 persons perished in the
water. The next year another storm damaged the
islands very much. From 1612 to 1618, there hap-
pened every year such inundations, as occasioned pro-
digious losses, and put the inhabitants to very great
trouble; and particularly in 1615, when 300 persons
perished in the waves. They were afterwards free for
some years, and had time to repair their banks and
dykes; but all their care and precautions proved in-
effectual against the storm that happened October the
10th, 1634. At ten of the clock at night the whole
island lay under water, above 6000 persons were
drowned; and, of all the inhabitants, there were
scarcely 1500 that saved their lives. The churches,
which stood on the rising grounds, held out the storm
some time, but fell down afterwards; and 28 windmills
were carried away by the waves. The loss of cattle
at all parts was reckoned to amount to 50,000 heads;
and the dykes were broke in 44 different places. The
whole island continued thus overflowed, except a small
spot of ground which stood high, than the rest. Since
that time the inhabitants have laboured, with the
assistance of some Dutchmen, to regain part of the
ground they had lost.

4. AMRON, or Amroen, is a small island to the north-
west of Northstrand, from which it is about seven
miles distant. It is in the form of a crescent, and is
highly considerable for its oyster fishery.

5. FORA, or Foehr, lies towards the north-east of
Amron, and nearer the coast of Sleswick, than of
Northstrand and Sylt. It belongs to the prefectorship
of Tunder, and is of an oval figure, about six miles
in length, and four in breadth. It abounds in cattle
and corn, has about 4200 inhabitants, and several
villages. The inhabitants still preserve the language,
manners, and dress of the ancient Frisones, though
some of them speak the dialect of Lower Saxony.

Denmark is extremely well situated for commerce;
her harbours are well calculated for the reception
of ships of all burthens, and her mariners are very
expert in the navigation of the different parts of the
ocean. The dominions of his Danish majesty furnish
a great variety of timber, and other materials for
ship-building; and there are many productions for
exportation in some of his provinces. Besides fir, and
other timber, here are black cattle, horses, butter,
black-fish, tallow, hides, furs, train-oil, tar, pitch,
and iron, which being the natural product of the

portation of oats is prohibited. Salt, wine, brandy,
and silk from France, Portugal, and Italy, are the
imports. The Danes have lately had a great inter-
course with England, from whence they import
broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet and lock-work, hard-
ware, &c.

But the commercial spirit of the Danes appears in
a very favourable light, when we consider their settle-
ments in the East and West-Indies. A company for
carrying on the former was established at Copen-
hagen in the year 1612, under the protection of Chris-
tian IV. About four years after the establishment,
four large ships sailed for the East-Indies; and the
Danes made a settlement at Tranquebar on the coast
of Coromandel. Here they built a fort, which is
reckoned the strongest in the Indies. This colony
soon increased from the encouragement given by the
Danes to the Indians, who, finding themselves pro-
tected in their privileges, and permitted to carry on
their trade without oppression, resorted to Tranquebar
in such numbers, that the commerce soon became
very valuable, and the company received a yearly
tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. But not content with
this increasing establishment, the Danes attempted,
in the year 1620, to make a settlement on the island
of Ceylon, in order to acquire the spice-trade, then
monopolized by the Portuguese.—This scheme, how-
ever, failed in the attempt, and the Danes having em-
broiled themselves with the Indian princes on the con-
tinent, their settlement at Tranquebar must have been
taken by the rajah of Tanjour, had not Mr. Pitt, an
English East-India governor, generously sent them
assistance.

After the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, when
the wars in Europe were ended, the Danish East-
India company found themselves so much in debt,
that they published proposals for a new subscription
for enlarging their ancient capital stock, and for fitting
out ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. The
capital was considerably enlarged for these purposes by
a spirited subscription, which alarmed France and the
maritime powers. The Dutch raised a process against
the projects of Van Asperin, who, being a subject of
the States, was condemned and executed in effigy.
Every objection that could be started against the ac-
complishing of the scheme, was published in the
newspapers of Paris, London, and Amsterdam, with
a view to discourage people from engaging in the
commerce. The ministers of Great-Britain and Hol-
land, who resided at the court of Denmark, were
ordered to make remonstrances to his Danish majesty
against this new charter, which they apprehended
would interfere with the East-India trade of their
subjects. The king prudently answered, that he was
not restricted by any treaty whatever from supporting

attention to violate. After great difficulties the company was established, their commerce extended, and they now carry on an advantageous trade to China, and the coast of Coromandel. Their credit is extensive; their funds are considerable; their warehouses, magazines, yards, and docks in complete order; and they send annually two or three ships richly laden to the East-Indies.

Besides the trade to the East-Indies, the Danes have extended their commerce to the West-Indies, where they possess the islands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the small island of St. John, which are free ports, and celebrated for smuggling; also the fort of Christianburg on the coast of Guinea, and to Greenland. Within a short period of time, the Danish merchants have opened new channels of trade, particularly with the Mediterranean; the number of ships has been doubled, and the revenues of the kingdom increased in proportion.

Denmark is not famous for its antiquities, if we except the royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a very numerous collection of them. Besides artificial skeletons, curious carving in ivory, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony made by a Dutch artist who was blind, here are a great variety of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments, which are placed in the round-tower at Copenhagen, so contrived that a coach may drive to its top: a set of medals ancient and modern; and two famous antique drinking vessels, one of gold, and the other of silver, and both in the form of a hunting horn. That of gold seems to be of Pagan manufacture, and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, it was probably made use of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocese of Rippen, in the year 1739. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed Cornu Oldenburzicium; which, they say, was presented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. Some, however, are of opinion that this vessel was made by order of Christian I. king of Denmark, the first of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. See before, p. 480.

The constitution of Denmark was heretofore of the free Gothic original. The convention of the states, even including the representatives of the boors or peasants, elected a king for his personal virtues, having a due regard to the son of their late monarch, whom, however, they made no scruple of setting aside, if they deemed him unworthy of the royal dignity. They enacted laws, conferred the great offices of state, debated all affairs relative to commerce, peace, war, and alliances; and occasionally gave their consent to the imposition of necessary taxes. The king

tially; to command the army in time of war; to encourage industry, religion, arts and sciences, and watch over the interests of his subjects. He had public revenue from the state, but lived like a private nobleman from the produce of his own lands and demesnes. Such was the constitution of Denmark till the year 1660, when it underwent a very extraordinary revolution.

At the conclusion of the peace with Sweden, the nation resounded with the clamour of misery and discontent. There was nothing left in the public treasury to pay off and disband the army, which therefore became insolent and licentious. The common people and even the burghers, were exhausted by the expensive war: the clergy were unsatisfied with the condition and want of importance, and the nobles were become proud and tyrannical. When the estates assembled to deliberate and redress the grievances of the nation, the commons proposed that an equal tax should be laid upon all persons without distinction in proportion to their circumstances. The nobles pleaded their privilege of being exempted from imposition. The burghers alleged, that as the nobility engrossed all the lands and riches in the kingdom, it was reasonable they should bear their share of the common burthen; in consequence of this, violent disputes ensued. At length a nobleman, named Olof Craeg, stood up, and in a transport of passion told the commons, that they neither understood the privileges of the nobility, who were always exempted from such impositions, nor the condition of themselves, who were no other than their slaves. This inglorious language produced an immediate ferment in the assembly, and the hall resounded with murmurs and altercation. Nansen, speaker of the commons, starting up in a rage of indignation, swore that the nobility should repent their having branded the commons with such an opprobrious epithet. He had previously concerted the design with the bishop of Copenhagen, and the court was not ignorant of their intention. The clergy and burghers breaking up in disorder, marched under the auspices of these leaders to Brewer's-Hall, where after much debate, they agreed to make a solemn tender of their freedom and services to the king, that he might become absolute monarch of the realm, and see the right of hereditary succession established in his family. Next morning they marched in couples, each burgher being paired with a clergyman, through the streets, which were filled with the populace, who shouted as they passed to the council-hall, where the nobles had re-assembled. There Nansen, in a loud harangue, signified the intention of the clergy and commons, demanded the concurrence of the nobles, and threatened that, in case of a refusal, they would forthwith proceed without them to the palace. The

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consequence might not be precipitated. The others,
being deaf to their remonstrances and entreaties, con-
tinued their procession to the palace, where they were
met by the prime minister, who conducted them to
the hall of audience. There the bishop of Copen-
hagen, in a florid speech, as deputy from the two
provinces, made a solemn tender to the king of an ab-
solute and hereditary dominion; assuring his majesty,
that he might command their purses and arms, to
support a measure so necessary to the welfare of his
people. He received them graciously, assented to the
proposal, thanked them for their zeal and confidence,
and assured them they might depend upon his royal
favour and protection. The city gates were imme-
diately shut, that none of the senators should escape,
as a precaution by which the nobles were so greatly
intimidated, that they immediately signified their
readiness to concur with the step which the other
two orders had taken. Preparations were forthwith
made for this strange inauguration. Scaffolds were
erected in the open space before the castle, and the
knights and burghers received orders to appear in arms,
under their respective officers. On the sixteenth day
of October, in the year 1660, the king, queen, and
royal family, ascended an open theatre, and placing
themselves on chairs of state, under canopies of velvet,
received in public the homage of all the senators,
nobility, clergy, and commons, couched in an oath
of allegiance composed for the purpose. Thus the
king, with a rash and desperate hand, from motives
of revenge, fomented by an artful ministry and am-
bitious clergy, resigned their liberty and independence,
and invested their sovereign with a despotic power
over their lives and fortunes.

Soon after this extraordinary revolution took place,
the king of Denmark divested the nobility of many of
the privileges which they had before enjoyed; though he
took no method to relieve or reward those poor people
by whose means he was invested with the sovereign
power, but left them in the same state of slavery in
which they were before, and in which they have re-
mained to the present age.

When the revolution in the reign of Frederic III.
had been effected, the king re-united in his person
the rights of the sovereign power; but as he could not
exercise all by himself, he was obliged to intrust some
part of the executive power to his subjects. The su-
preme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Den-
mark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at
Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal presi-
dent. The German provinces have likewise their su-
preme tribunal; which for the duchy of Holstein is
holden at Glückstadt, and for the duchy of Sleswick
in the town of Sleswick.

The king for the most part decides matters of im-

authority; here likewise great changes or establish-
ments are proposed, and approved or rejected by the
king; and in the council, or in the cabinet, he grants
privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws,
their extension, or their restriction, and upon the most
important affairs of the kingdom, according to his
sovereign will and pleasure.

The kings of Denmark not only preside nominally
in the sovereign court of justice, but they have a
throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers al-
ways address their discourses in pleading, and the
judges the same in giving their opinion. The king is
present every year at the opening of this court, and
often gives the judges such instructions as he thinks
proper. The decision of those judges is final in all
civil actions; but no criminal sentence of a capital
nature can be carried into execution till it is signed by
the king. There are three courts in Denmark, and
an appeal in extraordinary cases lies from the inferior
to the superior tribunal. As every man is permitted
to plead his own cause, a trial is attended with very
little expence; nor can any suit be suspended longer
than 18 months.

In Denmark, the judges are punishable for any mis-
demeanors they may be guilty of, and there are many
excellent regulations for the due administration of
justice; but notwithstanding this, it is so far from
being distributed in an equal and impartial manner,
that a poor man can scarcely ever obtain justice in this
country against one of the nobility, or against one
who is favoured by the court or by the chief minister.
If the laws are so clearly in favour of the former,
that the judges are ashamed to decide against them,
the latter, through his influence with the minister,
procures an order from the king to stop all the law-
proceedings, or a dispensation from observing par-
ticular laws; and thus every rule of equity being
perverted and set aside, the lower class of subjects
are aggrieved and injured without any possibility of
redress.

The code of laws at present established in Denmark
was published by Christian V. founded upon the code
of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have been
since published, and is nearly the same with that pub-
lished in Norway. These laws are contained in a
quarto volume, drawn up in the language of the
country, in so plain and perspicuous a manner, and
founded upon such unerring principles of justice, that
the most ignorant may understand, and every im-
partial person approve of them; and, if carried into
execution in an equitable manner, would be pro-
ductive of many beneficial effects to the people. But
as the king can change, alter, and dispense with the
laws as he pleases, and support his ministers in their
disregard and violation of them, the people of Den-

their liberties, and thereby established absolute monarchy.

The police is very strict in Denmark, hence highway robberies, burglaries, coining, clipping, &c. are crimes scarce ever heard of; and to speak against the government is so strongly prohibited, that none dare wag their tongues licentiously in political matters. The common method of execution here is beheading and hanging: in some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. The other principal modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, and to public labour, and imprisonment. The public executioner, though universally despised, is commonly rich, as he is not only well paid to deprive malefactors of life, but is the general contractor to empty all the privies, and remove from houses, stables, streets, &c. all kinds of filth, and, in particular, dead cats, dogs, &c. which no other Dane will touch upon any account whatever.

The revenues of Denmark arise from crown lands, taxes, and duties, and these are extremely heavy. Wine, salt, tobacco, and provisions of all kinds are taxed. Marriages (a most impolitic tax!) paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll money, also raise a considerable sum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people; and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from the passage of their ships through the Sound into the Baltic. The income of this toll is at present much less than formerly. About the year 1640, it produced 240,000 rix-dollars per annum; but since 1645 it has not yielded above 190,000; some years not above 80,000; in 1691, it did not extend to full 70,000, and is now much less. This tax has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame; having been disputed by the English, Dutch, and Swedes, who deemed it arbitrary and unjust, being originally only a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expence of light-houses on the coast; but it was at length, by the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, agreed to be paid by the former and other powers. The toll is paid at Elfsneur.

The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elfsneur, amounts at present to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. sterling yearly. By a list of the revenue taken in 1730, it then amounted only to 454,700l. English money, which is less than half the sum it now produces.

The military force of Denmark consists in its regular troops, militia, and navy. The greatest part of the regular troops are foreigners, particularly Germans. The cavalry and dragoons are well mounted, and

regiments are quartered in Zealand; one in Funen, three in Jutland, and four in Holstein. The infantry is composed of sixteen regiments; of which two are on duty as the king's guards. When the regiments are complete, each consists of two battalions, and each battalion contains six companies of 100 each. The artillery consists of three regiments, one of which is stationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and the third in Holstein. The body of engineers is divided into three parts, each of which comprises two officers of various ranks.

Since the late reduction of the Danish forces, the numbers are, 10,000 cavalry and dragoons, and 30,000 infantry and artillery, which, with the militia, make up a body of 70,000 men. Every person who cultivates or possesses 360 acres of land, is obliged to find one man for the militia, and pay half the expence of a man towards a corps-de-reserve, to be embodied and called out only upon great emergencies. They receive no pay, but are registered on the army list, and exercised every Sunday.

Though the Danish army is extremely burdensome to the nation, yet it costs little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money.

The present fleet of Denmark is composed of thirty-six ships of the line, and eighteen frigates; but many of the ships being old, and wanting great repairs, they can send out twenty-five ships upon the greatest emergency, this is thought the most they can do. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the material necessary for the use of the marine. They have 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor serve on board a merchantman without permission from the Admiralty; 4000 of these are kept in constant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings a month, but then they have provisions and lodgings allowed for themselves and families, and a sort of blue uniform, faced with different colours.

The Danish men of war carry the same complement of men, in proportion to their guns, as the French ships of war do; but they are much inferior in point of construction, both to English and French ships of war; and, indeed, are far from being equal to the Swedish ships.

The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of their subjects in martial affairs, were very respectable princes, by the number and discipline of their troops. Frederic IV. established a marine academy for fifty young cadets, to be trained

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Zealand, one in Funen, and one in Holstein. The infant regiments; of which two are in Norway. When the regiments are full, they consist of two battalions, and each of 1000 men. The regiments, one of which is in Norway, and the other in Denmark, consist of engineers is divided into two companies, which comprises twenty-four men. The Danish forces, the infantry, and dragoons, and 3000 men, with the militia, and the artillery. Every person who possesses land, is obliged to serve, and pay half the expenses of the reserve, to be called upon in great emergencies. The militia is registered on the arms list. It is extremely burdensome to the crown: great numbers of them are in Norway, where they live in small huts, and in Denmark they maintain the cavalry, and furnish them with arms.

order to join practice to theory, they were annually to make a voyage in a frigate, and successively to perform the services of common seamen, pilots, and officers. But this noble institution is now totally neglected, and the money appointed to support it is sunk into venal pockets; so that except a few officers, who have been bred in the English and French services, the Danes would have a great difficulty, in case of a war, to prepare with any naval power, to find proper persons to command their ships of war.

To the court belong two ancient orders of knighthood, viz. that of the elephant, and that of Daneburg. The badge of the former, which is the most honourable, is an elephant surmounted with a castle tower, with diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured ribbon, worn like the George in England. This order was instituted by Christian I. at his son's wedding. It is conferred only on persons of the highest quality; and the number of companions amount to 30 besides the sovereign. The order of Daneburgh, though less honourable, is much more ancient; so that the origin of it is lost in fable: it is bestowed, as an honorary reward, upon the noblest of inferior rank, its insignia being a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left shoulder, from which depends a small diamond star, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto PIETATE ET JUSTITIA, piety and justice.

A COMPENDIOUS HISTORY OF DENMARK, NORWAY, &c.

VERY little is known of the early periods of the Danish history. Even the name of the first Christian king of Denmark is uncertain; and those of the people whom they commanded were so blended together, that it is impossible for the reader to conceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. All that we can discover relative to the inhabitants of these kingdoms is, that they appear to have been colonies of the ancient Scythians, who spread themselves through all the northern and western parts of Europe. In the 4th century, the Saxons, a name under which the Danes, Norwegians, and other nations of the North were comprehended, committed dreadful ravages on the coasts of Britain and Gaul, and obliged the Romans to station their forces along the coasts, under the command of an officer called Comes Littoris Saxonicæ. Their ravages, like their manners, were cruel and inhuman; their tracks were marked with blood and desolation; and neither age, innocence, nor religion could afford protection from the swords of

Few very interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret II. ascended the throne. That princess married Aquin, king of Norway, by which the two kingdoms became united. Aquin died soon after; but Margaret, partly by address, and partly by the right she had obtained by her marriage, formed a treaty, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. This treaty is generally known by the name of the union of Calmar. Margaret, whose soul was formed for greatness, swayed the sceptre of these kingdoms with honour to herself, and advantage to her country. Her friendship was courted by most of the European powers, so that historians have justly styled her the Semiramis of the North. But, like all other sublunary greatness, it was fleeting and transient. The successors of Margaret were far inferior to her in abilities; and the union of Calmar was soon destroyed. The Swedes rebelled, and placed Gustavus Vasa on the throne of his ancestors. Norway, however, still continued united to Denmark, nor has there been any rebellion in that kingdom since the union.

In the year 1448, the crown of Denmark passed to Christian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the present royal family is descended. In 1513, Christian II. one of the most complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the sister of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full proof of his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden for the bloody massacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled against him likewise; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holstein, was unanimously called to the throne, on the deposition of his cruel nephew: he openly embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the protestant religion was established by that wife and politic prince, Christian III. He was opposed in the Reformation by his bishops, and therefore seized on the lands and revenues of the church, annexing them to his own.

Christian IV. of Denmark, though very brave in his own person, wanted the abilities proper for the command of an army. He was chosen head of the protestant league formed in 1629, against the house of Austria; but was foiled in every attempt, and even in danger of losing his own dominions; when he was succeeded in the command of the army by the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, under whose command the protestant forces acquired immortal honour.

Frederic III. who succeeded his father Christian IV. in 1648, declared war against the Swedes, at the instigation of the Dutch. This precipitate conduct had nearly proved fatal to Denmark. Charles took

... forces, made himself master of Oenise and Nyburg, and, pursuing his victories, marched over the Great Belt, and besieged Copenhagen itself. Frederic, however, defended his capital with the greatest resolution; and Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interposing, the peace of Roschild was concluded, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Scania, the island of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway. Frederic was very desirous of eluding these severe terms, and postponed the surrender of the places stipulated in the treaty so long, that Charles put his army in motion, made himself master of Cronenburg, and once more invested Copenhagen by sea and land. Frederic bore these misfortunes with such an heroic firmness and confidence, as endeared him to his subjects. Charles made several attacks upon the city, but was always repulsed with considerable loss, and there seemed no other way of reducing it but by famine. In the mean time a strong Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and soon defeated and dispersed the Swedish ships which blocked up Copenhagen by sea. Animated by this assistance, the Danes exerted all their power, and Charles was obliged to raise the siege. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who was actually making preparations for invading the territories of the enemy: but before he was ready to carry his plan into execution, an English fleet arrived, and the Dutch were obliged to retire. Charles was now enabled to renew the siege of the capital; but by the mediation of France and England, a peace was concluded at Copenhagen, by which Charles agreed to restore the island of Bornholm; and Frederic to cede the islands of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, to the Swedes.

The magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, during this destructive war, so endeared him to his subjects, that on the nobles refusing to subject their estates to the payment of an equal tax proposed by the commons to be levied on all persons whatever, they made the king a tender of their liberties, and the government of Denmark became arbitrary in the manner we have already mentioned.

Christian V. who ascended the throne of Denmark in 1670, was at first very successful in his war against the Swedes; he recovered several places in Schonen, that had been wrested from him, and obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had acquired by the treaty of Roschild: While he was pursuing his victories with amazing success, fortune forsook his standard, and his army was totally defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. Christian, however, determined to persevere, notwithstanding the dreadful misfortune he had suffered. He raised a new army, and led his forces once more

almost strangers to military discipline, were totally defeated at the decisive battle of Landskron. Christian was now in no condition of facing the enemy, his allies having abandoned a cause which they considered as desperate, he was obliged, in 1679, to sign a treaty of peace on the terms prescribed by France. The love of glory, however, would not suffer Christian to abandon his military projects; and being incapable of carrying on the operations of war unassisted, he became a subsidiary ally to Lewis XIV. who threatened Europe with slavery. This treaty with the French monarch enabled him to pursue the scheme he had formed against Holstein, Harnburgh, and other northern powers; but before any thing of importance could be effected, Christian, after a vain victory treating and fighting with the Hollanders, Harnburghers, and other northern powers, ended his reign in the year 1699.

Frederic IV. ascended the throne on the death of his father, and, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions to the duchy of Holstein. He laid siege to Tonningen, and would probably have taken the place, had not the English and Dutch fleets forced him to abandon the enterprize. In the mean time Charles XII. of Sweden, then only sixteen years of age, landed in Zealand within eight miles of Copenhagen, in order to make a diversion in favour of his brother-in-law, the duke of Holstein. Charles pursued the war with that rapidity which constituted his character, and would, in all probability, have taken the capital of Denmark, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was granted in the duke's favour. By another treaty, concluded with the States-General, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great service against the French in the war between the allies and Louis XIV.

This, however, did not prevent Frederic from being continually engaged in disputes with the Swedes; and taking the advantage of the misfortunes of Charles, he made a descent on Swedish Pomerania, another upon Bremen, and took the city of Stadt. But his troops were totally defeated at Gadesbusch, by the Swedes, who laid his favourite city of Altena in ashes. Frederic had however soon after an opportunity of revenging the affront he had received. He made himself master of great part of Holstein, and obliged count Steinbock, the Swedish general, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. He pursued his victories with such success, that in the year 1716 his allies began to suspect that he intended to usurp the crown of all Scandinavia. Charles now returned from his exile, and carried on the war with great vigour and a most embittered spirit against Frederic; but being killed at the siege of Fredericksburgh, his Prussian

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Stockholm, by which Frederic obtained the duchy
of Sleswick. He died in 1730, leaving the crown to
his son Christian Frederic, or Christian VI. who made
no other use of his power, than that of cultivating
peace with all his neighbours, and in promoting the
happiness of his subjects. He abolished a grievous
monopoly established by his father, relating to the
sale of wine, brandy, and tobacco. He terminated
the old dispute between the crown of Denmark and
the city of Hamburg, by which he obtained several
valuable concessions in favour of his people, besides a
million of marks of silver. He instituted a council
of trade, to examine all proposals for the extension
and encouragement of commerce: he invited artists
and workmen from foreign countries, and established
manufactures at his own expence: he maintained a
respectable fleet and army; and that these might not
be burdensome to his subjects, he, from time to time,
concluded subsidiary treaties with foreign powers, by
which his finances were always in a flourishing condi-
tion. In a word, he acted on all occasions with equal
moderation and discretion, as a great king, a wise poli-
tician, and a prince who had always at heart the in-
terests of his people. He died in 1746, much re-
gretted by his subjects.

Frederic V. son and successor of Christian VI. im-
proved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his
people: but took no active part in the German war,
being only a mediator between the contending powers;
and by his intervention the treaty of Cluser-seven was
concluded between his Royal Highness William, late
Duke of Cumberland, and the French general Rich-
lieu. He married the princess Louisa, daughter to
his Britannic Majesty George II. by whom he had a
son, his present Danish Majesty: he afterwards, on
the death of his first queen, married a daughter of the
Duke of Brunsvick-Wolfenbattel. He died in 1766,
and was succeeded by his son,

Christian VII. the present king of Denmark and
Norway, L.L.D. and F.R.S. who was born Jan.
10, 1749; married, in 1766, to the princess Caroline-
Matilda, youngest sister of his present Britannic Ma-
jesty; and has issue Frederic, prince-royal of Den-
mark, born Jan. 28, 1768; and Louisa-Angula, born
July 7, 1771. The reign of this young monarch
opened auspiciously; but was afterwards darkened by
a fatal event, that occasioned much astonishment to all
Europe, and which is partly attributed to the intrigues
of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present
king, who has a son named Frederic, and whom she
is represented as desirous of raising to the throne. She
possesses a great deal of dissimulation; and when the
princess Caroline-Matilda came to Copenhagen, she
received her with all the appearance of friendship and
affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults,
and at the same time telling her, that she would take

queen's confidante, whilst at the same time, it is said,
she placed people about the young king, to keep him
constantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery,
to which she knew he was naturally too much ad-
dicted: and it was at length so ordered that a mistress
was thrown in the king's way, whom he was per-
suaded to keep in his palace.

When the king was upon his travels, the queen-
dowager used frequently to visit the young queen Ma-
tilda; and, under the mark of friendship and affection,
told her often of the debaucheries and excesses which
the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and
France, and often persuaded her not to live with him.
But as soon as the king returned, the queen reproach-
ing him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner,
his mother-in-law immediately took his part, and en-
deavoured to persuade the king to give no ear to her
counsels, as it was presumption in a queen of Den-
mark to direct the king.

Queen Matilda now began to discover the designs of
the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very
good terms with the king, who for a while was much
reclaimed. The young queen also now assumed to
herself the part which the queen-dowager had been
complimented with, in the management of public
affairs. This stung the old queen to the quick; her
thoughts were now entirely occupied with schemes of
revenge, "and who is able to stand before envy?"
But her views of this kind appeared the more difficult
to carry into execution, because the king had displaced
several of her friends who were about the court, who
had been increasing the national debt in times of pro-
found peace, and who were rioting on the spoils of
the public. However, she at length found means to
gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. We
shall give the particulars of this unfortunate affair in
the words of an intelligent gentleman, who made very
minute inquiries concerning it, of the most cool and
dispassionate Danes, and wrote this narrative in the
city of Copenhagen.

"I have," says this gentleman, "made it my en-
deavour, since my arrival here, to gain the most au-
thentic and unprejudiced intelligence respecting the
late celebrated, and unhappy favourite count Struens-
ee, and the late extraordinary revolution which expelled a
queen from her throne and kingdom, and brought the
ministers to the scaffold. Struens-ee had not any noble
blood in his veins, nor, consequently, any hereditary
and prescriptive title to the immediate guidance of
affairs of state. Fortune, and a train of peculiar cir-
cumstances coinciding with his own talents and ad-
dress, seem to have drawn him from his native me-
diocrity of condition, and placed him in an elevated
rank. He originally practised physic at Altona, on
the Elbe, and afterwards attended the present king of
Denmark, on his travels into England, in the year of

equally the favourite of both king and queen. He was invested with the order of St. Matilda, instituted in honour of her majesty, created a count, and possessed unlimited ministerial power; his conduct, in this sudden and uncommon eminence, marks a bold and daring mind, perhaps I might add, an expanded and patriotic heart. Unawed by the precarious tenure of courtly greatness, and more peculiarly of his own, he began a general reform. The state felt him through all her members; the finances, chancery, army, navy, nobles, peasants, all were sensible of his influence. He not only dictated, but penned his replies to every important question or dispatch; and a petition, or a scheme of public import and utility, rarely waited two hours for an answer. At present, I am told, you may be two months without receiving any.

The civil judicature of this capital was then vested in 30 magistrates. Struensee sent a message to this tribunal, demanding to know the annual salary or pension annexed to each member. Rather alarmed at this inquiry, they sent an answer, in which they diminished their emoluments near two-thirds, and estimated them at 1500, instead of 4000 rix-dollars. The count then informed them, that his majesty had no further occasion for their services; but, in his royal munificence and liberality, was graciously pleased to continue to them the third part of their avowed incomes as a proof of his satisfaction with their conduct. He, at the same time, constituted another court composed, only of six persons of integrity, to whom the same power was delegated. He proceeded to purge the chancery and other bodies of the law. Then entering on the military department, he, at one stroke, broke all the horse-guards, and afterwards the regiment of Norwegian foot-guards, the finest corps in the service, and who were not disbanded without a short, but very dangerous sedition. Still proceeding in this salutary, but most critical and perilous achievement, he ultimately began to attempt a diminution of the nobles, and to set the farmers and peasants at perfect liberty: no wonder that he fell a victim to such measures; and that all parties joined in his destruction. These were his real crimes, and not that he was too acceptable to the queen, which only formed a pretext. It was the minister, and not the man, who had become obnoxious. I do not pretend, in the latter capacity, either to excuse, or condemn him; but, as a politician, I rank him with the Clarendons and Mores, whom tyranny, or public business, and want of virtue, have brought, in almost every age, to an untimely and ignominious exit, but to whose memory impartial posterity have done ample justice. Yet I must avow, that though I cannot think Struensee made a bad use, yet he certainly made a violent and imprudent one of his extensive power. He seems, if one may judge

adverted tacitly to the examples which history furnishes of Wolfseys in former days, and of Choiseux in modern times, who most strikingly evince the tenuous foundation of political grandeur. When he was even pressed, only a short time before his seizure, to withdraw from court and pass the Belts, with the most ample security for his annual remittance of five hundred, or even an hundred thousand dollars, an unhappy fascination detained him, in defiance of every warning, and reserved him for the prison and block. The queen-dowager and prince Frederic were only the feeble instruments to produce this catastrophe, as being, by their rank, immediately about the person of the sovereign, though common report has talked loudly of the former's intrigue, and attributed it to her imaginary abilities. The only mark of capacity or address, they exhibited, was in preserving a secret which deluded Struensee, and the queen Matilda, at the time of their being arrested. I have been assured that on the last levee-day preceding this event, the count was habited with uncommon magnificence, and never received greater homage, or court servility, from the crowd, than when on the verge of ruin. On the night fixed for his seizure, there was a bal parade, masked ball, in the palace. The queen, after dancing as usual, one country dance with the king, gave her hand to Struensee during the rest of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. The moment was now come; the queen-dowager, and her son prince Frederic, hastened to the king's private chamber where he was already in bed. They kneeled down beside him, and implored him, with tears and expostulations, to save himself and Denmark from impending destruction, by arresting those whom they called the authors of it. It is said the king was not easily induced to sign the order, but did it with reluctance and hesitation. At length their entreaties prevailed, and he affixed his sign manual to the paper. Colonel Koller Banner instantly repaired to Struensee's apartment, which, as well as Brandt's, was in the palace; they were both seized at nearly the same instant, and as all defence was vain, hurried away immediately to the citadel. When count Struensee stepped out of the coach, he said, with a smile, to the commandant, "I believe you are not a little surprised at seeing me brought here as a prisoner." "No, and please your excellence, replied the old officer bluntly, I am not at all surprised, but, on the contrary, have long expected you." It was five o'clock in the morning when count Rantzaw came to the door of her majesty's ante-chamber, and knocked for admittance. One of the women about the queen's person was ordered to wake her, and give her information that she was arrested: they then put her into one of the king's coaches, drove her down to Elsinore, and thence

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examples which his days, and of Chloé's behaviour. When he was before his seizure, he was the Belts, with a remittance of five thousand dollars, an offer, in defiance of every law, for the prison and the prince Frederic were produced this catastrophe. Immediately about the period a report has taken place, and attributed to the queen, as the only mark of capacity in preserving a secret. The queen Matilda, I have been assured, preceding this event, in common magnificence, or court servility, for a charge of ruin. On the 27th of May, there was a ball given by the queen, after dancing with the king, gave the rest of the evening morning, and was the next day. The moment was, and her son prince's private chamber. They knelt down with tears and expressed their affection for Denmark from impetuosity, and those whom they called the king was not called it with reluctance. Their entreaties prevailed on the paper. Colonel Struensee's appearance, was in the palace the same instant, and away immediately. Struensee stepped out to the commandant, who surprised at seeing him. "No, and please," said the officer bluntly, I am contrary, have long been in the morning the door of her majesty for admittance. The queen's person was never information that she had been into one of the small squadrons to Elsinore, and the

precaution was taken to prevent it; the most numerous and silly reports were circulated among the populace, to render the state prisoners odious; that they had put poison into the king's coffee to destroy him; that they intended to declare him incapable of governing; to send the dowager-queen Juliana out of the kingdom, as well as her son prince Frederic, and to appoint Matilda regent. To confirm these extraordinary and contradictory reports, the king himself, and his brother, appeared in a state coach, and paraded through the streets of the city, to shew himself unhurt, and as if escaped from the most horrid conspiracy. During these transactions, Struensee and Brandt were detained in the most rigorous imprisonment. They loaded the former with very heavy chains about his arms and legs, and he was at the same time fixed to the wall by an iron bar. I have seen the room, and can assure you it is not above 10 or 12 feet square, with a little bed and a miserable iron stove; yet here, in this abode of misery, did he, though chained, complete, with a pencil, an account of his life and conduct, as a common genius, which is penned, as I have been assured, with uncommon genius."

After this, the government seemed to be entirely changed in the hands of the queen-dowager and her son, supported and assisted by those who had the principal share in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whose person and name it was necessary occasionally to make use of. All the officers who had been instrumental in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almost total change took place in all the departments of administration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic presided, and a commission of eight members, to examine the papers of the prisoners, and to commence a process against them. The son of queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendency of the queen-dowager.

The two counts were beheaded on the 28th of April 1772, having their right hands previously cut off; and their skulls and bones are yet exposed on wheels, about a mile and a half from the metropolis. Many of their friends and adherents, eighteen of whom had been imprisoned, were set at liberty. Struensee at first had absolutely denied having any criminal intercourse with the queen, but this he afterwards confessed; and though he is said by some to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this respect were esteemed notorious, and his confessions full and explicit. Besides, no measures were adopted by the court of Great-Britain for clearing up the queen's character in this respect.

In the following May, his Britannic Majesty sent a small squadron of ships to convoy the unfortunate prin-

ce she died there, of a malignant fever, on May 10, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months. In 1780, his Danish Majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the empress of Russia. He appears at present to have such a debility of understanding, as to disqualify him for the proper management of public affairs.

On the 16th of April 1784, another revolution took place in Denmark. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auspices of the prince royal, some of the former old members restored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any instrument, unless signed by the king, and countersigned by his royal highness prince Frederic, his son, heir apparent to the throne of Denmark.

CHAP. V.

LAPLAND.

Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Subdivisions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Rivers, Forests, Vegetables, Animal and Mineral Productions, &c.

THIS country is divided into six provinces, viz. 1. Angermanland-Lapmark; 2. Uma-Lapmark; 3. Pitha-Lapmark; 4. Lula-Lapmark; 5. Torno-Lapmark; and 6. Kinna-Lapmark.

The first of these provinces is the most southern, and contains only one town of any consequence, which is called Aofalko, and situated about 300 miles distant from Stockholm.

The second province, which adjoins to the former, contains two little villages, viz. Loifby and Semisjorkio.

The third province, which is situated between the Norwegian mountains, contains four unimportant villages, viz. Sitonia, Arieplogs, Locketari, and Arivitzers.

The fourth province, which adjoins to the latter, contains three little villages, viz. Jackmoth, Torpajour, and Sirkeflucht.

The fifth province, which is the most northern of Swedish Lapland, is well watered by many rivers, has several lakes, and contains four towns, viz. Tingavara, Sandewara, Ronnala, and Titifara.

The sixth province, which is contiguous to Russian and Danish Lapland, is likewise well watered; it contains the great lake Enure, and has six towns, viz. Soinby, Kalajerfoi, Kitjerfuityle, Kimibi, Solden-Kyle, and Kimi.

The known part of Lapland extends from the North Cape, in 71 deg. 30 min. north lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of it belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the most valuable; and some parts in the East, to the Muscovites

called Mourmankoi Leporic, Jerthoi Leporic, and Bel-lamofeskoï Leporic. But as the most considerable and best-peopled division of this country belongs to the Swedes, we shall therefore begin with a description of it.

Swedish Lapland is bounded on the east by Russian Lapland; on the west by a ridge of mountains that separate it from Norway; on the north by Danish Lapland; and on the south by Bothnia, Angermania, and Saperland. Its greatest extent, from east to west, is about 360 miles; in breadth it extends from 63 deg. 39 min. to 69 deg. of north latitude. It is divided into six provinces, or districts, the names of which, as above noticed, are the following; viz. Angermanland-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Pitha-Läpmark, Lula-Lapmark, Terno-Lapmark, and Kima-Lapmark.

Each of these provinces receives its name from the chief river that waters it; they are again subdivided into smaller districts called biars, and these contain a certain number of families, called by the Swedes reckars. Every reckar, or family, is allowed a considerable tract of land, with forests, lakes, and brooks, for the maintenance of their families and cattle; but their lands are not enclosed, so that the property of one is often converted to the use of others.

In general, Lapland is situated so near the pole, that the sun neither sets in summer, or rises in winter. In the latter season, the cold is so intense, that none of the natives are able to bear it. The most rapid rivers are then frozen up, and the ice is two or three, and sometimes four or five feet thick. In summer the weather is as sultry as it is cold in winter; for autumn and spring are unknown in this climate. The excessive heat, however, is qualified by the vapours that rise from the sea, and by the snow that continues all the summer on the tops of the mountains, and in ditches that are sheltered from the sun. It seldom rains in the summer, but the whole country is covered with snow in winter.

M. Maupertuis, who, with several other astronomers, was sent hither by order of the king of France, to discover the figure of the earth at the polar circle, has given the best description of the climate of this country. "In December, says he, the snow continually falling, or ready to fall, for the most part hid the sun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-day. In the month of January the cold was increased to that extremity, that M. Reaumur's mercurial thermometer, which, at Paris, in the great frost of 1709, it was thought strange to see fall to fourteen degrees below the freezing point, was now got down to thirty-seven. The spirits of wine in the others was frozen. If we opened the door of a warm room, the external air instantly converted all the vapour in it into snow, whirling it round in white vortices. If we went abroad, we felt as if the

the violence of the froit, continually alarmed us with increase of cold. In this country you may often see people who have lost an arm or a leg by the frost. The cold, which is always very great, sometimes increases to such violent and sudden degrees, as are almost infallibly fatal to those who are so unhappy as to be exposed to it; and sometimes there rise sudden tempests of ice that are still more dangerous.

"The winds seem to blow from all quarters at once and drive about the snow with such fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered invisible. Dreadful the situation of a person surpris'd in the fields by such a storm; his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him, he is blinded by the snow, and, if he attempts to find his way home, is generally lost. In short, during the whole winter, the cold was so excessive, that on the 7th of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty divisions below the point of freezing; though every afternoon it rose two or three divisions above it; a difference in the height not much less than that which the greatest heat and cold felt at Paris usually produce in that instrument. Thus in 24 hours we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones in the compass of a whole year."

But though in winter the nights are very cold, long and tedious, yet those inconveniences are, in some degree, obviated by the serenity of the sky, the brightness of the moon and stars, and the resplendent light of the aurora borealis, which is reflected from the white surface of the earth covered with snow; from all which such light is produced, that the inhabitants are enabled to discharge their ordinary occupations. The above writer, in speaking of these nocturnal lights, says, "The days are no sooner closed than fires of a thousand figures and colours light up the sky, as if designed to compensate for the absence of the sun. These fires have here, as in more southern climates, any constant situation. Though a luminous arch is often seen fixed towards the north, they seem more frequently to possess the whole extent of the hemisphere. Sometimes they begin in the form of a great scarf of bright light, with its extremities upon the horizon, which, with a motion resembling that of a fishing-net, glides softly up the sky preserving, in this motion, a direction nearly perpendicular to the meridian; and most commonly after the prelude, all the lights unite at the zenith, and form the top of a crown. Arcs, like those seen in France towards the north, are here frequently situated towards the south, and often towards both the north and south at once. Their summits approach each other; the distance of the extremities widens towards the horizon. I have seen some of the opposite arcs, whose summits almost joined at the zenith; and both the one and the other have frequently several concentric arcs beyond it. Their tops are all placed in the direction of the meridian, though

would be endless if the meteors represented which they are agitated like that of the different times of the appearance of so many of them; sometimes they are seen in the eighteenth of this kind, that, which I was now observing. To the south of Orion looked as if it were, which was at that time into other colours, whose top it touched. The moon shined in this colour, and such are taken to be. After all, we saw with an unphosphoric discover in their very chaotic, and a For the most part, being to grow, owing to the which it about of rocks and mountains, which of a prodigious height prevent all the mountains are large there are many trees from each of the plain valleys, which country, being well and springs. Many of the rivers, and fall into the are the Uma, which greatly increased the rivers Vendouire are both very copious, by a great receives 20 rivers, breadth. When they show their banks; pendous cataraets many lakes, which as well as the river There are a great land, among which part of it also part of the other, and

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monly like that of a pair of colours waved in the air,
and the different tints of their lights give them the ap-
pearance of so many vast streamers of changeable taffe-
s, sometimes they line a part of the sky with scarlet.

On the eighteenth of December I saw a phenomenon
of this kind, that, in the midst of all the wonders to
which I was now every day accustomed, raised my ad-
miration. To the south a great space of the sky appeared
covered with so lively a red, that the whole constellation
of Orion looked as if it had been dipped in blood. This
red, which was at first fixed, soon moved, and chang-
ed into other colours, violet and blue, settled into a
white, whose top stood a little to the south-west of the
pole. The moon shone bright, but did not in the least
diminish. In this country, where there are lights of so
many different colours, I never saw but two that were
new, and such are taken for presages of some great mis-
fortune. After all, when people gaze at these pheno-
mena with an unphilosophic eye, it is not surprising if
they discover in them the appearance of armies engaged,
of chariots, and a thousand other prodigies."

For the most part, the soil of this country is exceed-
ingly bad, being so intermixed with stones, that hardly
any thing will grow in it; but in some places it is very
fertile, owing to the number of marshes and brooks
with which it abounds. The whole country is also full
of rocks and mountains. Those called the Dofrine
mountains, which separate Lapland from Norway, are
of a prodigious height; and the high winds that blow
here prevent all trees from taking root. Beneath these
mountains are large marshes and extensive forests, where
there are many trees, though they stand at a great dis-
tance from each other. At the bottom of the hills are
pleasant vallies, which are the most fertile parts of the
country, being well watered by a great number of brooks
and springs.

Many of the rivers rise from the mountains of Nor-
way, and fall into the Bothnian Gulph. The chief of
these are the Uma, Lula, Riina, and Torna. The Uma
is greatly increased by the waters that flow into it from
the rivers Vendilor and Skialfse. The Lula and Riina
are both very considerable, and are swelled, in their
course, by a great number of lesser ones. The torna
receives 29 rivers, one of which is a Swedish mile in
breadth. When the snow melts, all these rivers over-
flow their banks; and the chief part of them have stu-
pendous cataracts. Besides the rivers, here are also
many lakes, which abound with various kinds of fish,
as well as the rivers.

There are a great number of trees in the forests of Lap-
land, among which are the birch, pine, and fir. Some
parts of it also produce the service-tree, willow, pop-
ple, alder, and the cornel. They have several sorts of

them in their food. They have likewise different kinds
of grass, heath, and fern; but the most plentiful, as well
as most useful vegetable, is the moschus, or moss, of
which there are several species, either adhering to trees,
or growing on the surface of the earth. The rein-deer
is almost wholly sustained by this vegetable, which, in-
deed, he prefers to all others, and without which he
cannot subsist. The natives not only use it as forage for
their cattle, but boil it in broth as a cordial and restora-
tive. Here are also great quantities of berries, such as
black currants; the Norwegian mulberry, which grows
upon a creeping plant, and is much esteemed as an an-
tiscorbutic; rasberries, cranberries, and bilberries. Ju-
niper-berries are also very plentiful, and some of the
trees grow to a considerable height.

Among the animals of this country are stags, bears,
wolves, foxes of several colours, squirrels, ermines,
martens, hares, glittens, beavers, otters, elks; and rein-
deer; but the last of these is the most useful to the na-
tives, who, without them, could not possibly preserve
their existence; for these animals not only afford them
food and garments, but also supply the place of horses,
and travel in those parts where the latter animals could
be entirely useless. The rein-deer is a kind of stag,
with large branched horns, the tops of which bend for-
ward like a bow. He is larger, stronger, and swifter
than the stag, and his hair changes colour according to
the season of the year. His hoofs are cloven and move-
able, for which reason he spreads them abroad as he runs
along the snow, to prevent his sinking into it. The
horns are very high, and divided into two branches near
the root. On each horn are three branches, one above
another, which are again subdivided into smaller ones,
insomuch that no horned beast whatever has the like,
either for bulk, branches, or weight. The horns are of
a light colour, and there are veins, or blood-vessels,
running along them, under which there are furrows.
When the beast runs he lays these horns upon his back;
but there are two branches that always hang over his
forehead, and almost cover his face. Most of these ani-
mals are wild; but some of them are tame, and exceed-
ing serviceable to the natives.

Those rein-deer which are produced between a tame
doe and a wild buck are not only the largest, but by far
the strongest. These animals are of infinite use to the
Laplanders, for without subjecting them to the least
expence, they supply them with almost every necessary
of life. From these creatures they are furnished with
milk and cheese, as also flesh, which they lay up for
winter store. The skins afford caps, clothes, boots, shoes,
bedding, thongs, and many other articles. The nerves
and sinews are twisted into thread. Their bows and ar-
rows are tipped with the bones, and their boxes inlaid
with the horn, which is likewise formed into curious
spoons, toys, and utensils. These creatures are likewise
used as beasts of draught or burthen, and are from dis-

one of their pastimes consists in reciting verses. Sometimes a man and a woman take one another by the hand, and by turns sing stanzas, which is a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occasionally join in choros.

The inhabitants of this island live chiefly along the sea-coast; their number is computed at 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been destroyed by contagious diseases. From the years 1402 to 1404, the plague carried off many thousands: famine has also made dreadful havock among them: for though the Icelanders cannot in general be said to be in want of necessary food, yet the country has several times been visited by great famines, chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grafs from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here; for that disease destroyed 16,000 persons in the years 1707 and 1708.

These people do not measure time by the clock or hour, but take their observations from the sun, stars, or tide, which last is always regular; and parcel out the day into different divisions, each of which has its particular appellation; viz. night, midnight, twilight, broad day, forenoon, noon, afternoon, evening, mid-evening.

The Lutheran is the only religion tolerated in Iceland. The churches on the east, south, and west quarters of the island are subject to the bishop of Skalholt, the capital of the island, and those of the north quarter are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Hoolun. The island is divided into 189 parishes, of which 127 belong to the see of Skalholt, and sixty-two to that of Hoolun. All the ministers are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly stipend of 4 or 500 rix-dollars from the king, exclusive of what they obtain from their congregations. The clergy are generally persons of good morals, and tolerable education. The bishop is obliged to maintain the rector and corector, the minister of the cathedral church, and a certain number of scholars. In each diocese is a Latin school, under the inspection of a rector and proper assistants; where the languages, theology, and other branches of literature are taught, in order to qualify youth for the university.

With respect to their learning and learned men, we are told that poetry formerly flourished among them; and that Egil Skallagrinnson, Kormuk Ogmundson, Glum Geirson, and Thorliet Jarlaa, were celebrated as great poets. But writing was little practised till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were introduced there before that time, and probably from Norway. Soon after the Christian religion was established, the Latin characters were adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which consists of only sixteen letters, was found insufficient.

The first Icelandic bishop, Illeif, founded a school at Skalholt; and four other schools were soon afterwards, wherein the youth were taught the Latin tongue, divinity, and some parts of theoretic philosophy. And from the introduction of the Christian religion here, till the year 1264, when Iceland came subject to Norway, it was one of the most cultivated countries in Europe, and the only one in the north, where the sciences were either cultivated, or held in esteem; and this period of time seems to have produced more learned men in Iceland, than any period since.

From their ancient chronicles it appears, that they had made a considerable progress in the study of natural philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. They wrote most of their works from the 11th to the 14th centuries, some of which have been printed. Sir Joseph Banks presented 162 Icelandic manuscripts to the British Museum. In 1772, that gentleman visited Iceland, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. An account of this voyage was published by Dr. Van Troil, who observes that he found more knowledge among the poorer sort of people in this island, than is to be met with in most other places; as a proof of which, he adds that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and that a peasant was found to be found, who was not only instructed in the principles of religion, but also acquainted with the history of his own country; this knowledge in a great measure proceeds from the great delight they take in frequently reading; by way of amusement, the traditional histories, thus happily blending profit with pleasure. What inconceivable advantage would accrue to the lower class among us, what multitudes would be made useful members of society, if rescued from untimely destruction, could they be brought thus to employ and improve their talents!

About the year 1530, John Arsfon, bishop of Hoolun, employed John Mattheiffon, a native of Sweden, to set up a printing-press in Iceland; he began with printing the Breviarium Nidarosiense; he afterwards printed an ecclesiastical manual, Luther's catechism, and other books of that nature. In 1578, the Icelandic code of laws appeared; and in 1584, the Icelandic Bible. Several valuable books have likewise been printed at a printing-office lately established and privileged at Hrappley in this island.

Amongst all the curiosities in Iceland, the hot spouting-water springs are most worthy of notice. None of the hot springs or water-works in Germany, France, or Italy, can by any means be compared with those. Some of them spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of several hundred feet. These springs are of unequal degrees of heat. From some, the water flows gently as from other springs

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self, founded a school where were taught the elements of the theoretic philosophy of the Christian religion. In 1741, when Iceland was one of the most uncultivated, or perhaps the most neglected, islands in the world, it appears, that in the study of natural history, and astronomy, from the 17th to the 18th century, have been printed Icelandic manuscripts. In 1772, that gentlemanly Dr. Solander, in an account of this island, Troil, who observed among the poorer people, to be met with of which, he adds, that the works of the peasant here spouts several times a day, but always only instructed in the acquainted with the knowledge in a great delight they take of amusement, the blending profit would advantage would us, what multitude of people imagine them to be piled upon one another by giants, who made use of supernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to seven feet, and are from four to six feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length, without any horizontal divisions. In some places, they are only seen here and there among the lava in the mountains; but in other places, they extend two or three miles in length, without interruption. They are supposed to have been produced by subterraneous fires.

The whole trade of Iceland is engrossed by a company of Danish merchants, who have been indulged by their monarch with an exclusive charter; and though there is not any considerable town in the whole island, the Icelanders have several frequented ports. Their exports consist of dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen cloth, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox furs of various colours, rider-down, and feathers. Their imports consist of brandy, wine, salt, bread, tobacco, timber, fishing-lines and hooks, horse-shoes, linen, and a little silk; besides some necessaries and superfluities for the more

wealthy. They have properly no manufactures: they make a coarse baize, termed wadmál, in a very awkward manner. Some of their woollen yarn they dye in verdigris; and afterwards make into pretty stuffs. The women knit great numbers of stockings and gloves.

The governor of this island, called Staffs-amptmand, is appointed by the king of Denmark, and is generally a person of distinction. He has the power of choosing a deputy, called Amptmand, who always resides in Iceland, and in spiritual cases sits as judge, with the clergy as his assessors. A third officer of the crown in Iceland, is a receiver, whose business it is to collect all the taxes and revenues, and transmit them to the royal treasury. Besides him, there are people termed fýsilmenn, who farm the king's taxes in certain districts, and act as justices of the peace; each within his own province.

For the regular administration of justice in this island there are two judges, called Langmænd, one of whom presides over the northern, and the other over the southern division. Actions are first begun in the court of the fýsilmann, from whence they may be removed to the langret, or general court, held under one of the judges. If satisfaction is not obtained there, an appeal may be lodged at the high court, in which the Amptmand presides, together with the other judge, and eleven fýsilmenn; and if the cause is not determined there, it is carried to the supreme court at Copenhagen. The only legal method of putting men to death in Iceland, is by beheading, or hanging them; but when a woman is condemned to die, she is sewed up in a sack, and flung into the sea.

The inhabitants of Iceland depend entirely upon his Danish majesty's protection; and the revenues which the king draws from this country, amounts to about 30,000 crowns per annum. They arise chiefly from taxes and dues, a yearly sum paid by the company of merchants, secularized abbey-lands, and other royal demesnes farmed out to the natives.

The FARO or FERRO ISLANDS are 24 in number, lying in a cluster in the northern ocean, between 61 and 63 deg. of north lat. and 6 and 8 deg. of west long. having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of Norway. They are separated from each other by deep and rapid channels; are all indented by the sea, and furnished with many inlets, creeks, and harbours, which afford protection to fishermen, and trading vessels, in bad weather. The largest of these islands, called Stromoe, is about 17 miles in length, and eight in breadth; the rest are much smaller, and not inhabited. The revenues of Denmark acquire little addition from the trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000.

C H A P.

C H A P. III.

N O R W A Y.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Animal and Vegetable Productions, Towns, &c.

THIS country is situated towards the north-pole, Norvegia, Nordway, and Norway, signifying the Northern Way. It lies between the 57th and 72d degrees of north latitude, and between the 5th and 31st deg. of east long. It is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Catogate; on the west and north, by the Northern Ocean; and on the east it is separated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, which have the various appellations of Rundfield, Dofrefield, Dourfield, and Fillefield. Its length is computed at 1020 miles, its breadth at 290, and its area is supposed to contain 82,824 square miles.

Norway is divided into four governments; viz. 1. The province of Aggerhus, which extends in length about 300 miles, and comprehends the south-east part of Norway. 2. Bergen, situated in the most southerly and westerly part of the country. 3. Drontheim, or Trontheim, which stretches about 500 miles on the coast. And, 4. The province of Wardhus, which extends to the north cape, and includes the islands of Finmark and Norwegian Lapland. Besides these, there is the province of Bahus, being a narrow tract of land, about 90 miles in length, situated on the coast of Scaggerac, which, though now yielded to Sweden, is reckoned part of Norway.

The climate of this country is exceedingly different, according to the difference of its situation towards the sea. In the eastern parts, the ground is generally covered with snow; and the cold, which sets in about the middle of October, is very intense till the middle of April, during which time the waters are frozen to a considerable thickness. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow on the mountains which separate Sweden from Norway, and their bodies were found in different pastures. At Bergen, the winter is so moderate, that the seas are navigable both to mariners and fishermen, except in creeks and bays, which extend far enough up the country to be affected by the keen north-east winds from the land. In Finmark, a part of Norway, situated in the frigid zone, the cold is so great, that very little of the country has ever been explored.

In proportion to the extreme cold of this climate in winter, is its heat in summer, occasioned by the reflection of the sun's rays from the sides of the mountains, and the shortness of its duration below the horizon. The warmth in the vallies is in general

so exceedingly great, that barley is sown and fit to be housed in the short space of six weeks.

At Bergen the longest day consists of nineteen hours and the shortest does not exceed six; so that in summer it is very easy to see to read at midnight, by twilight; and in the district of Tromsen, at the extremity of Norway, the sun never sets at Midsummer; but in the depth of winter it is invisible weeks, and all the light, even at noon-day, is a faint glimmering occasioned by the reflection of the sun's rays upon the highest mountains. Happily for the inhabitants, however, the sky at this season of the year is exceedingly serene and clear, so that the mountains shined without obstruction, and her light, being reflected from the mountains, illuminates the vallies. The aurora borealis, or northern lights, which are very strong in this country, are also of infinite use to the people, who by these helps employ themselves in their daily occupations in the open air. This country is subject to frequent rains, and sometimes the sudden thaws prove terrible to the Norwegians; for vast masses of snow being thereby loosened, fall from precipitous high precipices, and overwhelm men, cattle, boats, houses, nay sometimes entire villages.

The air in Norway is generally pure and salubrious, and so dry in the midland parts of the country, that meal may be kept for many years without being warmed, eaten, or otherwise damaged; but on the sea-coast the vapours and exhalations render it moist, and so unhealthy, except to people in consumptions, who whom it is supposed to agree best.

No country in the world contains more mountains than Norway, a long chain of which runs from north to south. The roads over these mountains are equally terrible and dangerous, there being often no other path than what is formed by an ill-secured wooden bridge, thrown over a breach in a frightful precipice, or roaring cataract. These roads wind in such a manner, as to render the passage over the mountain Hardangerfield, about seventy English miles, extremely dangerous. The same may be observed of that over Filefield, which is about fifty miles, and the passage road. To prevent travellers from being lost or bewildered, the way is pointed out by posts fixed at the distance of two hundred paces from each other; and on Filefield are two houses furnished with fire, lights, and kitchen utensils, at the public expence, for the convenience of those who are obliged to pass along this dreadful road.

Besides this chain, there are various other mountains scattered over the country, of extraordinary height. On the left hand, in sailing up Joering Creek, is a cluster of these mountains, which has the appearance of a city, decorated with old Gothic towers and edifices. The summit of the mountain Skopthorn, in the parish of Oerskong, represents the figure of a fortification, with regular walls and ballions. A very high range of mountains, in the district of Hilgeland,

distinguished by the having seven habitable at sea for a considerable time from the rest of the world, his hat on his head, and his hundred and fifty in length, forming

innumerable are the rocks and mountains, their journeys from the hazard rendered insecure by their frequent with their cattle, and with greater, as a country is arable. Some into the plains belated with into ruins, in length and all at once, as seemed a prelude Steerbroc in Lae which have been severed large, sharp, and river roars with

requently both men hurled down the pieces. When a enough to fall from rocks, from whence the owner generally animal, though He fears himself of a long rope, one of his companions were the creature of some rope with him

ter. The caverns in Norway stupendous mountains, Torgshatten is one compact, fastened together, being let down the year 1750, discoveries concerning called Dulliteen. An American cavity, and with over their heads as an ordinary and the roof vaulted stairs, and arrived a picture to go down named two candles one they came back neighbourhood of a rock; one of which

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table at sea for a considerable distance. The moun-
Torghatten, in the same district, derives its
from the resemblance the summit bears to a
with his hat on; an aperture in the mountain
hundred and fifty ells high, and three thousand
in length, forming a single eye to the supposed

numerable are the difficulties and dangers to which
rocks and mountains subject the Norwegians.
their journeys from place to place are always per-
at the hazard of their lives: their habitations
rendered insecure by the vast torrents, and falls of
water, which frequently overwhelm them, together
with their cattle, and their land. This misfortune is
much greater, as a very trifling part of the whole
country is arable. Sometimes huge pieces of rock
fall into the plains below, and crush every thing they
meet with into ruins. Entire risir of rocks, many
miles in length and breadth, have been known to
fall all at once, and cause such a concussion of the
earth, as seemed a prelude to the dissolution of the globe.

At Steerbroc in Laerdale, a stupendous body appears
to have been severed and tumbled from the mountain,
in large, sharp, and ragged fragments, through which
the river roars with a continual and dreadful noise.
Frequently both men and beasts, by one false step,
are hurled down these dreadful precipices and dashed
in pieces. When a kid, sheep, or goat, is unlucky
enough to fall from some height on the projection of
a rock, from whence it can neither ascend nor descend,
the owner generally endeavours to preserve the life of
his animal, though with the utmost hazard of his
own.

He seats himself on a cross stick tied to the
end of a long rope, whereby he is lowered down, by
the aid of his companions, till he arrives at the place
where the creature stands, which he fastens to the
end of the rope with himself, and both are drawn up to-
gether.

The caverns in Norway are equally wonderful with
the stupendous mountains. In the lower part of
Torghatten is one of these caves, into which a
cannon, fastened to a line four hundred fathoms in
length, being let down, did not reach the bottom.
In the year 1750, two clergymen resolved to make
discoveries concerning a cavern at Herroe in Sundmoer,
called Dolsteen. Accordingly, they entered this sub-
terranean cavity, and proceeded till they heard the sea
with over their heads. The passage was as wide and
high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular,
and the roof vaulted. They descended one flight of
stairs, and arrived at a second, which they did not
venture to go down, but returned again, having con-
sumed two candles from the time they entered, to the
time they came back. In the district of Rake, in the
neighbourhood of Fredericks-hall, are three cavities in
a rock; one of which is so deep, that a small stone

dropped down, is two minutes in arriving at the
bottom, when it produces a sound like that of a bell:
and a cavern of a very curious nature penetrates
through the sides of the mountain Limur, and serves
as a conduit to a stream of water.

The large and extensive forefils of Norway form the
principal source of the wealth of that kingdom. In
these, which are very numerous, are found in amazing
quantities, fir, pine, elm, ash, yew, benreed, birch,
beech, oak, eel, or alder, juniper, aspin-trees, comel,
or sloe-tree, hazel, elder, lyme, willow, and some
ebony. The Norwegians supply foreigners with masts,
beams, planks, and boards. A vast quantity of wood
is likewise expended in home consumption, for build-
ing houses, ships, bridges, piles, moles, fences, and
in making charcoal for the founderies. In the timber
trade, their lakes and rivers prove of the utmost con-
sequence; for the masts and large beams are not only
floated down them for embarkation, but they erect
mills on their banks for sawing balks into planks,
and deals, which, by this contrivance, is done with
inconceivable expedition. A tenth of sawed timber
is claimed by the king of Denmark, and forms a
considerable part of his revenue. The best timber
grows in the provinces of Guldbrandsdale, Tellemark,
Valders, Romsdale, Saltan, Sognisford, Oesterdale,
Helleland, Soloe, Hallingdale, and the lordship of
Nedere. The principal exports of this article are
made from Fredericks-hall, Fredericksstadt, Christiana,
Christianland, Christien's-Bay, Drontheim, Skeen,
Drammen, and Anendal. Great quantities are ex-
ported annually from the western coast of Norway
to Spain and Scotland.

The principal rivers in Norway are the Nied; the Sule
Ely; the Gulen; the Otteroen; the Syre; the Nid; the
Sheen; the Tyreford, or Dramme; the Loven; the
Glaaman, or Great River; and the Worme. In the
year 1344, the Gulen buried itself under ground;
from whence it burst forth again with such violence,
that the earth and stones, thrown up by the eruption,
filled the valley and formed a dam, which, however,
was soon demolished by the force of the water.
Several churches, farm-houses, and 250 persons were
destroyed on this occasion. The Syre discharges itself
into the sea, through a narrow streight formed by two
rocks, which contraction augmenting its natural im-
petuosity, it shoots with great swiftness into the ocean,
where it produces vast agitation. The water-falls of
the Nid and Sheen have been diverted with infinite
labour and expence, by canals and passages cut through
rocks, and they are now of the utmost convenience
to the inhabitants for floating down their timber.
Many of the lakes contain floating islands, formed by
the cohesion of the roots of trees and shrubs in the
soil, which, though thus separated from the main land,
bear herbage and trees. Near Fredericksstadt is a lake
300 ells in length, and about half as broad, formed
by the sudden sinking of the noble family seat of

dropped down, is two minutes in arriving at the
bottom, when it produces a sound like that of a bell:
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beams, planks, and boards. A vast quantity of wood
is likewise expended in home consumption, for build-
ing houses, ships, bridges, piles, moles, fences, and
in making charcoal for the founderies. In the timber
trade, their lakes and rivers prove of the utmost con-
sequence; for the masts and large beams are not only
floated down them for embarkation, but they erect
mills on their banks for sawing balks into planks,
and deals, which, by this contrivance, is done with
inconceivable expedition. A tenth of sawed timber
is claimed by the king of Denmark, and forms a
considerable part of his revenue. The best timber
grows in the provinces of Guldbrandsdale, Tellemark,
Valders, Romsdale, Saltan, Sognisford, Oesterdale,
Helleland, Soloe, Hallingdale, and the lordship of
Nedere. The principal exports of this article are
made from Fredericks-hall, Fredericksstadt, Christiana,
Christianland, Christien's-Bay, Drontheim, Skeen,
Drammen, and Anendal. Great quantities are ex-
ported annually from the western coast of Norway
to Spain and Scotland.

The principal rivers in Norway are the Nied; the Sule
Ely; the Gulen; the Otteroen; the Syre; the Nid; the
Sheen; the Tyreford, or Dramme; the Loven; the
Glaaman, or Great River; and the Worme. In the
year 1344, the Gulen buried itself under ground;
from whence it burst forth again with such violence,
that the earth and stones, thrown up by the eruption,
filled the valley and formed a dam, which, however,
was soon demolished by the force of the water.
Several churches, farm-houses, and 250 persons were
destroyed on this occasion. The Syre discharges itself
into the sea, through a narrow streight formed by two
rocks, which contraction augmenting its natural im-
petuosity, it shoots with great swiftness into the ocean,
where it produces vast agitation. The water-falls of
the Nid and Sheen have been diverted with infinite
labour and expence, by canals and passages cut through
rocks, and they are now of the utmost convenience
to the inhabitants for floating down their timber.
Many of the lakes contain floating islands, formed by
the cohesion of the roots of trees and shrubs in the
soil, which, though thus separated from the main land,
bear herbage and trees. Near Fredericksstadt is a lake
300 ells in length, and about half as broad, formed
by the sudden sinking of the noble family seat of

Borge, into an abyss one hundred fathoms in depth. This accident, whereby 14 persons and 200 head of cattle were killed, was occasioned by the river Glaman precipitating itself down a water-fall, near Sarp, and undermining the foundation of the house.

The fresh water of this country is very agreeable to the taste, and remarkably salubrious, but it is generally turbid, deposits a thick sediment, and is often impregnated with oker and particles of iron.

Norway abounds in quarries of excellent marble, of all colours: some detached pieces of alabaster; several kinds of spar, chalk-stone, cement-stone, sand-stone, mill-stone, baking-stone, slate, talc, swine-stone, the magnet, or load-stone, and the amianthus, or asbestos, whose delicate fibres are woven into cloth, which, when dirty or soiled, is cleansed by being thrown into the fire, which has not the power of consuming it. In this country are likewise found amethysts, agate, granates, beautiful crystals, thunder-stones, eagle-stones, and pyrites or quartz; but there are no flints.

At present there are no gold mines worked in Norway, though formerly a small quantity, found in the diocese of Christianland, was coined into ducats. Mines of silver have been discovered in several parts of the country, and there is now one working at Koningsburg, at the sole expence and account of his Danish majesty, out of which a piece of 560 lb weight being taken, is preserved as a curiosity in the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. The copper mines are worked with the greatest success: the principal of these is at Roraas, an hundred English miles from Drontheim, which yields annually about 1100 ship-loads of pure copper. Iron is still in greater plenty, and the profit arising from this metal is estimated at 300,000 rix-dollars yearly. A few mines of lead have lately been opened in the district of Polcer, but no very considerable advantage has as yet been derived from them.

The minerals found in Norway are vitriol, sulphur, alum, and salt.

The animals found in Norway are all natives of Denmark, with an addition of many more. The wild beasts peculiar to this country are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the lemming, the ermine, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and, in the winter, social; and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The rein-deer (which we shall describe more particularly afterwards) is a species of stag. The hares are small, and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children: they are hunted by little dogs; and some prefer bear-hams to those of Westphalia. The Nor-

wegian wolves are very fierce, but at the same time even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger: natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but equally dangerous; they are a species of cat, with claws like those of a tyger. They often undermine sheep-folds, and they make dreadful havock. The fur of the lynx is very beautiful and valuable. The foxes of Norway are of different colours, white, red, and black; the skin of the latter is the most esteemed: the white and red foxes partake of the nature of that which is common in our countries; they draw crabs ashore, dipping their tails in the water, which the crabs hold off. The glutton, in shape and size of a turn-dog, with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws, and teeth: his fur, which is variegated, is so precious that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the animal unharmed. This animal, which is sometimes called erven, or vielfras, is remarkably fierce and voracious, and of such an insatiable appetite, that he will devour a carcass larger than himself, and disburthen his stomach by squeezing himself between two standing trees: and when he has overgorged himself with eating, he becomes an easy prey to the hunter; when taken, he has been even known to eat stone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, very shy, and so remarkably cleanly, that, it is said, he will rather let himself be taken, than run through the least dirt to avoid his pursuers. The marten, or haaren, is of a beautiful glossy brown, and the fur very valuable: it resembles a great forest cat, is very fierce, and is dangerous.

There are most of the birds in this country common to Europe, and its sea coasts are covered with innumerable flocks of water-fowl, among which are wild geese and ducks. But the birds peculiar to Norway are the alk, the berg-ugle, the basier, the strass-sneppe, the gagl, the hav-aare, the hav-hell, the hav-sule, the imber, or great northern diver, the jo-fugl, the krage, the kryk-kie, the lax-tite, the lom, the gogor or maage, the favoren, the skare or loon, the tre, the north-wind's-pipe, the fouden-wind's-fugl, the ne-dem-paps or cocothrans, and the tiur ura-gall-major, or the cock of the wood. Some of the most remarkable of these birds will here meet with a particular description. The alk is an aquatic fowl, about the size of a large duck: they frequent the rocks in such numbers, as frequently darken the air, and the noise of their wings is equal to the roaring of a storm. The north-wind's-pipe is something less than a starling, and of a grey colour: this bird makes a particular noise before the north wind begins to blow, and the fouden-wind's-fugl never appears but against a southerly wind. The he-dom-paps is a very beautiful bird, the male particularly, whose plumage is variegated with red, black, and white: some of them are green, with red tufts of feathers on their heads,

these are most valuable. The cock may justly be placed in the fowl. He is very some resemblance to a dark grey, and not unlike that of the eagles of Norway, viz. the land and strength; they are to carry off large years old in their former in size, his starts down with arms his destruction, strong for him, the and crooked, prev before his antagonist. The tiur country: he bears son to fierce. There are thirty different, and a great variety numerous. About the wing in large fish-water lakes, cho where they res sensibility, and reviv The Norwegians, amazingly expert to take the birds down; all which pro them. When these flocks, two of them to a moderate length, with a net fixed to the mouth of the holes in flight, which are by them will suffer themselves of their nests. They are pushed on by the flies at a proper station; and the second of the rope which they arrive at the part of one of these m withstanding their happens, he drags h both perish in the lowered down, by rope, over dreadful wife attended with the loose fragments by his descent, fall at others, the ro pointed stones, he among the rocks.

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these are most valuable: the hens are generally of
 this-grey. The cock of the wood is a noble bird,
 may justly be placed at the head of the Norwegian
 fowl. He is very large, and in the bill and feet
 some resemblance to the wild Turkey-cock: his
 is a dark grey, approaching to black, and his
 not unlike that of a pheasant.

The eagles of Norway, of which there are two
 the land and the sea, are of a prodigious
 and strength; the first of these having been
 down to carry off lambs, kids, and even children of
 years old in their talons. The sea-eagle surpasses
 former in size, his chief food is fish, upon which
 starts down with amazing velocity: but this often
 his destruction, for when he strikes a large fish,
 strong for him, the form of his talons, which are
 and crooked, prevents him from disengaging him-
 before his antagonist dives, whereby he is always
 owned. The tiuren is also an inhabitant of this
 country: he bears some resemblance to an eagle, but
 not so fierce.

There are thirty different kinds of thrushes in Nor-
 way, and a great variety of hawks. The swallows are also
 very numerous. About the latter end of summer they
 wing in large flights, and plunge themselves into
 shallow lakes, choosing a place filled with reeds and
 sedges, where they remain all the winter in a state of
 insensibility, and revive again in the spring.

The Norwegians, who reside upon the sea-shore,
 are amazingly expert in climbing the steepest rocks in
 order to take the birds, with their eggs, feathers, and
 down; all which prove of the utmost advantage to
 them. When these bird-men intend to climb the
 rocks, two of them tie themselves together with a rope
 of a moderate length, each having a pole in their hands
 with a net fixed to the end; this net is applied to the
 mouth of the holes from whence the birds take their
 flight, which are by these means secured; but some of
 them will suffer themselves to be taken with the hand
 out of their nests. The man who first begins to climb
 is pushed on by the pole of his comrade, till he ar-
 rives at a proper standing place, where he fixes him-
 self; and the second man clammers up by the assistance
 of the rope which is tied round the waist of his fel-
 low. In this manner they proceed alternately, till
 they arrive at the place most frequented by the birds.
 If one of these men makes a false step, which, not-
 withstanding their great care and dexterity, too often
 happens, he drags his companion down with him, and
 both perish in the fall. Sometimes these men are
 lowered down, by upwards of a hundred fathom of
 rope, over dreadful precipices; which method is like-
 wise attended with the utmost danger, for sometimes
 the loose fragments of the rock, being put in motion
 by his descent, fall upon, and crush him to death; and
 at others, the rope being cut asunder by the sharp
 pointed stones, he is precipitated and dashed in pieces
 among the rocks. The farmers in the northern dis-

tricts train their dogs to assist them in bird catching, and
 these animals will take birds from holes almost in-
 accessible.

There is scarcely a fish to be named which is not
 found in the lakes, rivers, or seas of Norway, and
 the latter is the habitation of several extraordinary
 monsters, a description of which we shall add for the
 satisfaction of the reader; but shall first take notice of
 the prodigious shoals of herrings which annually come
 from under the ice at the north pole, where they breed,
 to the western coasts of Norway. These fish are the
 prey of the whale, porpoise, shark, &c. which pursue
 them along shore into inlets and creeks, where they
 may be taken up by pails. One of these shoals ex-
 tends a considerable way in length and breadth, and
 will reach from the bottom to the surface of the water,
 even in the depth of two hundred fathoms. These
 fish are in the greatest perfection from Christmas to
 Candlemas; at which season the country people as-
 semble in multitudes on the sea-shore with their boats,
 casks, fishing-tackle, and salt. Three hundred boats,
 within the compass of a mile, may meet with employ-
 ment for a whole month; and frequently, at one single
 cast, a fisherman will take more fish than he can dis-
 pose of. About the latitude of Iceland the herrings
 divide themselves into three bodies; one of which sup-
 plies the western isles and coast of Scotland; a second
 directs its course round the eastern parts of Great-Bri-
 tain down the channel; and the third enters the Baltic
 through the Sound. The cod fishery is another great
 source of wealth to the Norwegians; and this, toge-
 ther with the herring-fishery, is computed to employ
 and maintain above 150,000 people.

The coasts of Norway abound in shell fish, among
 which are exceeding fine rock oysters; and on the
 west side of this country is found the pearl mussel.

There are seven different species of whales found in
 the Norwegian seas, whither they follow the herrings
 and other fish. The largest of these resembles the cod,
 having small eyes, a dark marble skin, and white belly.
 They measure seventy feet in general from head to
 tail, sometimes more, and the water, which they take
 in by inspiration, they spout out again through two
 apertures or holes in the back part of the head.
 Their throats are exceedingly narrow in proportion to
 their size; their tails are placed horizontally, and un-
 der the skin the flesh is covered with fat two or three
 feet thick, which is called the blubber. The whales
 copulate like land animals, and the female brings forth
 one, and sometimes two at a birth, about nine or ten
 feet long. Besides small insects, which float in my-
 riads upon the water, they feed upon cod, herring, and
 divers other fish, which they drive together in shoals,
 and swallow in such amazing numbers, that their
 bellies are distended almost to bursting, in which case
 they roar most hideously from pain. Numberless are
 the enemies which encounter the whale. The
 thresher fastens on his back, and beats him without
 inter-

intermission; while another, called the saw-fish, furnished with a sharp horn, assaults him from below, and frequently rips open his belly. The spekhuggeren, a species of porpoise, having very long and sharp teeth, bites and tears the flesh from his body; and, when he comes up to the surface, he is assaulted by divers birds of prey. In the midst of these tortures he roars most dreadfully, and leaps so as to raise himself perpendicular above the sea, and then plunges down again with such violence, that, if he happens to be in shallow water, where there are rocks, he usually fractures his skull, and comes floating up quite dead.

A species of shark are found in these seas, called haac-mæren, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train-oil. The tuella-flynder is shaped like a turbot, but exceedingly broad. It is reported that a fisherman in striking at one of these fish happened to fall overboard, and sink to the bottom, upon which the tuella-flynder immediately dived and spread his enormous body over the man to prevent his rising again; and he must have been inevitably drowned, though there was only between two and three fathom water, if his companions in the boat, who saw all that passed, had not drove the fish away with their boat-hooks. The rana-piscatrix, or sea-devil, is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion, found in the seas of Norway, is about four feet long, with a head larger than the whole body. The aspect of this animal is frightful: he has a wide mouth, monstrous jaws, and his bite is said to be poisonous.

It is now a generally received opinion that the kraken, or korven, and the sea-snake or serpent of the ocean, are no longer the fictitious productions of travellers and authors, but that these monsters really exist in the seas of Norway. The first of these is of the polypus kind, and supposed to be about a mile and a half in circumference. In summer, when the Norwegian fishermen find no more than twenty or thirty fathoms water, where the depth is usually eighty or a hundred, they are certain that the kraken is below them, and if, by their lines, they perceive that he rises, they row away with the greatest expedition. As soon as part of the kraken has attained the surface of the water, it has the appearance of a number of small islands, interspersed with sand banks, covered with sea-weeds, and abounding with a great variety of small fish. On his further emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ rise upon his back, as large and as high as the masts of a moderate vessel; by means of these arms, or tentacula, he moves himself and gathers in his food, which consists of small fish. Having remained a short time in this situation, he begins to sink again, and, though the motion is very slow and gradual, it produces a dangerous swell and whirlpool in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs in the parish of Alstahong,

where it had by some means entangled itself, and the stench of the putrified carcase was for some time great, that it rendered the channel impassable.

In 1756, a sea-snake was shot at by a master of a Norwegian vessel. The head of this monster resembled that of a horse; the mouth was very large and thick as were the eyes; and a long white mane hung down from its neck and floated upon the sea. Besides the head, which this animal held about two feet above the surface of the water, they saw seven or eight coils of him, about the distance of a fathom one from another, and each about the size of a hoghead. Immediately upon its being shot at, this snake disappeared, though it was undoubtedly wounded, as the water for some space was tinged with blood.

Egede, an author of veracity, says, that on the 6th of July 1734, a large and frightful sea monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship: that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale: that the body seemed to be covered with scales, the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. Though it is impossible to ascertain the exact dimensions of this frightful animal, yet from the testimony of numbers who have seen it, it is natural to suppose, that he is a hundred fathoms in length, and the circumference of his body as large as that of an hoghead. His skin, which he is said to shed annually, is smooth and variegated like tortoiseshell, and his excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is so corrosive, that if the seamen touch it, their hands immediately blister. The sailors suppose that this creature has an exquisite sense of smelling, from his avoiding a vessel which has castor on board; for which reason all masters of ships provide themselves with that drug, to prevent being overset or sunk, the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite.

The mer-man and mer-maid, are likewise said to reside in the Norwegian seas, and in 1719 one of the males of this species was found dead on a point of land in Norland. This animal was of a dark grey colour, with a face resembling, in some respects, that of a man; the mouth was large, the nose flat, the forehead high; the eyes were exceeding small, and it had neither chin nor ears. The arms, which were short and without joints or elbows, were fastened to the sides by a thin membrane, and terminated in members somewhat like a human hand, having the fingers connected by a membrane. The body tapered into a fish's tail, like that of a porpoise, which it always kept under water, and the length extended to three fathoms. The mer-maid is formed in the same manner, except the difference of sex, which is distinguished like that of the human race, and they have breasts at which they suckle their young. These creatures have been seen in different parts of the North, and are of various sizes, from two feet to three fathom.

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With regard to the sufficient to observe way yield plentiful the whole country support half its inhabitants, and hops, are great degree of success the Norwegians in every other kitchen and; but, by taking their own lands, they force these salutary petition as in other numbers of plants them peculiar to the plenty of excellent among the other called by the botanists Here are many which some of the sea, and deem it an As the Curvy is nature hath bountiful profusion of antiscorbutic, gentian, crellin, but to counterbalance abundance with many plants, that are present That admirable grows here, was removed the year 1652, in manner, to the present The story of this tradition On the first day fathers made an expedition their father's house, shooting, fishing, &c. tion of fishing for trout, they rowed, in on the said lake. equal of wind could drive to the shore for them. As neither saw themselves successful island, and with mankind. Their first care small stones, that screened from the towards the close of being whetted to industriously sought cured to eat the of an ounce twice could find at one of their spirits refreshed began to seize the abated. Eleven d

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With regard to the vegetable productions, it will be sufficient to observe, that the cultivated parts of Norway yield plentiful crops of barley, oats, and rye; but the whole country does not produce corn sufficient to support half its inhabitants. Peas, buck-wheat, hemp, flax, and hops, are propagated there, but not with any great degree of success. Till within these few years the Norwegians imported their roots, cabbages, and every other kitchen vegetable from England and Holland; but, by taking some pains in the culture of their own lands, they now have gardens which produce these salutary necessaries of life in as much perfection as in other northern countries. There are numbers of plants which grow wild; and many of them peculiar to the country. The meadows afford plenty of excellent pasture for sheep and cattle; and among the other kinds of grasses found there, is that called by the botanists *viola canina*, described below.

Here are many wild plants, the infusion of one of which some of the inhabitants drink in the manner of tea, and deem it an admirable pectoral.

As the scurvy is a prevailing disorder in Norway, nature hath bountifully supplied that country with a profusion of antiscorbatic herbs, such as angelica, rose-mart, gentian, crests, tresails, sorrel, scurvy-grass, &c. but to counterbalance these conveniences, Norway abounds with many noxious and poisonous herbs and plants, that are prejudicial both to men and cattle.

That admirable grass, called *viola canina*, which grows here, was rendered particularly famous by having, in the year 1652, contributed, in a most astonishing manner, to the preservation of two Norway youths. The story of this transaction is as follows:

On the first day of August, in the said year, two brothers made an excursion of about seven leagues from their father's house, to take their pleasure in hunting, shooting, fishing, &c. After having enjoyed the diversion of fishing for the space of four days, in the lake of Riff, they roved, in a little skiff, to a very small island on the said lake. While they staid here a sudden squall of wind occasioned the skiff to break loose, and drive to the shore, where their dog stood waiting for them. As neither of the youths could swim, they saw themselves suddenly abandoned to famine, on a desolate island, and sequestered from all intercourse with mankind.

Their first care was to build a kind of hut, with small stones, that they might, in some degree, be screened from the inclemency of the weather. Towards the close of the second day, their appetites being whetted to the keenest sense of hunger, they industriously sought some vegetable food, and ventured to eat the *viola canina*, each to the amount of an ounce twice a day; and this was all that they could find at one search. Their stomachs were eased, their spirits refreshed, and the acute pains which had begun to seize their arms and shoulders immediately abated. Eleven days did they subsist on this vegetable,

but it failed on the twelfth, and they were reduced to the brink of despair; when they accidentally found a little spot overgrown with sorrel, which they consumed at one meal: nevertheless it was re-produced in less than twenty-four hours, and the devout young men, with tears of gratitude to heaven, owned it as an interposition of Providence in their behalf.

During the first days of their suffering they had called and beckoned to their dog, and used every possible allurement to induce that animal to swim over, that they might kill him for their subsistence, but he would not obey their signals. They were now reduced to such a weak condition that they could not stand, and could hardly make shift to creep from their hut in quest of the sorrel: The eldest was seized with a violent palpitation of the heart; and the youngest carved their names, and a short account of the sad accident they had met with, upon a piece of timber, pointing out, at the same time, a text of the psalms, on which he requested that their funeral sermon might be preached. Then having joined in fervent prayer, they embraced each other, and became perfectly resigned to their approaching fate.

Their dog, in the mean time, having carried eight days with their baggage on the shore, returned to their father's house, where he refused food, and incessantly moaned in a most dismal manner: hence the parents concluded that their sons had met with some misfortune, and dispatched a man in search of them. The messenger arrived at the lake, found their baggage, and concluding they were drowned, returned with the melancholy tidings. On the thirteenth day of their being on the island, and after having resigned every hope of relief, they heard the trampling of horses feet, and exerting their utmost efforts, they called out loud enough to be heard. The travellers immediately came to the shore, and, having found the skiff, humanely put off to the island, where they found the brothers almost exhausted. The eldest, when food was offered him, could scarce bear the smallest portion; and, after being conveyed to his father's house, remained for some time in great danger; but at length recovered, and survived this disaster thirty-seven years. The younger recovered his strength somewhat sooner, and afterwards drew up this narrative as a pious acknowledgment of God's providence in their favour.

Common fruits grow tolerably well here; but the superior sort but very indifferently. No way, however, produces a great variety of excellent berries, such as juniper-berries, sun-berries, gooseberries, barberries, cranberries, coriander-berries, raspberries, black-berries, bilberries, strawberries, &c.

With respect to the stones of Norway, they have a brown pebble, which easily decays; black, white, blue, grey, and variegated marble; alabaster, chalk-stone, cement-stone, sand-stone, mill-stone, baking-stone, load-stone, slate, talc, amianthus or asbestos, swine-stone or a kind of crystal, real crystals, granates,

amethysts, agates, various kinds of spars, thunder-stones, and eagle-stones. The eagle-stone is very singular, and seems to consist of several shells, or crusts, laid one over another: but that which distinguishes it from all others is its being hollow in the inside, in which cavity there is another stone that is smaller. This, when it is shaken, may be heard to rattle. It is of various colours, as white, grey, dun, or brown. Modern authors mention only three sorts of this stone; the first of which is rough on the outside, and is of different colours, but commonly of a black dun. This makes a very distinct noise when rattled. The second is of an ash colour, and contains a sort of marle in the inside, which is sometimes white, yellow, red, or blue; the outside is rough and sandy, and seems to consist of the particles of flint. A third is of several colours, but has the like contents as the former. The first kind is no larger than a peach-stone, but the other two are often as large as a man's fist. These sort of stones are found in most parts of the country.

The curiosities of Norway are only natural, consisting of stupendous mountains, caverns, water-falls, and whirlpools. The most remarkable vortex, or whirlpool, is on the coast, lat. 67, called Malestrom or Moskoelstrom, and, by navigators, the navel of the sea. Moskoe, the island from whence this whirlpool takes its name, belongs to the district of Lofoden, in the province of Norland, lying between the mountains Helsinggen in Lofoden, and the island Ver, which are about a league distant; and between the island and coast, on each side, the stream makes its way. Between Moskoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but, between Moskoe and Ver, it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moskoe with a boisterous rapidity; and, at ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts, and is heard at many leagues distance. At the same time, it forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; so violent, that, if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirlpool, and there disappears, being absorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed into pieces against the rock; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for a quarter of an hour, the wreck rises again, but in fragments so small as scarcely to be distinguished for parts of a ship. When the natural fury of this vortex is heightened by a storm, it is dangerous for a vessel to venture within a league of it. Whales, and even land animals, in attempting to swim from the coast to the island, have sometimes, notwithstanding their utmost efforts and hideous bellowings, been absorbed in the vortex, and destroyed. If brutes are thus affected by the view of their approaching danger, how must it affect a whole ship's crew with horror, when, beholding themselves on the brink of inevitable destruction, they cry out for that help which they know cannot be obtained; and see be-

fore them the dreadful abyfs in which they are about to be plunged, and dashed among the rocks at the bottom of the water. Bears, in their attempts to swim to the island, to prey upon the sheep, have frequently experienced the same fate.

The inhabitants of Norway are a middling kind of people, between the simplicity of the Greenlanders and the Icelanders, and the more polished manners of the Danes. In their persons, the men are well formed, tall, and robust. The women are likewise tall, but of good shapes and comely features, and are remarkable for their fair. They are an honest, hospitable, and ingenious people, but, at the same time, rath, quarrelsome, and litigious.

Every man is in some degree a soldier, and the method of deciding their quarrels, even among the farmers, is by single combat with their knives. There is no nation where the nobility and merchants live better than in Norway, but the lower class subsist in a very frugal manner. Their common bread is made of oatmeal, and, when that is scarce, they mix it with the bark of the fir or elm tree, ground into powder, which composition they make hasty pudding and soup; the latter being enriched with the addition of a pickle of herring, or salted mackerel. Fish, grouse, partridges, hares, red deer, and rein deer, form their summer provisions, as the flesh of cows, sheep, and goats, pickled, smoked, or dried, does their winter. Their common drink is a liquor made from four whey, which they call cyre, mixed with water; but, against festivals and holidays, they have always a reserve of strong ale, with the use of which, at such times, they indulge themselves even to intoxication; and this excess, added to the natural warmth of their tempers, seldom fails to produce bloodshed, if not murder. They are remarkable for longevity, nothing being more common than to see a peasant of an hundred years of age following his profession with alacrity and cheerfulness; and, in the year 1733, four men, together with their wives, danced before his Danish Majesty at Frederickshall, whose ages, when added together, exceeded 800 years.

Some few, by temperance taught, approaching slow
To distant fate, by easy journies go;
Gently they lay them down, as evening sheep
On their own woolly fleeces, softly sleep.
So noiseless would I live, such death to find,
Like timely fruit not shaken by the wind,
But ripely dropping off the sapless bough,
And dying, nothing to myself would owe.
'Tis daily changing, with a duller taste
'Tis lessening joys, I by degrees would haste;
So'll quitting ground by unperceiv'd decay,
And steal myself from life, and melt away.

Some of the Norwegians, however, are subject to

gout, epilepsy, rheumatism, &c.
Both sexes wear jackets, and gaiters; those of the nobility wear silken gaiters, and those of the lower rank wear leather gaiters, and those of the middle rank wear cloth gaiters.
The men, except upon their bosoms, but fit heat into them, with their health. In winter, they wear, snow shoes, and are well at an amazing rate. The Norwegian soldiers, though they have their own horses, they are not allowed to ride. They are very good at the game of skating, and they are very good at the game of playing the guitar, and the fiddle. Their houses are in general built of pine-tree laid upon the ground, and at the corners; the windows, but a square foot, and letting in the light, and letting in the cold. The edifices, and houses, are built of stone.
There is a tincture of opium, which they play on the harp, and while the country is in a state of war, it is often done in a boat. The rude Irish ask whether his wife and children are well, and whether such questions, for the sake of forgiveness of the sins of the deceased.
The Norwegians profess the Lutheran religion. Their church is governed by a bishop, and four bishops, Drontheim, and four bishops, Staffanger, Hamar, and Trondheim. The same language that is spoken in the whole of the kingdom is that of the Danes. Their commerce is not very extensive, but we shall particularly mention their export of iron, lead, copper, iron, lead, silver, tin, skins, fox-skins, ermines, marten-skins, ling, salmon, lobster, butter, tallow, train oil, glass, tar, nuts, and other commodities imported from the East Indies. We are assured, from the account of a brave soldier, that the annual revenue of the kingdom is 1,000,000 rix-dollars, and, till the

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gout, epilepsy, rheumatism, catarrha, leprosy,
ery, &c.
Both sexes wear jackets, girt round them with lea-
thorn belts; those of the women being adorned with
aments of silver, and their hair, caps, and handker-
chiefs, are decorated with small plates, rings, and but-
tons of the same metal, if they can afford it, and, if
not, its place is supplied by brass and tin. Those in
poverty likewise wear silver chains round their necks.
The men, except upon particular occasions, never cov-
er their bosoms, but suffer the wind, rain, and snow,
to beat into them, without receiving the least injury in
their health. In winter, they wear buskins made of
sheep's hair, saow shoes, and long skaitis, with which they
are shod at an amazing rate; and it is said, that a corps of
Norwegian soldiers, thus accoutred, will outmarch the
best of the British horses. Their usual diversions are riding,
skating, blowing the horn, or playing upon
the fiddle, the guitar, and the violin, and in making verses.
Their houses are in general made of the trunks of fir
trees, laid upon each other, and joined by mor-
tise joints at the corners; some have neither chimnies nor
windows, but a square hole on the top, for admitting
light, and letting out the smoke. The church,
public edifices, and houses of the people of fashion, are
built of stone.
There is a tincture of Paganism in their funeral cere-
monies: they play on the violin at the head of the cof-
fin, and while the corpse is carried to church, which
is often done in a boat. In some places, the mourners
(the rude Irish) ask the dead person why he died;
whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and
whether such questions, frequently kneeling down, and
asking forgiveness of the deceased, if they had ever
offended him.
The Norwegians profess the Lutheran religion.
Their church is governed by an archbishop, who resides
at Drontheim, and four suffragans, whose sees are Ber-
gen, Staffanger, Hammer, and Christiana. They speak
the same language that is used in Denmark; but their
original tongue is that of Iceland.
Their commerce differs little from that of Denmark,
which we shall particularize in our description of that
kingdom. Their exports amount annually to 100,000
Rix-dollars; and consist of wrought and unwrought
copper, iron, lead, marble, mill-stones, cow-hides,
bear-skins, fox-skins, seal-skins, bear-skins, beavers,
ermine, masts, deal boards, timber, herrings,
cod, ling, salmon, lobsters, flounders, down, swathers,
walrus, tallow, train oil, juniper, and other berries,
glass, tar, nots, alum, vitriol, pot-ashes, &c. The
commodities imported chiefly consist of luxurious arti-
cles, and most of the necessaries of life.
We are assured, from the best calculations, that Nor-
way can furnish out 14,000 excellent seamen, and above
10,000 brave soldiers, for the use of their king. The
royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near
1,000,000. and, till his present Majesty ascended the

throne, the army, instead of being expensive, added
considerably to his income, by the subsidies it brought
him in from foreign potentates.
The principal cities in Norway are Christiana, Ber-
gen, Christiansand, Konigsberg, Frederickshall, Fre-
derickstadt, and Drontheim.
Christiana, considered as the chief city of Norway,
is thirty miles distant from the Baltic, situated on the
west side of a bay, and defended by the castle of Ag-
gerhus. It is a large and regular city, the buildings
in general are good, and some of them elegant. Its
trade is considerable; and, in the year 1636, an aca-
demy was established here, but it has lately declined,
and is now little better than a public school.
Bergen, the capital of Norway, is 127 miles distant
from Christiana, to the north-west. This is a consi-
derable city and port on the German ocean, and carries
on a very large trade. It stands in the middle of a
valley, forming a semicircle, or rather horse-shoe, on the
shore of a bay called Waag, and is the principal place
of trade in this kingdom. On the land side it is de-
fended from any attack by a range of lofty mountains,
and, towards the sea, the harbour is defended by several
strong fortifications. There were formerly no less than
thirty churches and convents in Bergen; but, at pre-
sent, there are only six. All the churches, public
structures, and most of the burghers houses, are of
stone. The castle is a considerable building, which,
together with the school built and endowed for twelve
scholars in the year 1554, by bishop Petri, and the Fre-
derick seminary, are worth notice. The number of
inhabitants are computed at 30,000. It is the see of a
bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Drontheim.
Christiansand, so called from Christian IV. of Den-
mark, and the sandy beach on which it is situated.
The city is of a quadrangular form, has broad and regular
streets, and a good town-house. It is advantageously
situated, and has a pretty good trade. In 1734, the
church and the greater part of the city were reduced to
ashes by an accidental fire.
Konigsberg is more remarkable for the silver mines
in its neighbourhood, than for its buildings. It has,
however, some good houses, and a few public edifices.
Frederickshall is situated on the Categate, at the
mouth of the river Glammen, and carries on a pretty
good trade. It is well fortified, and is considered as the
key of the kingdom. Charles XII. of Sweden besieged
this place in December 1718, but was killed by a shot
from the ramparts, as he was viewing the trenches,
about nine at night.
Frederickstadt is a considerable place, well fortified,
and situated on the frontiers of Sweden. It carries on
an extensive trade, and some of the buildings are neat
and elegant.
Drontheim, situated on a little gulf at the mouth of
the river Nider, is about 220 miles distant from Bergen
to the north-east. This was formerly the capital, where
the kings of Norway resided, and the city had once ten
churches

churches and five convents; but, at present, there are only two churches, and a chapel belonging to the hospital. The cathedral, a beautiful structure, was burnt in 1530, except the choir, which still remains. It is fortified on the land side, and its harbour is defended by Monkholm fort, erected on a rock surrounded by the sea. There is a good Latin school, a mission seminary, an orphan house, an infirmary, and an hospital. It carries on a considerable trade in timber, fish, coarse cloths, and copper from the neighbouring works at Meldal and Roraas.

The ancient Norwegians were certainly a very brave and powerful people, and the hardiest seamen in the world. If we may believe their histories, they were no strangers to America long before it was discovered by Columbus. Many customs of their ancestors are yet discernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent descents, and some settlements, which are generally confounded with those of the Danes. When the two kingdoms of Denmark and Norway were united under one monarch, by the marriage of Aquin, King of Norway, with Margaret, Queen of Denmark, in the year 1376, the people of both nations enjoyed considerable privileges; but, from the time that the Danish government became absolute, Norway has been governed by a viceroy, who presides in the supreme court of judicature, and regulates his conduct according to the laws of Denmark. Since the union, from the most turbulent, they are become now the most loyal subjects in Europe; which we can easily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings when a separate people. We must refer to Denmark for further particulars relating to their history, and shall conclude this part with the character of the peasantry of Norway, and a view of the present state of the country, extracted from Mr. Coxe's Travels into Poland, &c.

"The Norwegians, being the same race with the Danes, and so long connected with them in religion and government, speak the same language, with a necessary mixture of provincial expressions. Wilsø, a native of Norway, informs us, that the gentry and inhabitants of the principal towns, allowing for a few provincial expressions, speak purer Danish than is usual even in Denmark, not excepting Copenhagen; that the inhabitants of the eastern confines bordering on Sweden naturally blend many Swedish words; that, throughout the whole country, the general accent and cadence is more analogous to the Swedish than to the Danish pronunciation: and that the inhabitants on the western coasts, who have a more constant communication with the Danes, partake less of this peculiarity.

"The people of this country maintain their own army, which consists of 24,000 infantry, and 6,000 cavalry. The troops are much esteemed for their bravery, and, like the Swiss mountaineers, exceedingly attached to their country. The horses which supply their ca-

valry are small, but strong, active, and hardy. Every peasant (those excepted who inhabit the coasts, and are classed as sailors) not born in a town, or upon a noble estate, is by birth a soldier, and enrolled for service at the age of sixteen. From that year till he has attained the age of twenty-six, he is classed in the militia. At twenty-six he enters into the old militia, and continues till thirty-six, at which period he receives his discharge. The militia take the field every year in the month of June, and remain encamped about a month.

"The Norwegians are blessed with a particular law, called the Norway Law, compiled by Griefffeldt, the command of Christian the Fifth, the great legislator of his country. By this law, the palladium of Norway, the peasants are free, a few only excepted on certain noble estates near Frederickstad. But the vigour of this law extends itself even to those serfs, for no proprietor can have more than one of these private estates; and unless he possesses a title or certain rank, and resides on his estate, he loses his privilege, and peasants are free. The benefits of the Norway law are so visible in its general effects on the happiness in the appearance of the peasants, that a traveller would be blind who does not instantly perceive the difference between the free peasants of Norway and the entire vassals of Denmark, though both living under the same government.

"Many of the peasants pretend to be descended from the ancient nobles, and some even from the royal line: they greatly pride themselves upon this supposed descent, and are careful not to give their children in marriage but to their equals in birth and blood.

"A curious custom prevails in Norway, called the right, or right of inheritance, by which the property of certain freehold estates may re-purchase his estate, which either he or any of his ancestors have sold, provided he can prove the title of his family. But, in order to enforce his claim, his ancestors, or he, must have declared every tenth year, at the sessions, that they lay claim to the estate, but that they want money to redeem it; and if he, or his heirs, are able to obtain a sufficient sum, then the possessor must, on receiving the money, give up the estate to the odels-man. For this reason, the peasants, who are freeholders, keep a careful account of their pedigree.

"This custom is attended with advantages and disadvantages. As to the advantages, it fixes the abode of the peasant on his native place, and he improves with pleasure those possessions which are so strongly attached to him: it increases the consequence and value of the industry of his family. On the contrary, the estate loses its value when sold to another person, because he possesses only a precarious estate, which he may be obliged to resign, he is not inclined to improve his lands, as if they were irrecoverably his own.

"The Norwegian peasants possess much spirit and fire in their manner, are frank, open, and undaunted

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active, and hardy. They inhabit the coasts, and in a town, or upon the coast, and enrolled for the militia. From that year till he is sixteen, he is classed in the youth, and enters into the militia. At which period he receives the field every year, and remains encamped about

with a particular discipline, as is observed by Grieffeld. Fifth, the great legislation of the palladium of Norway, only excepted an certain instances. But the virtues of those laws, for no one of these principles has a title or certain privilege, and the rights of the Norway are affected on the happiness of the peasants, that a traveller may perceive the difference between Norway and the English, both living under the same

pretend to be defective, some even from the royal favour upon this subject, to give their children in birth and blood. In Norway, called by which the property may re-purchase his estate, and his ancestors have sold, of his family. But his ancestors, or he, at the fissions, that they want money, are able to obtain, or must, on receiving the odels-man. For the freeholders, keep a

with advantages and stages, it fixes the place, and he improves which are so strongly the consequence and contrary, the other person, because of estate, which he may inclined to improve his own. He possesses much spirit, open, and undaunted

not insolent; never fawning to their superiors, yet paying proper respect to those above them.

Their principal mode of salute is by offering their hand; and, when we gave them or paid them a trifle, the peasants, instead of returning thanks by words or by bow, shook our hands with great frankness and cordiality.

The peasants here are well clothed and well lodged, and appear to possess more comforts and conveniences than any which I have seen in the course of my travels, excepting in some parts of Switzerland.

They weave their ordinary cloth and linen; they make also a kind of stuff like a Scotch plaid. The cloth which the men use for their coats is principally of one colour, with red button-holes, and white metal buttons.

The women, while employed in their household duties, frequently, as in Sweden, appear only with a petticoat and a shift, with a collar reaching to the throat, and a black sash tied round the waist. Their dress is remarkably fine; and, as they are usually well clothed, this mode of dress sets off their shapes to the best advantage.

The common food of the peasant is milk, cheese, and salted fish, and sometimes, but rarely, flesh or meat, oat-bread, called flad-brod, baked in small cakes about the size and thickness of a pancake; it is usually made twice a year. I observed a woman employed in preparing it: having placed over the fire a round iron plate, she took a handful of dough, and rolled it out with a rolling-pin to the size of the iron plate; she then placed it on the plate, and baked it on the side, then turned it on the other with a small stick. In this manner she baked an astonishing number in less than a quarter of an hour; and I was informed that the woman, in one day, can bake sufficient for the family during a whole year. The peasants also, in times of scarcity, mix the bark of trees, usually of the birch tree, with their oatmeal; then dry this bark before the fire, grind it to powder, mix it with some oatmeal, then bake it, and eat it like bread: it is bitterish, and affords but little nourishment.

As a luxury, the peasants eat sharke, or thin slices of meat, sprinkled with salt, and dried in the wind, or hung beef; also a soup made like a hasty-pudding, of oat-meal or barley-meal, and, in order to render it more palatable, they put in it a pickled herring or salted mackerel. The use of potatoes has been lately introduced, but these roots do not grow to any size in a country where the summer is so short.

Fabricius strongly recommends, in times of scarcity, the mosses and lichens, and particularly the *lichen islandicus*, which yields a very nourishing sustenance, and is commonly used for food in Iceland.

According to a series of meteorological observations taken by Mr. Wilsø, pastor of Sydeborg, it snows most in December and in the middle of January. It rains most in April, October, and August. The clearest

weather is during the whole month of March, and from the middle of June to the middle of July. Winds are most violent in the middle and latter end of April, May, and October. The stillest season is in January; from the tenth of June to the eleventh of July, and in the middle of August, a circumstance very profitable to the oat-harvest, which of all corn is more easily subject to cast its ripe grain in windy weather. If we compare the climate of Norway with the climate of London, March at London is like April and the beginning of May in Norway; and the March of Norway is our January. On account of the frequent spring frosts, seeds ought not to be sown in gardens before the twentieth of May; and the frosts of the latter end of August are no less detrimental.

The heat and cold varies so much in Norway, that, in June or July, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer, as observed by Mr. Wilsø at Sydeborg, near Frederickshall, not unusually rises to 88, and, on the first of January 1782, fell to 22, or 54 degrees below the freezing point. At Eger, according to Professor Stroem's observations, it fell, on that same day, to 36½; and, at Konigsberg, to 40, or 72 below the freezing point, a degree of cold by which quicksilver is congealed. This extreme rise and fall of the quicksilver makes a difference of 110 degrees, between the greatest heat and the greatest cold at the same place; a difference much more considerable than is observed at Upsal or Stockholm, which lie nearly in the same latitude as Sydeborg.

In some places vegetation is so quick, that the corn is sown and cut in six or seven weeks. Tillage cannot generally be very flourishing in a country which is in many parts so rocky as to defy the plough; where the climate is so severe, that the hoar-frosts begin in September, and where the cold in the high lands prevents the maturity of the corn. It is true, indeed, that the small vallies, and the intervals between the rocks, are usually provided with a fruitful soil, and that the industry of the peasants covers the naked rocks, and the sandy grounds with a new earth; yet the arable grounds are few, and no parts of Norway yield sufficient corn for interior consumption, the districts of Hedemark, Tøten, and Ringerike, excepted. This deficiency is occasioned by the nature of the climate and soil.

In spring, and in the first summer months, the drought and heat are frequently so intolerable, and the vegetable mould so thin, that the roots of the corn and grasses are burned up, if a few days of sunshine succeed each other without rain. Also the greatest part of the soil is so much blended with sand, that too much rain cannot fall in spring and summer. In autumn, on the contrary, the decreased warmth, and the great quantity of rain, prevents the corn from ripening, and it is frequently cut green. Not unusually, when a favourable season has ripened the corn, the frequent and violent autumnal rains hinder the carrying of it in until it is almost spoiled. Also the small quantity of arable

land seldom lies fallow, but is sowed every year, and therefore requires more manure than can be easily procured.

" All these circumstances so much counteract the industry of the Norwegian farmers, that even in the most favourable seasons, a considerable importation of corn is annually necessary; and in unfavourable harvests the utmost dearth is experienced in all the inland parts, as the transport of the corn from the sea coasts is highly expensive.

" In order to dry the corn exposed to the heavy rains, the peasants fix forked poles, about ten feet high, place rows of other poles transversely, on which they file the sheaves, the lowermost row hanging about two feet from the ground. They are also frequently obliged to bake the corn in wooden sheds, heated by means of stoves.

" As Norway, therefore, does not produce sufficient corn for its own consumption, Denmark enjoys the exclusive privilege of supplying with grain that part called Sudeufields, comprehending the two governments of Aggerhuus and Christianland. This monopoly frequently occasions a scarcity of corn; but though sometimes attended with great inconveniencies and occasional distress, yet will not be abolished without great difficulty, because the Danish nobles, who are always at the head of affairs, find their interest in its continuance.

" But Norway, however deficient in arable land, is exceedingly rich in pasture, and, consequently, produces much cattle. The mode of keeping the cows is similar to that practised in the mountains of Switzerland. About the middle of May they are driven to the meadows; towards the middle of June are sent to pasture on the heights, or in the midst of the forests, where they continue till autumn. The cows are usually attended by a woman, who inhabits a small hut, milks them twice a day, and makes butter and cheese on the spot. On their return the cattle are pastured in the meadows, until the snow sets in about the middle of October, when they are removed to the stables, and fed during winter with four-fifths of straw, and one-fifth of hay. The horses are usually foddered with hay during winter, and are seldom pastured before the beginning of June. In some places the cattle are fed also with salted fish.

" Agriculture has been of late years greatly improved in these parts, and the landed estates are increased, within these last fifty years, near one-third in their value. This improvement is considerably owing to the labours and encouragement of the patriotic society, which gives premiums for the best improvements and instructions in every part of farming.

" The fisheries, particularly on the western coast, furnish employment and wealth to the natives, and are the means of supplying the finest sailors for manning the Danish fleet in times of war.

" The principal fish, which, dried and salted, furnish so considerable an article of exportation, are the cod, the ling, and the whiting: their livers, besides, yield

train oil, and the smallest are given as winter fodder to the cattle.

" The herring fishery is not so profitable as formerly as these fish, which used to frequent the coasts of Norway, in their progress from the north pole, now breed at a greater distance from these shores, and first appear at the rocks of Marstrand and Stroomstrand, which are transferred to the Swedes the principal herring-fishery in these parts, though still sufficient profit accrues to those enterprising fishermen who venture further into the coasts.

" The salmon are taken partly in the bays and partly in the rivers, the streams of which they ascend for the purpose of spawning in spring. This is the most common fish in these parts, and is cured by salting and smoking.

" Mackerel might also be taken in much larger quantities, if many of the Norwegians were not prejudiced against eating them, from a strange notion, that shoals of mackerel often attack and devour the human species when bathing in the sea.

" The extensive forests of Norway, which furnish riches to the proprietors, and so much employment to the natives, are applied to the following purposes:

1. For spars, beams, and planks, which are exported in such large quantities.
2. For charcoal, which is required for the smelting of the ores, for the glass furnaces, and other manufactures. The wood used for this purpose is usually of an inferior sort, and chiefly in the inner parts, where the transport of the planks is too expensive.
3. For building, the greatest part of the houses in Norway being constructed of wood; although there is plenty of stone, yet the transport of the materials, and the lime, are too expensive for common use.
4. For the roads, which, in the more northern parts, are almost entirely formed with wood.
5. For turpentine, for which the oldest trees are most used.
6. For fencing and enclosing the fields, quickset hedges being almost unknown. The wood used for enclosures is chiefly pine or fir, and must be renewed every three or four years.
7. For fuel.
8. For manure, by the same process of burning the trees and manuring the soil with the ashes, which is practised in Sweden, and is so destructive to the forests.

" Besides these general uses derived from the forests, the particular trees are beneficially employed to the following purposes:

" The bark of the pine or fir, and also of the elm, which is not common in Norway, is dried, ground, and mixed among meal, and is boiled up with other food, to feed swine, who thrive much upon it.

" The birch, which flourishes in these northern regions, is particularly useful for various purposes. It is more generally used for fuel than any other wood. The outer bark, or the white rind, on account of its firmness and sap, easily escapes putrefaction even in the dampest places: and, for this reason, is employed for covering the roofs of the houses, in order to keep out the rain.

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[PROPE.]

" This mode of roasting the outwards of the tree is (standing) not unusual while the tree is standing. The inner bark of the tree grows again.

" The inner bark of the tree of oaks, for tanning, which renders more of the tree also useful.

" This tree also furnishes a hole in the process: a hole in the distils into a flask, which does little damage, if the hole is stopped with a wooden peg. The tree and alpen, are given as a cure for the decoction of oak-leaf.

" The general exportation of the dried fish, timber, and alpen, silver, alum, &c.

" The celebrated mine of silver, which is valued at 67,500, and is situated near Arendal.

" Norway is remarkable for the bays fringed with woods, of which we have seen they appear like islands, small, that they appear

C H

D E N

Location, Extent, Boundaries, Population, Cities

" THIS kingdom, which is situated between 56 and 61 degrees north and 8 and 11 degrees west, is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea, and from Sweden to the south by Germany.

" The German Sea, or the Great-Britain. It is divided into the islands of Jutland, anciently called the islands at the end of the table. Though the kingdom of Denmark is generally called by that name, the air is not so pure in some parts of Germany, the southward, being the sea, which surrounds the islands also greatly

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" This mode of roofing occasions such a large consumption of the outward bark, that the birch, which is killed, would not supply a sufficient quantity; it is, therefore, not unusual to strip off the outward bark while the tree is standing, and, if peeled with care, it grows again.

" The inner bark of the birch is applied, like the bark of oaks, for tanning hides, fishing-nets, and sails, which it renders more durable.

" This tree also supplies a kind of wine by the following process: a hole is bored in the trunk, and the wine distils into a flask placed under it. The tree suffers little damage, if the hole is immediately closed by a wooden peg. The twigs of the birch, as well as the elder and aspen, are given to horses in scarcity of fodder. A decoction of oak-leaves in beer is used by the peasants as a cure for the rheumatism, by applying a cloth dipped in the decoction to the part affected.

" The general exports of Norway are tallow, butter, salt, dried fish, timber and plank, horses and horned cattle, silver, alum, Prussian blue, copper, of which the celebrated mine of Roraas yields annually to the value of 67,500*l.* and iron, of which the most productive mine is near Arendal.

" Norway is remarkable for the number and beauty of the bays fringed with wood. Many of the lakes (some of which we have described above) are so large, that they appear like inlets of the sea; and the bays are so small, that they appear like lakes."

CHAP. III.

D E N M A R K.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Produce, Population, Cities, Inhabitants, and History.

THIS kingdom, commonly styled Denmark Proper, is situated between 54 and 58 deg. of north lat. and 8 and 11 deg. of east long. It extends, from north to south, near 240 miles; and the breadth, in some parts, is only about 24, and, in others, near 180. It is bounded on the north from Norway by the Scagerrack sea, and from Sweden on the east by the Sound; on the south by Germany and the Baltic; and, on the west, by the German Ocean, which separates it from Great-Britain. It is divided into two parts; the peninsula of Jutland, anciently called Cimbria Chersonesus, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. Though all these together constitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is separately called by that name.

The air is not so piercing cold in Denmark as it is in some parts of Germany, situated much further to the southward, being here tempered by the vapours of the sea, which surrounds it in almost every part. These vapours also greatly mitigate the heats of summer.

Spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known in Denmark, on account of the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which distinguish the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very severe, so that the inhabitants often pass arms of the sea in sledges upon the ice; and, during the winter, all their harbours are frozen up. The soil, as in all other countries, is various, but principally consists of the sandy and clayey; the former abounds in the islands, and the latter on the continent. The mountains, near their summits, are barren, but the valleys fertile.

Jutland is one of the largest and most fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom, produces abundance of all sorts of grain and pasturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occasions. A great number of small cattle are bred here, and afterwards transported into Holstein, to be fed for the use of Hamburg, Lubeck, and Amsterdam. This province is every-where interspersed with hills, generally barren; and, on the east side, has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, and other trees; but, the west side being less woody, the inhabitants are obliged to use turf and heath for fuel.

Zealand is, for the most part, a sandy soil, but rather fertile in grain and pasturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the surrounding sea, than it is in many more southerly parts of Europe.

In some parts of the country there are large forests, which produce excellent timber, and are full of game. Most of the lakes abound with fish of a very delicate flavour. There are few rivers in Denmark; the most considerable is the Eyder, which rises at the foot of a mountain near Segeberg, and falls into the sea at Toningen.

The Danes have an excellent breed of horses, greatly esteemed for the saddle and carriage; above 5000 are sold annually out of the country, and of their horned cattle near 30,000. Besides numbers of black cattle, they have sheep, hogs, and other useful animals; also plenty of poultry and wild fowl.

In 1559, a numeration was made, by authority of the number of people in his Danish majesty's dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst, in Westphalia, and found it to amount to 2,444,000, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. But the most accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struensee, by which Jutland numbered 258,136; Danish Iceland, 283,466; Funen, 143,988; Norway, 723,141; Islands of Ferro, 4,754; Iceland, 46,201; duchy of Sleswick, 243,605; duchy of Holstein, 134,665; Oldenburgh, 62,854; Delmenhorst, 16,217: in all, 2,017,027. Several of the smaller islands, included in the district of Fionia, are omitted in this computation, which may add a few thousands to it.

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Though the above number may seem disproportioned to his Danish majesty's dominions, yet, every thing considered, it is far greater than could have been expected from their uncultivated state. The nobles of Denmark formerly lived at their country-seats with great magnificence and hospitality, and possessed a degree of courage which approached to ferocity; but by a continual series of tyranny and oppression, their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterprising, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehension. The corruption and arbitrary proceedings of the Danish ministers have greatly shackled the trade of the country; and her merchants are so terrified by the despotism of her government, that, instead of being rich and flourishing, it is at present one of the most indigent and distressed states in Europe. These circumstances prevent Denmark from being so populous as it would otherwise be, if the administration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to those who engage in useful arts and agriculture.

The higher ranks of people value themselves extremely upon those titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and shew. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dress, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contrait of that nation.

The lower class of people are as absolute slaves as the negroes in the sugar islands, and subsist on much coarser provisions. They have not the least piece of furniture of any value in their houses, except featherbeds, which are excellent in Denmark, from the amazing quantity of feathers annually collected.

The warlike genius of the Danes subsists no longer: the common people are timorous and dispirited, nor do they possess that talent for mechanics and natural ingenuity, so remarkable in other nations of the North.

The Danes, like other northern nations, are greatly given to intemperance, in eating, drinking, and other convivial entertainments. There was great reason to hope, at the beginning of his present majesty's reign, that these and several other vicious customs would have been reformed; but these pleasing expectations are now vanished, and the good of the people seems to be forgotten.

The Lutheran doctrine is universally embraced through all Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, so that there is not another sect in these kingdoms. Denmark is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland: but the bishops are, properly speaking, no other than superintendants of the church. They have no cathedrals, ecclesiastical courts, or temporalities. Their business is to inspect the doctrine and morals of the inferior clergy. They are only distinguished from other ministers by their

habit. The revenue of the bishop of Copenhagen amounts to about two thousand six-dollars, and is the richest benefice in the kingdom. The clergy are wholly dependent on the government: they never intermeddle, nor are employed or consulted in civil affairs: they nevertheless have acquired great influence over the minds of the common people, by whom they are greatly revered. Their churches are kept extremely neat, and have organs in them. They preach without notes, and inveigh severely against the vices of the great, whom they scruple not to attack personally. The commonalty admire their courage, and the government connives at their presumption, while they confine themselves to their own province of preaching. They are, generally speaking, men of good morals, exemplary lives, and some erudition.

Literature receives very little encouragement in Denmark, which may be the principal cause of its being more cultivated there, though, it must be confessed, they begin now to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama. This kingdom has formerly produced several men of eminent genius, especially in astronomy and medicine, among whom Tychó Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines, have done honour to their country: but though the university at Copenhagen has funds to the amount of 300,000 six-dollars, for the gratuitous support of students, yet the Danes in general make no proficiency in letters. The language of Denmark is the dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court, and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen, as a necessary part of education. As they are great lovers of music, and encourage it, a company of English comedians occasionally visit the capital, where they meet with a pretty favourable reception.

We shall now proceed to describe the divisions, cities, and towns of this country, with their respective divisions and circumstances.

Denmark is divided into the four following duchies: 1. Jutland, properly so called, or North Jutland. 2. The duchy of Sleswic, or South Jutland. 3. The duchy of Holstein; and, 4. The Danish islands.

JUTLAND PROPER, or North Jutland, is bounded on the south, by the duchy of Sleswic; on the east and west, by the German Ocean; and towards the north, by the Baltic, the Categate, and the Lesser Belt.

This country is divided into four dioceses, viz. Ripen to the south, Ahusen to the east, Wyburg to the west, and Aalborg to the north.

Ripen diocese is bounded, on the south, by the duchy of Sleswic; on the north, by the dioceses of Ahusen and Wyburg; and extends east and west from the Baltic to the German Ocean. It contains 30 prebendary parishes, or bailiwicks, 282 parishes, 10 royal palaces, 100 noblemen's seats, and seven cities, which are as follows:

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the divisions, cities their respective subjects, following duchies or North Jutland, South Jutland, 3. The Danish islands. Jutland, is bounded Sleswic; on the north, and towards the east the Lesser Belt. dioceses, viz. Ripen, Wyburg to the west

South, by the duchy dioceses of Arhus, and west from the It contains 30 parishes, 10 royal palaces, which are as follows: Ripen

Ripen, Rypen, or Ripa, is seated on the river Sleslaw, which, before it comes to this city, divides itself into three branches, the largest of which runs to the north side of the town; the middle branch, which is the smallest, runs on the south of it; the third also on the south, but at some distance; they run again a little lower, and fall into the German Ocean, three miles below, forming a commodious harbour. This city is 26 miles distant from Tonder, towards the north, and 24 from Colding, to the north-west. It is a place of considerable trade: the neighbouring pastures and fields produce abundance of cattle and corn. Hither are driven almost all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are shipped off for foreign countries, especially for Holland; and their corn they export into the neighbouring countries. These articles afford them very great profit. But the city is often exposed to imminent dangers from the tides flowing in with prodigious violence from the sea, so that the water sometimes comes into the very church-yard of the cathedral, which stands on a hill; and even during the terrible inundation that afflicted Jutland in the year 1734, the water rose an ell high in the very cathedral. This town is strong by nature only, without much assistance from art. Towards the west there is a castle marked with four bulwarks, after the old fashion, built in the year 1150. The citizens houses are pretty well built, and the inhabitants were formerly in better circumstances than they are now; but they suffered very much during the wars with Sweden, the city being taken by the Swedes in 1645, but soon after recovered by the Danes. Before the Reformation this was a bishop's see, as it is now of a superintendent or Lutheran bishop. The cathedral is a noble pile, built with free-stone, as well as its steeple, which is square, very high, and covered with lead. This church is adorned within with several marble columns, and with the tombs of some kings. There is another church dedicated to St. Catharine. Here are also two public schools for the education of youth in polite literature, and a college for divinity, in the court of the bishop's palace, where there is also a public library. The city is governed by two burgomasters, or consuls, and by a senate, who formerly administered justice with so much severity, that the justice of Ripen was become proverbial saying, to express a rigorous execution of the law.

Colding, or Kolding, an ancient city mentioned by Ptolemy, stands on the banks of a little river called Coldingger Aa, which parts North Jutland from the duchy of Sleswick, and falls into a little gulf, thence named the Gulf of Colding. The city is about 11 miles distant from Haderleben to the north. It was burnt down during the civil wars in 1247. In 1268, king Eric VI. redeemed it out of the hands of Eric, duke of Sleswick, and son to king Abel. He built a Citadel there, to be a bulwark to Denmark, and forti-

fied the town, especially towards the south. Christian III. who liked the city very much, on account of its agreeable situation, and wholesome air, built the castle of Arnburg, above the city, removed thither with his court, and died there January the 1st, 1559. The hospital was built by Frederick II. whose son endowed it considerably.

In May 1664, the Danes gained a considerable victory over the Swedes near Colding. This town is but small, since it does not contain above 100 or 120 houses; but what makes it chiefly considerable is its bridge over the Aa, which is called Boherrit, and gives name to the whole country about it. All the black cattle and horses that come from Jutland, and go into Sleswick, must pass over this bridge, and pay each a crown for toll; whence arises a considerable part of the king of Denmark's revenue. Though this town lies commodious for trade on the Lesser Belt, over-against Middlefort in Funen, yet they have hardly any trade but in cattle. They have good fish, and the river Aa produces excellent eels.

Frederick's Ode, or Frederici Oda, stands on the banks on the Lesser Belt, 10 miles from Colding to the north-east, and about 27 from Ripen towards the east. It was built by king Frederick III. of Denmark, and is well seated on a point of land, with an easy descent to the sea-ward: it has been well fortified, being a pass over the Lesser Belt, or Middlefort Sound. The works are very high on the land side; and on the other side of the point there are eight bastions: it has four gates, and before each a ravelin, but ruinous. Towards the sea the fortifications are lower, and of a greater extent; where there are bastions, platforms, and some batteries on the shore. These fortifications enclose a great deal of ground, but the fifth part of it is not inhabited, for there are many corn-fields and orchards within the walls. This place was formerly a refuge for bankrupts and Jews; but king Frederick IV. recalled those privileges. Here are two churches, one Danish, and another German, but they have no steeples. In 1658 this town was taken by Charles Gustavus's troops, commanded by Wrangel; the garrison, consisting of 2000 men, were all killed or taken. This opened a way to the king of Sweden to undertake his expedition over the ice from this place to Funen, where the passage over the Belt is above three English miles.

Weil's, or Weel, is six miles distant from Frederick's Ode to the north-west, and about 12 from Colding to the north. It stands on a little river, which falls into a great bay that communicates with the Lesser Belt, and makes a good harbour. The city is neat, and well-built, but not large. About 22 miles to the north-west stands Warde, on a river that falls into the German Ocean, 10 miles below the town, which is conveniently situated for trade.

Ringcoping, or Ringkiohing, is 45 miles from Ripen, and 24 from Warde, to the north. It lies on

a bay of the German Ocean, made by a neck of land 25 miles in length from north to south, so that ships ride in the port safe from all winds.

Lenwick stands on the gulf of Limford (from whence it has its name) on the north-west borders of this diocese, 10 miles from the German Ocean to the east, 56 from Ripen, and 81 from Ringcöping, to the north.

Hofflebrow, or Hoffelbrow, stands about 11 miles from Lenwick to the south-east, and 12 from Ringcöping to the north-east. It is an inland town, but lies on a river which communicates with the German Ocean by a lake, into which the river falls.

Arhusen diocese is the eastern part of Jutland, having on the north the dioceses of Wyburg and Aalburg, on the west and south that of Ripen, and on the east the Categate and Lesser Belt. It extends about 60 miles along the coast of the Baltic, but is not much above 30 miles in breadth at the widest part. It contains 31 prefectorships, or bailiwicks, 304 parishes, five castles, or forts, and eight cities, or walled towns, viz. 1. Arhusen, the capital of the diocese, stands at the mouth of the river Gude, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate. It is 86 miles to the northward of Sleswick, and 42 north-east of Ripen. The situation is pleasant, being surrounded with forests full of game, pastures that are exceeding rich for the country, and fields which produce a considerable quantity of grain. The town itself is neat and agreeable, well furnished with provisions and domestic necessaries from the neighbouring country, and with other commodities and luxuries from various countries, by the means of shipping. The harbour is tolerable, and the cathedral church erected after a curious style of architecture, beautified and embellished with various monuments of noblemen, prelates, &c. The bishop's palace was once a magnificent structure, but is now fallen to decay. The city was made an episcopal see in the year 1014, and is now the see of a superintendent.

2. Scanderburg, six miles from Arhusen to the south-west, is a good fortress, near the spring of the river Gude. 3. Horsens, 12 miles distant from Arhusen to the south-west, is a small city or town situated on a little gulf, which serves it instead of a harbour, and falls into the Baltic. 4. Randers is a very ancient city, situated on the river Gude, which, about 12 miles lower, falls into the Baltic, and thus affords this place a good conveniency for navigation. It is a place of great trade, and famous for the best salmon in Jutland. The neighbouring fields produce plenty of corn. 5. Ebelitot is seated at the bottom of a bay of the Categate, about 18 miles from Arhusen to the north-west. 6. Grinaa stands near the point or cape of a peninsula, which juts out into the Categate, and is seven miles distant from Ebelitot to the north. It is defended by a castle. 7. Mariager stands on the south-side of a large bay of the Categate, 16

miles distant from Arhusen to the north. 8. Hebo or Hebro, is a small town on the same bay, six miles above Mariager to the west.

Wyburg diocese has that of Aalburg on the north from which it is partly separated by the gulf of Limford, Arhusen on the east, and Ripen on the south and west. It is not above 24 miles from east to north, and 26 from east to west, being almost of round figure. Though it is an inland country, yet wants not the conveniency of navigation; for here are large lakes, that branch out into several parts of the land, and from whence, by means of the Limford into which they run, and which communicates with the Baltic Sea, they receive vessels of great burthen. Among these lakes there is one named Otiofunde, from the emperor Otio, surnamed the Great, who, about the year 948, made an inroad this way, penetrating even as far as this country, and, casting his javelin into the water, gave it the name it still retains. The best horses in Denmark are bred in that part of the diocese named Salling. In this territory are comprehended 16 prefectorships, or bailiwicks, 248 parishes, and three garrisons. The most considerable towns are 1. Wyburg, which stands in the middle of North Jutland, of which it is the capital city. It is a place of great resort, being the seat of a high court of justice, which receives the appeals from inferior courts, but none can be made from it, except to the king. This Wyburg has been the see of a bishop for about 600 years; but the exact time cannot be fixed; for it is a matter still disputed whether this or Aalburg is the most ancient. The bishop and chapter still subsist. It stands near a branch of the gulf of Limford, called Virksund, and was anciently called Cimmerburg, being the chief city of the Cimbrici; but whence it has its present name is not certain. 2. Sclève, or Schlehnis, which stands on the same gulf, and is situated 10 miles from Wyburg to the north-west. The peninsula of Salling, surrounded on all sides by the same gulf, except towards the south, is the most notable place in Denmark for fine horses, which are exported by foreigners. 3. Nibe, on the same gulf, 18 miles from Wyburg to the north-east, is also noted for a good breed of horses.

Aalburg diocese is the most northern part of Jutland, and surrounded by the sea on all parts, except on the south, where it is divided from Wyburg and Ripen by the gulf called Limford, which runs from the Baltic Sea above 50 miles across the country, and is shut out of the German Ocean by a narrow isthmus, or neck of land, made by the sand-hills on the west shore of Jutland, over-against a great shoal called Jusche-Riff. This diocese is about 70 miles long, from the south-west to the uttermost point of Schager-Riff in the north-east; but as it is of a triangular form, its breadth is not equal every-where, being but about 10 miles where broadest. The north part of this diocese, which is cut off by the gulf (for the city of Aalburg

on the south-side of Latin authors Vandol the seat of the Vandals the king of the country is fruitful, and is divided into 13 bishoprics, 100 castles, &c. 1. Aalburg; for vessels taken in the gulf with shore of it, about the year 1060; but the glow, whence the diocese of Burglaw; but the bishops have been Wenfusal, or Burglaw, which 14 miles lower, in which this city is built. It was formerly removed to Aalburg, as the inhabitants, or cape, which is the northern land of Jutland, and the Categate, more frequented by more than any other place here in their world be far greater than any coast it lies on. The city of Mors, made by the sea, is a considerable town. 5. Tyne diocese, stands near the middle of the German Ocean and gulf of Jutland, a beautiful place of this kind of university, which is founded by Christian the first, a port town on the coast of Schagen, towards

SLESWICK, or Sleswick, is a city dependent on the king, in the year 1128, King Henry Canute, the third, afterwards deprived of it, and the Fifth re-uniting it to the king, about 86 miles in length, surrounded by Jutland or the duchy of Schleswig, on the German Ocean on the west, and several streams, which divide the most parts; and in general, the western, and in the north, which produce a great quantity of the nobility here are very much enjoy a great share of the land, which is divided into four ci-

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on the south-side of it) is called Wensful, and Latin authors Vandalia, whence some apprehend it the seat of the Vandals. The inhabitants are the subject of the king of Denmark's subjects. The country is fruitful, and pretty well enriched by trade. It is divided into 13 bailiwicks, which contain 177 parishes, 100 castles, and the following cities; and is bounded by the sea on the north, the Baltic on the east, and the gulf of Limford on the south. 1. Aalborg, so called from the great quantity of seals taken in the gulf of Limford, stands on the north-west of it, about six miles from the Categate to the west. It is the see of a bishop, founded about the year 1060; but the bishops resided anciently at Burglaw, whence the diocese was then called the diocese of Burglaw; but since the reformation, the Lutheran bishops have had their palace at Aalborg. Wensful, or Burglaw, stands on the river Ryaa, which, 14 miles lower, falls into the gulf of Limford, from which this city is as many miles distant to the west. It was formerly the see of a bishop, which has been removed to Aalborg. 3. Schagen, Scagen, or Scagen, as the inhabitants call it, is seated on the promontory, or cape, which it gives name to; and is the chief northern land of Jutland, betwixt the Norwegian and the Categate, or Schager-Rack. The town is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe than any other town in Jutland, because they come here in their way to the Sound. Its trade would be far greater still, were it not for the dangerous coast it lies on. 4. Nikioping situated in the bay of Mors, made by the gulf of Limford, is a considerable town. 5. Tyfted, on the south-west part of this diocese, stands near 30 miles from Aalborg to the west, in the middle of the isthmus made by the German Ocean and gulf of Limford, which is the most fruitful place of this district. This town is noted for a kind of university, which was first a free-school only, founded by Christian the Third. 6. Seebj is a small seaport town on the eastern shore, 15 miles distant from Schagen, towards the south-west.

SLESWICK, or SOUTH JUTLAND, is an ancient duchy dependent on the kingdom of Denmark; for, in the year 1128, king Nicolas the First gave it to his nephew Canute, the son of Eric. Denmark was afterwards deprived of it; but, in the year 1459, Christian the First re-united it to that kingdom. It is about 86 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, being bounded by Jutland on the north, by the Baltic on the east, by the duchy of Holstein on the south, and by the German Ocean on the west. It is watered by several streams, which render it exceeding fruitful in most parts, and in general abounds in meadows and pastures. The eastern parts lie considerably higher than the western, and in the latter there are large plains, which produce a great plenty of all sorts of corn. The nobility here are rich, and the common people enjoy a great share of independence. This duchy is divided into four circles, viz. Gottorp, Tonderon,

Flensburg, and Hadersleben. The principal cities and towns are the following. 1. Sleswick, the capital of the whole duchy, which is situated on a small arm of the sea, called the Sley, at the distance of about 38 miles from Gluckstadt to the north-east, and 28 from Lemden to the east. Christianity was established here in the ninth century, and the great church founded by Eric Barn, in conjunction with St. Anshar, bishop of Hamburg; and in the year 930, king Harold Blatand erected an episcopal see. Afterwards the Slavonians invaded these parts in the year 1065, destroyed the church, and restored the pagan superstitions; but soon after these foreigners were expelled, Christianity was restored, and the cathedral rebuilt. In the next century, it became a place of great trade, and much frequented by merchants from Great-Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c. The soil, especially towards the south and east, is not very fruitful; but the town is sufficiently supplied with all necessaries of life from the neighbouring country, and the Sley affords abundance of fish. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable; but they import some from abroad, as well as wine, which is pretty cheap. Among the public buildings is a ducal palace, which they shew to strangers; it does not contain much that is worthy of notice, except a library, which contains a few ancient manuscripts; and a cabinet of rarities in natural history, which has several things that are really curious. In the gardens are some water-works, and many walks in the old taste, which the poor people of this country think great exertions of magnificence. The principal church is ancient, and a very large fabric; it contains many monuments of the ducal families, but none that will yield much entertainment to a traveller. In the suburbs there is a church dedicated to St. Michael. Sleswick was formerly the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and is now that of a Protestant superintendent.

A few miles distant from Sleswick, to the south, are yet to be seen, in many places, the ruins of the famous wall and trench which was built in ancient times by the Danish kings, against the incursions of the Saxons. It is thought to have been begun by Gotherick, or Gothofred, king of Denmark, to keep out the armies of the emperor Charles the Great, about the year 808; and afterwards improved by queen Thyra, and other Danish monarchs, and rendered so strong, as to be esteemed impregnable by the counsellors of Henry, surnamed the Lion, duke of Saxony. This rampart was called Danewark, and, like Hadrian's wall in England, is reported to have reached from sea to sea, quite across this neck of land.

2. Gottorp was the ancient seat and patrimony of the dukes of Holstein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or surname of Gottorp. It is about six miles distant from Sleswick to the south-west, and stands on the Sley, which.

which almost surrounds it, and carries vessels of small burthen to and from the Baltic. This place is, at the same time, a fortress, and a noble palace, being accounted one of the finest seats in all these northern parts. The castle stands to the west of the Sley, in the middle of a little lake, and is built in the form of an oblong square, fortified with four bastions of earth; the bottom is paved with free-stone, the curtains are long, and the sides stand north and south. You approach the castle by a bridge, which joins it to the south shore. It is commanded by a mountain that stands north-east of it, from whence the Danes annoyed the castle in the year 1675, when the duke was treacherously surpris'd by the king of Denmark at Rentsburg. The duke, before his death, had designed to rebuild the castle, but the front only is finished; if the whole had been completed, it would have been one of the finest palaces in Europe. A rampart encompasses the first court, and the gate of the castle is a fine blue stone, as hard as marble, with a lantern over it that has 27 lights.

On the north side of the castle there is a bridge of 200 paces over the lake; and, at the end of the bridge, a walk, between two rows of trees, that lead to the garden, which is adorned with many fine water-works and cascades. On the left there is a basin, or fish-pond, 200 paces square, with rows of trees on all sides, except to the north; there are, also, fine arbours on the sides of the pond; and, in the middle, a Hercules, of a monstrous size, represented with his club, going to kill the Lernaean hydra. Out of every part the water plays. In every corner of the pond, there are statues which form cascades. On the north there is a parterre, in the form of a crescent, divided into several compartments, with niches round, containing busts of many kings, and modern princes. There are also the representations of many fabulous animals, that throw water. At the end of the walk there is a small room, in which is to be seen a globe, made by the famous Tycho Brahe, so contriv'd, that, by mechanism, it represents his system of the world. There is another admirable globe of copper, 10 feet and an half in diameter, with a sphere, wherein the sun moves in the ecliptic, and all the heavenly bodies are carried round in exact order, by means of certain wheels, which are turned about by water conveyed from the adjacent mountain. Before this house there is a level ground 50 paces broad, and three times as long, divided into three parts: those on the sides have fine parterres, and that in the middle has a great basin in the centre, with water-works; the next terrace is higher; and the whole is enclosed with green pales, as high as each terrace, with busts all round.

From the highest terrace there is the finest prospect perhaps in the world, viz. the castle in the front, in the middle of a lake surrounded with a charming country, and a fine plain before it. On the left there is a great orangery, or green-house, where they keep

the Indian trees, myrtles, pomgranates, and other exotics, in boxes. The park is noble, about four English miles in circumference, and full of fallow deer and stags. There is a toll-booth, or custom-house, where all toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle that pass from Jutland into Germany; this produces a considerable sum to the king of Denmark, since, in four years, toll is paid for above 50,000 head of cattle.

3. Eckrenford stands on a little gulf of the Baltic which makes a very commodious haven, and affords a considerable trade, being one of the safest ports on that shore. It is about 22 miles distant from Gotten to the east, and six from Kiel towards the north.

4. Christianpreis, the capital of a bailiwick of the same name, which borders on the duchy of Holstein, is situated on a gulf of the Baltic, at the entrance of a haven of Kiel, and is commanded by a castle that was built in 1637, by Christian IV. king of Denmark. It is about five miles distant from Kiel to the north, and four from Eckrenford to the east. It has about 500 houses, and two gates, defended with strong works. The Eyder serves for a ditch, and makes it inaccessible; and where the river grows narrower they have built a crescent in the water, with port-holes of 16 pieces of cannon.

5. Frederickstadt, thus called from its founder, Frederick, duke of Holstein and Sleswick, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured also to settle a silk trade there, and, for that purpose, sent an embassy to Muscovy and Persia, which gave occasion to Adam Olearius, secretary to it, to publish an account thereof in an excellent book of travels. The town stands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is 24 miles distant from Sleswick towards the west, and 42 from Gluckstadt to the north. It is built after the Dutch fashion, and all religions are tolerated there. The town is square, and surrounded with a large canal, planted with rows of trees. It is divided into two parts by another canal, also with trees on the sides. The Lutheran church is built with bricks, and very neatly.

6. Tonderon is also situated on the river Eyder, 10 miles below Frederickstadt, and about 14 miles from the German Ocean. It is not an ancient town, but it has a good trade, which increases daily, by means of its commodious harbour formed by the Eyder. It was formerly well fortified, but the fortifications were demolished in 1714 by the Danes, who, after a long blockade, forced the town to surrender upon terms. This is the capital of the bailiwick of Eyderstadt, and much frequented by the Dutch, who buy black cattle here.

7. Flensburg, the capital of a district known by the same name, as well as that of Angelen, or Engelnd (the country of the Angles, who invaded South Britain, and bestowed upon it the appellation of England) is situated eight miles to the northward of Sleswick,

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of the gulf of Flens, formed by the Baltic;
 the harbour is so commodious, that ships of great
 when may come up, and lie loaded from the ware-
 houses of Flens, and the island of Tonderon, and
 of Hufum, which is 10 miles from Tonderon, and
 on the gulf of Hoyer, was formerly flourishing
 and opulent, but it is now greatly decayed; its ruin
 being deduced from three capital causes, war, inunda-
 tions, and conflagrations.
 Lohm-Closter is an inconsiderable town, situated
 on the river Lohm-Becke, about 10 miles from the
 German Ocean.
 Haderleben is a large sea-port town, by the
 name of Haderleben, which runs into a narrow gulf,
 and disembogues itself into the Baltic. The inha-
 bitants carry on a tolerable trade by means of the
 fish that are caught in great plenty, both in the lake
 and gulf.
 Timder, 12 miles to the westward of Hader-
 leben, is a remarkable neat town, situated in a fertile
 soil, on the southern bank of the river Wydaw.
 It is a small strong fort, which the king keeps
 in excellent repair. The harbour, however, is
 decayed up at present, and the town hath scarcely
 any trade.
 Apenrade is situated at the bottom of a gulf
 of the Baltic, 25 miles north of Sleswick. It is de-
 fended by a tolerable citadel; but has, nevertheless, been
 frequently plundered in time of war.
 Luxburg, or Gluckburg, is four miles to the
 westward of Flensburg, near the same gulf, but on
 the opposite side. It is but a small town, yet has a
 castle, and gives title to the dukes of Holstein-
 Gluckburg.
 The Duchy of HOLSTEIN, part of the king of
 Denmark's German dominions, lies on the north-east
 of the river Elbe, and is one of the richest pro-
 vinces in the dominions of that monarch. A tra-
 veller, who had access to the public records of the
 kingdom of Denmark, and received many curious
 particulars from the unfortunate prime minister Count
 Brevensee, thus describes this duchy:
 The great duchy of Holstein, which is all united
 to the Danish dominions at present, is famous for its
 pastures, and for producing excellent beef. Great
 quantities of horned cattle are bought up in Jutland,
 and other provinces of Denmark, and brought here to
 be fattened: and their beef, besides what is used for
 the consumption of Hamburg and Lubeck is salted,
 dried, and exported; the former to Holland, and the
 latter to all parts of Lower Germany; and, together
 with an excellent breed of horses, of which great num-
 bers are exported yearly, bring considerable sums of
 money into the province, of the whole of which the
 court of Denmark has not hitherto found the means
 to drain them; so that this province may justly be said
 to be the richest in the Danish dominions.

Holstein is bounded on the west by the German
 Ocean, on the east by the Baltic, on the south-east by
 Mecklenburg, on the south-west by the river Elbe,
 and on the south by the territory of Hamburg, and
 by Lauenburg. It is 80 miles in length, 60 in
 breadth, where broadest, and divided into four princi-
 pal parts, or provinces, viz. Holstein Proper, Wag-
 rita, Stormar, and Ditmarsh.
 This duchy is remarkably fertile, and contains
 many rich marsh, pasture, and meadow lands. Dykes
 have been cut through the marsh lands at an immense
 expence, not only to drain off the waters, which na-
 turally accumulate there, but to drain off such as are
 occasioned by the inundations both of the sea and
 rivers, which are frequent. These, however, give
 such a richness to the soil of the marshes, that cattle
 are bred in great numbers, and fattened in them; and
 vast quantities of excellent butter and cheese are made
 of the milk. In some parts of them they sow wheat,
 barley, peas, beans, rape-seed, &c. which thrive ex-
 ceedingly. Sheep are bred in the more sandy, heathy,
 and barren districts; and woods and orchards abound
 in other parts. The beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and
 pork, are all fat and palatable; and the best sea and
 river fish are caught in great plenty. The Holstein
 horses are exceeding beautiful, and, on that account,
 are highly prized both in Denmark and Germany.
 The principal people usually farm out their cattle to
 a kind of bailiff, who runs all hazards, receives all
 profits, and allows the proprietor so much per head
 for the whole: thus the gentry receive a certain
 income without having any trouble, and the bailiff is
 sufficiently rewarded for his pains, as he usually makes
 a fortune by the extra profits.
 In general, the country is plain and level, and wa-
 tered by the rivers Eyder, Stor, and Trave, with many
 rivulets, dykes, &c. An odd custom prevails here,
 which is, to drain the lakes and ponds, at certain times,
 and sell the carp, lampreys, pike, perch, &c. which
 are found in them; and then some years after to sow
 them with oats, or use them for pasture; and after that
 to lay them under water, and breed fish in them again.
 The houses and churches are very neat; for the people
 here, with respect to nicety, resemble the Hollanders.
 The duchy contains about 35 cities and towns, great
 and small, and 600 parishes. The clergy are annually
 chosen, and removable at pleasure. The people are
 rigid Lutherans; so that they give but very little
 countenance to Calvinists, and are strongly prejudiced
 against the Roman Catholics. With regard to their
 character, in other respects, they are, in general, well
 made, finely featured, fair, strong, courageous, and so
 celebrated for their integrity, that the expression Hol-
 steinglaube, or honest Holsteiner, is proverbial through-
 out Germany, Denmark, &c.
 The principal cities, towns, &c. in Holstein, are,
 1. Lubeck, an imperial city, and chief of the Hans
 Towns, is situated at the conflux of several rivers,
 6 D. the

the largest of which is the Trave. It is 12 miles from the Baltic, where it has a fine harbour, 25 miles north of Lauenburg, 40 north-east of Hamburg, and 117 south-west of Copenhagen. It is a bishopric under the archbishop of Bremen, and was translated hither from Oldenburg in 1163.

This is a government or republic within itself, with royal jurisdiction, viz. to make and execute its own laws, as well in civil as in capital causes. From the consistory there lies an appeal to the senate of the city, which consists of four burgomasters, two syndics, who are civilians, and sixteen common-council-men; each of whom has his particular province, and they are all for life: but the common-council is only formed of lawyers and merchants, with an exclusion of mechanics. Father and son, or two brothers, cannot be in the reignty at the same time.

The name of Lubeck is supposed to be derived from Lob-eck, the German word for a point of land, which agrees with its situation. It is an ancient place, and, as the Poles say, was founded by one of their kings, who conquered this part of the kingdom; but the Germans ascribe its foundation to Codeschalk, one of the kings of the Vandals, in 1040. It has sustained wars, both offensive and defensive, for several years, not only against the dukes of Mecklenburg, but against the king of Sweden. It is said to have been a considerable city when taken in the year 1134, by Crito, a prince of Reugen, who destroyed it; but it was rebuilt in the year 1140, by Adolph II. count of Holstein, and then first endowed with the immunities of the city. In 1158 it was again reduced to a heap of ruins by fire, and was afterwards restored by Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, in whose time the collegiate church was founded. In 1164, the famous league of the Hans Towns was begun here; and their college is still kept, together with their records, and common stock raised by contributions. In 1181 the emperor Frederick I. brought it under subjection to the empire; but Henry the Lion retook it; upon which it fell into the hands of Holstein, and afterwards of Denmark. The city having suffered greatly by fire, particularly in 1276, was rebuilt in the handsome manner now seen; the senate having made an order that none of the houses should, for the future, be built with timber, or covered with thatch. In 1350 it was almost depopulated by the plague, which carried off vast numbers of the inhabitants.

At present, this is a fine noble city, spacious, and well fortified; two miles in length, and more than one broad; the streets being straight, uniform, and wide. Many of the streets have rows of lime-trees on the sides, and a canal in the middle. The churches are magnificent, and about twenty of them have high spires. The two chief streets leading from the cathedral, and the Miller's Gate, to the royal and castle gate, being the highest parts of the city, are intersected by others that descend gradually on each side to the Trave and

Wagnitz rivers. The houses are large and stately, and adorned with sculpture. The river Trave empties into the very heart of the city, which is near 10 miles from the sea. The largest vessels, however, load at Travemund, a fort on the bay of Lubeck. The principal trade is to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Petersburg; and the magazines and warehouses are well stocked with the productions and commodities of England, France, Spain, Holland, the East and West Indies, &c. The fortifications are strong, well situated, and kept in good repair. The bastions are lofty and extensive, the out-works numerous, and the haven defended by several forts and ramparts. The few market-places are large, and well supplied; and public buildings stately, particularly the senate-house, arsenals, hospitals, &c. All parts of this city are furnished with water by pipes from a reservoir.

St. Mary's church is the most considerable in the place, being a lofty edifice, standing in the middle of the city, and has a double steeple, 217 yards high, built 1304. The inside of it is profusely ornamented with pillars, monuments, &c. but there are few of them which deserve much notice. The great altar is richly executed in marble, by Quillin, who executed many at Antwerp; and near it is a famous clock, which is the most remarkable object at Lubeck, exhibiting the celestial, zodiac, equator, and tropic, and the planets in their several courses; which is so minutely done, that the station of any of them is to be found at every hour of the day. It shews the regular variations of the celestial bodies, sun rising and setting, the eclipses, festivals, and other remarkable days; all which it will continue to shew till the year 1875. Besides all this, there are several automata, and, among others, a figure of our Saviour, with a dial on its right hand, which opening at twelve at noon, comes out, in order of procession, the emperor and his seven eldest electors, and, turning to the image, makes a profound obeisance; this the figure returns by a wave of his hand; after which the whole group retires in the same order, through a door on the left, and both doors shut directly. In the tower is another piece of machinery, the chimes, which play the hours with a pleasing melody, and minute exactness. Under them is a bell, on which is struck the hour. This is performed by a figure of Time; whilst a lesser figure, representing Mortality, and standing at the other side of the ball, turns aside his head at every stroke. This work, for its preservation, is surrounded with a frame of wood. By the inscription it appears to have been erected in 1405.

Here is, among others, a very curious piece called the Death's Dance, which represents human beings in all stations of life, from an emperor to the meanest peasant, and from an old man to an infant, led round a circle by so many skeletons, shewing that death spares neither age or condition.

Ab! what is life,
Amidst our hopes
To-day the state
To-morrow death
Is mock'dly treasure
Think all that treat
The heir with smile
And all thy hoards
Should certain fate
Thy mirth will feel
Thou feeble age will
No more thy blood
Who then would w
To suffer life beyond

Lubeck cathedral
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Ab! what is life, with ills encompass'd round?
Amidst our hopes fate strikes the sudden wound.

To-day the statesman of new honour dreams,

To-morrow death destroys his airy schemes.

In modesty treasure in thy chest confin'd?

Think all that treasure thou must leave behind.

The heir with smiles shall view the blazon'd herse,

And all thy hoards with lavish hands disperse.

Should certain fate th' impending blow delay,

Thy mirth will sicken, and thy bloom decay:

Then feeble age will all thy nerves disarm;

No more thy blood its narrow channels warm.

Who then would wish to stretch this narrow span,

To suffer life beyond the date of man?

Lubeck cathedral is a building of very great antiquity, being erected in the year 1170, by duke Henry the Lion, ancestor of the present elector of Hanover. The occasion of building it is mentioned in an inscription on one of the walls, viz. that 'Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, hunting in this part of the country, caught a stag, with a gold collar and cross about its neck, on which was this inscription, *Hæc me Cæsar donavit*, "Cæsar gave me this;" containing the date of the year, which was in the reign of Charlemagne; and the duke, from surprise at this accident, erected this cathedral, for commemoration of it, on the same spot, and endowed it with a handsome revenue. In the top of the church is to be seen the figure of the stag.

The next staple commodity to corn is beer, which is of high estimation, not only as a pleasant liquor, but as a medicine, when externally applied to bruises, wounds, &c. Here are several hospitals, which are well supported. There is one for ancient people of both sexes, which was once a castle, from whence the citizens drove out the Danish garrison. St. Ann's is for orphans, and other children of poor burghers, who are instructed in some handicraft business; and there is an apartment for the confinement of libertines and lunatics. There are two other hospitals for the reception of poor travellers, where they are allowed three days refreshment, and then sent forward with a pass; but such as happen to be sick, are provided with all necessaries till they recover or die. The richest foundation of this sort is St. George's Cloyster, which is chiefly for the maintenance of such artificers as are grown old and past their labour. There is also St. Gertrude's hospital, which is a pest-house. There are, moreover, several alms-houses, endowed by the merchants, for the maintenance of the widows of poor members; besides several little streets of houses for the widows of other poor citizens.

2. Travemund, dependent on Lubeck, from whence it is but nine miles to the north-east, and thirty-two miles from Wismar, is a little town near the mouth of the river Trave. One of the counts of Holstein sold it, in 1300, for 4000 marks, to the Lubeckers, who fortified

it with four good bastions, erected a light-house to guide the ships at night, and commonly keep a garrison here of 3 or 400 men, commanded by a commander of Lubeck, who receives his orders from the burgo-masters, and admits no persons into the place without a passport. It was seized by the czar in 1617, in order to secure transports for his troops; but he was persuaded to quit it. There is a peninsula over-against it, about a quarter of a league in circumference, which belongs to the duchy of Mecklenburg. The river Trave rises out of a great lake, in the jurisdiction of Segeberg; and, after a serpentine course from north to south, by Segeberg and Oldeslo, turns short to the east, waters the city of Lubeck, of which this town is the port, and then falls into the Baltic.

3. Oldeslo, or Odelslo, on the river Trave, seven miles south of Segeberg, eighteen west of Lubeck, and thirty-one north-east of Hønborg, is a little old town, which was formerly a very flourishing place, and the capital of this part; but suffered so much by the neighbouring princes, who contended for this province, and by a duke of Brunswick, who destroyed its fort-works, to favour those of Lunenburg, that it is greatly decayed.

4. Travendal, on the same river, within a mile of Segeberg, is only noted for several treaties betwixt the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein in 1700, for adjusting the duke's rights.

5. Eutin, or Utin, about sixteen miles from Lubeck, has given title of duke, and seat, to the younger son of the duke of Holstein, ever since the year 1596.

6. Ploen is a town almost surrounded by lakes: it is the capital of what is deemed a principality of the same name. It has a palace, which stands high, and commands a beautiful prospect, and is adorned with pleasant gardens and a park. The neighbouring lakes and woods furnish great quantities of fish and timber, upon the sale of which the inhabitants principally subsist.

7. Oldenburg, or Altenburg, was once a very considerable town, but is now fallen to decay. It is situated near the Baltic, twenty-seven miles north of Lubeck, and gives name to a small district. In ancient times the Slavonian kings kept their court here.

8. Lenden is a market-town on the confines of Sleswick, not far from the Eyder. It is celebrated for its beer, which is sent into many parts of the circumjacent country, and even transported abroad.

9. Meidorp, or Meldorf, is a large town, standing on a river or stream, called the Meele. It has some trade, and three market-places round its church, distinguished by the names of the north, south, and west markets. Here is likewise a public school for the study of the classics and rhetoric.

10. Heyde is a large but poor town, ten miles to the north of Meldrop.

11. Krempi is a small open town, on a little river of the same name.

12. Gluckstadt,

10. *Gluckstadt* is situated on the north side of the Elbe, twenty-six miles south-west of Hamburg. It is a neat well-built town, as strong as to be deemed impregnable. The Danes have 2000 men in garrison here, and some men of war in the harbour, which is very safe and spacious. Here the Calvinists have a church, the Roman Catholics a chapel, and the Jews a synagogue. The town was founded in 1623, when Christian IV. king of Denmark, ordered it to be called *Gluckstadt*, which implies *Fortunate-Town*. There being no springs about the town, the inhabitants use rain-water, or that of the river. Those who are convicted of theft receive this sentence—to draw, during life, the dust-carts belonging to the town, to which they are chained like slaves.

13. *Bredenbergh*, or *Breitenburg*, is a village on the Stör, defended by a castle: it gives name to a lordship that has long been the property of the ancient and celebrated family *Ranzau*.

14. *Primeburg* is a market-town on the Pinace, thirteen miles from Hamburg, and fourteen from *Gluckstadt*. It is only remarkable for giving name to a county which fell to the crown of Denmark by the death of its last count, in 1640.

15. *Altena*, a large and populous village, is joined by a row of houses on the Elbe to Hamburg. It had its name from the king of Denmark, as it is said, purely to banter the deputies of Hamburg. The latter remonstrated to him against building this town too near their city; and having frequently observed thereupon, in their discourse to the king, "Dat is al te na," which, in the language of this country, is, "It is too near;" the king, taking particular notice of the three last monosyllables, said to the deputies, he could not excuse himself if he did not go on with the buildings; but that, to oblige them, he would call it by the name they had given it. It was formerly a refuge, not only for insolvent debtors, but even malefactors, that came from Hamburg; because, although the inhabitants, a few fishermen and sailors, subject to the king of Denmark, depended entirely on the trade and business of that city, yet it was quite out of his jurisdiction.

This place is noted for a treaty in 1689, between the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein-Gottorp; but much more for its calamity in 1719, when count *Steinboch*, the Swedish general, having just defeated the king of Denmark and his army at *Gadebusch*, came and burnt this town to the ground. The reasons pretended by the Swedes were, that magazines of bread, beer, &c. were preparing here for the Muscovites and Saxons; and that it was partly in reprisal for the burning of *Staden*, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Muscovites in the duchies of Bremen and Pomerania: but there was this difference as to *Staden*, that the Danes besieged it in form, and destroyed it by their bombs; whereas, *Steinboch* was judged to act the part of an incendiary. As soon as he appeared before *Altena*, he sent in a message to advise the inhabitants to

retire with what they could carry off; for that he would out in a body, and, falling at his feet, offered him 50,000 rix-dollars to save the town; but *Steinboch* insisted on 200,000, which they were ready to comply with, and only desired time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the General would admit of no delay, so that the poor inhabitants were obliged to turn out the mothers with their infants, at their breasts, and for others groaning under loads of household-goods, all lamenting their fate with the most lamentable cries. The Swedes stood at the barriers with flaming torches in their hands while they passed, and before they were all gone out, entered the town, and set fire to all parts of it, which burnt 2000 houses, with several fine magazines, and the Popish church. Several men and women, besides infants, perished in the flames; but they spared the Lutheran and Calvinist churches, with about 80 houses that lay nearest Hamburg. Never was greater desolation known. But what completed the ruin of this place was the raging of the plague at the same time in Holstein, insomuch that the Hamburgers were forced, for their own preservation, to shut the gates against their distressed neighbours, many of whom perished with cold and want. The king of Denmark relieved them as far as the necessity of the times would permit, and caused them to be supplied with materials for rebuilding their town.

The buildings at *Altena* are now better in appearance than those of Hamburg; the streets are straight and regularly built, wide, and well paved. There is a town-house erected; and several other public buildings shew that the place is on a flourishing and improving hand. The merchants houses are on the water side, so that ships unload and load at their doors. The king of Denmark made it the staple of the Danish East-India company, which has been of very great importance to the town. This measure was an admirable one; for *Altena*, by means of her situation, distributes the India goods where no other town in Denmark could: she sends large quantities into most parts of Germany, and herein rivals the Hamburgers, who are forced to buy theirs of the Dutch. In all these points the interest of Denmark has been very well considered for this last century, from a noble attention in their kings to promote whatever has been most for the interest of their subjects.

Toleration is allowed here, which is denied at Hamburg, to all Christian sects, of whom there is said to be a greater variety at *Altena* than in any city of Europe, except *Amsterdam*. The Calvinists of Holland and France have handsome churches, built altogether on two sides of the same court. The Papists, though tolerated, are not so publicly countenanced as the Protestants.

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16. Kiel is a town of great trade at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltic, and the capital of all Holstein, 17 miles east of Rensburg, 36 north-west of Lubeck, and 48 north of Hamburg, and stands between hills on an arm of the sea, where it forms a lake. It has a good harbour, well frequented by ships from Germany, Sweden, &c. and is populous and wealthy. Both the town and harbour are defended by a castle on a neighbouring hill. On the right, or east side of this castle, the sea washes its walls; and on the other side of the bay there is a delightful country, though woody. On the left there is a small arm of the sea, and another delicate country adjoining to it. There is a garden facing the castle, which is the only place whereby Kiel has communication with the sea-land; only to the left of the castle there is a row of houses leading to a village called Brunswick. This garden, which stands along the sea side, is above 200 feet broad, and consists of a terrace walk, levelled with the foundation of the castle, from whence there is a descent to parterres, full of all sorts of flowers, and adorned with a fountain and wilderness; and this leads to other parterres, from whence there is a small ascent to another terrace. It suffered very considerably during the war between Sweden and Denmark. An university was established here by the duke in 1665, which has had many learned professors. It is divided into the new and old towns, of which the former is the largest and most pleasant, the streets being planted with rows of trees. The old town, which is a sort of peninsula, is fortified by deep ditches; and there are fine walks of trees on the harbour. There is a palace facing the town, on the north-side, but it is in very bad repair. Here are several considerable buildings, particularly a large church and an hospital, which, before the Reformation, was a Franciscan monastery. In this town, the trade is not so considerable as it was in the time of duke Frederick, who sent an embassy to Persia in 1633, to settle a commerce with that country. But it is much enriched by its yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks, especially by the nobility and gentry of the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein, who meet every evening at a house, where there is a variety of gaming; and very often parties are made for supper, which is generally followed with a ball. Vast sums of money are here negotiated; and payments made of sums contracted beforehand, as particularly as by an Amsterdam banker upon the Exchange; insomuch that the man who does not preserve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and subjected to punishment, besides the scandal. During this fair Hamburg looks like a desert, because every body hurries hither to pay their rents, to renew their leases, or to get out money, &c. by which means the town, which at other times is but inconsiderable,

is so full, that it is difficult to get lodgings. The old town is separated from the new one by a bridge, at the end whereof is a draw-bridge and gate, guarded.

17. Rensburg is situated near 20 miles west of Kiel, and 32 south-east of Lunden, being near the borders of Sleswick. It is small, but well built, and very strong, having modern built fortifications, a capacious morass on one side, and a neat old castle, with a round tower, on the other. The town is surrounded by the river Eyder, which forms two small lakes, that abound with fish. It is divided into the old and new town.

18. Willter is a small town on a river of the same name, six miles from Gluckstadt.

19. Itzehoe is a small town on the river Stor, which is navigable from thence to the Elbe. The country from hence to Hamburg is remarkably pleasant, and exceeding fertile. The town is divided into the old and new, the latter of which is extremely well built. Here is a Lutheran nunnery for ladies of quality, but they do not make vows, or lie under those restrictions which are customary in Roman Catholic convents. It consists of an abbess and 19 other ladies, and has the advowson of several churches annexed to it.

To our description of the continent of Denmark, we shall here add its islands, which comprehend the principal parts and places in the Danish dominions, because, collectively considered, they are the seat of regal and legislative government, contain the metropolis of the realm, the general archives of the nation, and are the sources whence flow the chief political, civil, and ecclesiastical decrees, statutes, &c. They are likewise so absolutely blended with, and nearly contiguous to, the other main parts of the nation, that it would be impossible to describe Denmark as a kingdom, without taking them into particular consideration. But, before we enter into a description of these parts of the Danish monarchy, it will be necessary to premise a few observations concerning the Baltic.

This sea, or rather inland gulf, situated between Denmark, Sweden, Germany, and Russia, receives into its bosom several other gulfs, particularly the gulfs of Finland, Bothnia, Livonia, and Dantzick. It is remarkable that this sea, or gulf, neither ebbs or flows; and there is always a current from it, that sets through the Sound into the ocean. It is likewise generally frozen over three or four months in the winter-season.

ZEALAND, called also Zealand, or Seeland, is the most extensive and fertile island of the Baltic, and the principal part of the kingdom of Denmark. It is bounded on the east by the Sound, which divides it from Schonen, and on the west by the Greater Belt, which separates it from Funen. The islands of Moon, Falster, and Laland, lie on the south; and on the north are the Categate and Schagerack. It is almost of a round form; being 70 miles in diameter, and about 200 in circumference. The land, in general,

is low, and very fertile; and its woods, forests, &c. abound with game. The coast is indented with many gulfs, bays, creeks, &c. which are of great commercial use, as they afford many secure harbours. The sea vapours render the air thick, but not unwholesome, as the people here, in general, live to a very old age; but they are dull, dispirited, and inactive: Zealand is divided into 26 bailiwicks, called herrits, and these contain 346 parishes, with several considerable cities, towns, &c. The principal of these is,

Copenhagen, the capital of the whole kingdom. This city takes its name from the commodiousness of its port; for the word itself signifies, *The Merchant's Port, or Haven*. It is situated on the eastern shore of Zealand, upon a fine bay of the Baltic, near the streight called the Sound, in 55 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 12 deg. 56 min. east long. This city was originally a mean little village of fishermen's huts, which, by the assistance of the bishops of Roschild, gradually rose to be a considerable town, and at length was declared a city, and made the royal seat of the Danish sovereigns. The houses were formerly of wood; but, in the year 1728, almost the whole city was reduced to ashes by fire; and since that time it has been more sumptuously and securely built of free-stone. The then reigning king exhausted immense treasures to erect a superb palace; and the town is embellished with elegant houses, belonging to the nobility, and many magnificent churches, and other elegant public edifices.

An ingenious gentleman, who lately took an accurate survey of this city, says, "So few persons visit this metropolis, or kingdom, from motives of curiosity, that they are quite surpris'd when I assure them I have no sort of business here, and am only employed in the search of knowledge. There is no face of industry or business here; and Copenhagen, though one of the finest ports in the world, can boast of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers, either in the land or sea service; and they appear to constitute three-fourths of the audience, both at the comedy and the opera. The number of forces are indeed much too large for this little kingdom. They can boast, it is true, a vast extent of dominion; but of what importance are the barren and almost uninhabited mountains of Norway and Lapland, stretching to the pole, or the plains of Iceland, where the inhabitants are yet, and will probably ever remain, in the most profound barbarism? Their dominions in Holstein are by far the most rich, and furnish a large part of the royal revenue. There needs, indeed, no stronger proof of the poverty of the kingdom, than the scarcity of specie. I have seen no gold, and hardly any silver. They pay every thing in paper; and if you lose a single dollar at the card-table, or the billiard-table, it is given in a bill." The excellency of the harbour is owing to the island of Amack, which breaks off the waves, and shelters it from the

surge of the sea. Here stands the arsenal, the change, the castle, and the mint, with about houses, known by the name of the New Town.

"The whole city of Copenhagen is about five miles in circumference. It lies very low; but there is a rising ground within about half a league of it, on two or three little hills that cover it on the west-side from whence the city may easily be bombarded. It has a very regular citadel on the north and north-west, built on the shore, with several fine bastions with ravelins of earth, well stored with cannon, and palisaded. The other sides are of more difficult access, by reason of marshes. There are several royal bastions, with ravelins before the curtains, which reach from the citadel to the south part, and continue beyond the arm of the sea, which separates Zealand from Amack. A circuit of fortifications, consisting of eight royal bastions, and a ravelin, encloses the new part of the port, and feet, and faces the north side. The houses, which are not above 7000 in number, do not take up above half the ground enclosed. The entrance into the harbour is so narrow, that one ship only can pass at a time; and this entrance is shut up every night with a strong boom. The citadel on one side, and a good block-house, well furnished with cannon, on the other, command the mouth of it. Within this haven rides the royal navy, every ship having its place assigned to it. A wooden gallery ranges round the whole enclosure where the fleet lies, and is laid over the water in such a manner, that the ships may be viewed near at hand, as easily and commodiously as if they lay on dry land. This harbour is capacious enough to hold 500 sail, when neither the wind or the enemy can do them the least mischief. The road without is very good and safe, being fenced from the sea with a large sand-bank on the points of which are always two buoys floating to direct all ships that come in or go out. Here are no tides to fear, and there is always a sufficient depth of water. Sometimes, indeed, according as the wind blows in or out of the Baltic, there lies a current, but it is neither frequent or dangerous."

AMACK lies east from the city of Copenhagen, on the other side of the haven, and is called the Garden of Copenhagen. It is almost of an oval form, and was chiefly peopled by Hollanders, sent thither by Margaret, duchess of Savoy, and governess of the Low Countries, at the desire of Christian II. who had married her niece, sister to Charles V. emperor of Germany. He wished that his queen might have pulse, and other garden-stuff, planted there, which none knew so well how to cultivate as the Hollanders. Half the island was granted to them, and keeps to this day the name of Hollandesby. They still retain the Dutch fashions, and supply Copenhagen with milk, butter, and cheese. The other half of the

island is inhabited by Danes, which this island produces wheat, barley, and a great quantity of hares. The houses neat and airy. On this island is a piece of nature of a circular form, and of only one situation. This place is more handsome than elsewhere, and there is a fine collection of books, and the greatest curiosity of the variety and intricate of the royal Museum, in Europe. The library. The house and well furnished. Each sort being kept in a room neatly arranged; and the Paduans, and of their workmanship, so that the Roman antiquities distinguish them from modern medals of Europe. complete, and those where it is proper to that a Paduan, among which with all the m. The name is taken called the Paduan, from who succeeded to the w. sages are at a loss to which are really anti. Among the nature of them, one of the most was cut out of the page, in the year 1700, between 20 and 30 years old, and not artificial, is a head, shoulders, and had very much resemblance to some of the brown. downwards, it is of a red stone can be, of stones generated in it was taken from Paris, where it was happened to be there. It was afterwards presented to Denmark, for one of the chambers, each weighing 100 lb. which were dug out of the earth. In this fine collection are several large pieces of silver, which were dug out of the earth in 1666, one

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land is inhabited by Danes. Besides pulse, and other
which this island produces, here is also plenty
of wheat, barley, and oats. It also produces abun-
dantly of hares. The inhabitants are industrious, and
their houses neat and cleanly.

On this island is a place which approaches nearer to
the nature of a circus than a square. Each side is
formed of only one single palace; and in the centre is
an equestrian statue, in bronze, of king Frederick the
first. This place has a good effect, and is much
more handsome than the Place des Victoires at Paris.
There is a fine collection of paintings in one of these
palaces, and a very curious private museum in another.
Among the greatest curiosities, natural and artificial, both
of variety and intrinsic value, are preserved in the
royal Museum, in eight chambers, erected over the
king's library. The chambers, or apartments, are
large and well furnished. One of these rooms is
wholly taken up with medals, antique and modern,
each sort being kept by themselves, and very judi-
ciously arranged; and in a separate case are contained
the Paduans, and other counterfeit medals, which,
by workmanship, so nearly resemble the true Grecian
and Roman antiquities, that a good judge can scarcely
distinguish them from originals. The series of the
modern medals of European nations are absolutely
complete, and those of each nation kept distinct.
Here it is proper to observe, by way of explanation,
that a Paduan, amongst medalists, is a modern medal
marked with all the marks and characters of antiquity.
The name is taken from a famous Italian painter,
called the Paduan, from Padua, the place of his birth;
who succeeded so well in the cheat, that the best
judges are at a loss to distinguish his medals from those
which are really antique.

Among the natural rarities preserved in the cham-
bers, one of the most remarkable is a petrified child.
It was cut out of the mother's belly at Sens, in Cham-
pagne, in the year 1582, after having lain there be-
tween 20 and 30 years; and that it is a human foetus,
and not artificial, is evident beyond all dispute. Its
head, shoulders, and belly, are of a whitish colour,
and very much resemble alabaster; the back and loins
are somewhat brown and harder; but, from the hips
downwards, it is of a red colour, and as hard as per-
fect stone can be, exactly resembling the hard sort
of stones generated in the bladder. This foetus, after
it was taken from the mother, was first carried to
Paris, where it was sold to a jeweller of Venice, who
appended to be there, for about 20*l.* sterling; of whom
it was afterwards purchased by Frederick III. king
of Denmark, for 60*l.* and added to this collection.
In one of the chambers are to be seen two elephants
teeth, each weighing an hundred and fifty pounds,
which were dug out of a stone quarry in Saxony.

In this fine collection of curiosities there are several
large pieces of silver ore, dug out of the mines of Nor-
way in 1666, one of which weighs 460 pounds, and

is valued at 5000 crowns. Another piece, somewhat
less, is valued at more than 3000; both being so rich,
that they are reckoned to contain at least three parts
silver. They are composed of a whitish stone, the
cracks or cavities whereof seem to be filled with pure
virgin silver, which, in some places, lies in broad flat
plates, and in others like pieces of fine silver lace.
But what is most admired in these pieces of ore, are
the threads, or branches of silver, which shoot out an
inch or two beyond the surface of the stone, appear-
ing in the form of small shrubs or bushes. Several
other rarities of this kind are to be seen among the
silver ores preserved in this museum. Here are also
several large pieces of amber, some weighing 40 or 50
ounces; which, upon opening the ditches about Cop-
penhagen, when they fortified the city, were found
sticking to the sides of old trees that were buried there,
like the gum on the plum-trees in our gardens.

In the same chamber are a great many large branches
of white and red coral, and one of black; likewise a pair
of stag's horns growing out of a piece of wood in a sur-
prising manner. Here is a human thigh bone three
feet three inches long; and two very large scollop-
shells, holding about three gallons each, and weighing
224 pounds apiece. These were brought from the
East-Indies; and, it is said, the fish they belong to is
of such strength, that if a man happens to get his arm
or leg between the shells when they open, it claps them
together so forcibly as to cut the limb clear off.

In this collection a piece of marble is preserved,
which the Lutherans reckon a very valuable curiosity,
the natural veins of the stone running in such a manner
as to represent the exact figure of a crucifix. Some,
indeed, have suspected the representation to have been
by art; but, upon the nicest examination, it appears
to be entirely the work of nature.

Among the artificial curiosities there is a skeleton
made of ivory, two feet six inches high, in imitation
of a human one; and it is so nicely formed and put to-
gether, that it may be easily taken for a natural one.
There are likewise two crucifixes of ivory, and the
whole history of our Saviour's passion, beautifully ex-
pressed in a piece of carved work. A small man of
war in ivory, with silver guns, is a curiosity much ad-
mired; as is also a watch made of ivory, with all its
wheels and movements. Besides these, there are many
other curiosities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other
materials, which are kept for the sake of their elegant
workmanship. There is likewise a common cherry-
stone, on the surface of which are engraved 220 heads,
but their smallness makes them appear imperfect and
confused.

In this royal repository are six golden sepulchral
urns, which were found in the island of Fuen in 1685,
by a peasant, as he was ploughing his land, and con-
tained each of them some ashes of a greyish colour.
The largest of them weighs two ounces and a half,
and the others two ounces and a dram. They are ex-
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tremely thin, and each has three rings of gold about its neck, with several circles carved upon the outside of the urn, having one common centre. This discovery confirms the accounts given by various writers, that it was an ancient custom among the northern nations to burn their dead, and then bury their collected ashes in golden urns. There is another sepulchral urn of crystal, of a conical figure, which has also a golden ring about it, and was found near Bergen in Norway.

There are likewise in this collection several vessels of different sizes, some of glass, and others of earth, which are called lachrymal urns, or lachrymatories, being used by the ancient Romans to catch the tears of weeping friends, which were afterwards mixed with the ashes of the deceased.

We shall close our account of this celebrated museum with a description of the Danish and Oldenburg horns, two curiosities which are greatly admired. The Danish horn is of pure gold, weighs an hundred and two ounces and a half, is two feet nine inches long, and holds about two quarts of wine measure. This horn was, accidentally, discovered in the year 1699, by a country girl, in the diocese of Ripen, in Jutland, and is undoubtedly a piece of great antiquity, by the figures carved on the outsides, which seem to be hieroglyphics, &c. It is likely that some of these figures were designed to represent their deities; and the horn was probably used in sacrifices, as among the ancient Assyrians, and other nations, who upon such solemnities, made a great noise with horns and trumpets, and used them to drink out of at their solemn entertainments.—The Oldenburg horn is of pure silver, gilt with gold, weighs about four pounds, and is curiously enamelled with green and purple colours. The Danish antiquaries relate many fabulous stories of this horn, which are not worth repeating; and as to what they say of its being given to Otho, earl of Oldenburg, in the year 982, it is plain it cannot be of that date, for the figures and characters on the outside are modern; which, however, with the enamelling, and other ornaments, are of excellent workmanship, and make it a very fine and valuable curiosity.

An ingenious traveller, in his description of the palace of Rosenburg, in this island, says, it was constructed by our famous Inigo Jones, and stands in the middle of a large garden. It is small, and at present very little used by the king, or royal family. There is an air of antiquity in all the apartments, tapestry, and furniture, which is not displeasing, and impresses with respect. The grand sala, or dining-room in particular, is in this style. The hangings, which are not ill-executed, represent the various actions by sea and land, which diversified the ancient laws between the Swedes and Danes, who seem always to have had the same rivalship and animosity which the French and English are distinguished for, and which, it is probable, they will ever, in some degree, retain. At one end of this

grand apartment are three silver lions as large as life, who seem, by the ferocity and rudeness of their appearance, designed to characterize the age and nation in which they were cast. Here are several cabinets full of curious rarities, which the various sovereigns of Denmark have successively collected and left to posterity. Many of them are intrinsically valuable, others only preserved from some event or accident connected with them. Among the first is a figure on which Christian IV. made a sort of triumphant entry into Copenhagen. It is covered with diamonds, and other precious stones; and the figure is of stones enriched with jewels. The coat worn by the king, and a light helmet on the same occasion are likewise covered with pearls. They preserve likewise a handkerchief of this prince, which he dyed with his blood from a wound which he received by a ball, that deprived him of an eye. The man who accompanied us shewed me, with exultation in his countenance, a sword of Charles XII. of Sweden. It is just such a sword as such a monarch would be supposed to have used, and would well become a meanest soldier. It, indeed, evinces his strength and vigorous frame of body, by its size and weight; the blade is at least four feet long, and both the hilt and garde are entirely composed of brass.

The gardens of this place constitute one of the chief diversions of this city, as they are always open and on festivals or Sundays, crowded with company. They are large, but not laid out with taste, or adorned with any productions of art, one statue only excepted, of Hercules vanquishing the Nemean lion, which stands under a portico, raised to defend it from the inclemency of the weather. This is of Italian workmanship; and the artist has found means to display great anatomical skill and beauty in the attitude and muscles of the hero, who, by an extraordinary exertion of strength, forces open, and breaks the jaw of his adversary.

The other principal buildings of Copenhagen are the king's muse, or stables, the orphan-house, the opera-house, the military school, the royal library, which contains above 40,000 printed books and manuscripts, in various languages, and the university. With respect to the latter, it must be observed, that prior to the reign of Christian I. (who was one of the best kings that ever ruled the Danes, and indeed may be deemed the Alfred of Denmark) the Danish nobility and gentry, for want of proper seminaries of learning in their own country, were under the necessity of sending their children to the French and German universities; and colleges for education. To remedy this great inconvenience Christian applied to, and obtained leave of, the pope, to establish a public seminary of learning in his own dominions, when the university of Copenhagen was accordingly founded in the year 1475. But neither the successors of this wise and patriotic monarch, or even the clergy, have

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lions as large as the rudeness of their age and nature are several cubits the various fountains collected and left to their intrinsically valuable event or accident the first is a fountain of triumph covered with pearls and the fountain. The coat worn on the same occasion. They prefer the chief, of this province which he im of an eye. The king, with exultation Charles XII. of Sweden such a monarch would well become the size and weight of and both the hit and substitute one of them they are always opposed, with company with taste, or adoration statue only excepted man lion, which defend it from the island of Italian work means to distinguish in the attitude and extraordinary extra breaks the jaw of Copenhagen an orphan-house, the royal library, and the university. It is observed, that who was one of the Danes, and indeed mark) the Danish proper feminaries were under the name of the French and or education. The Christian applied to establish a public mission, when the singly founded in professors of this wise the clergy, have (seconded

his laudable endeavours with a proper degree of spirit; for a very intelligent gentleman, who recently visited this city, says,
 There are several hundreds of students in the university of Copenhagen who were entered upon the institutions which were made by former kings, when all the necessaries of life were very cheap, and their young men could live decently upon what was allowed them; but now, as all these necessaries are become much dearer, and as few of those students have any private fortune, many of them are in the greatest misery. I have met with several young men in the university, which might make a considerable figure in the world; but since the new nobility bear the sway here, ignorance and indifference, as coming the nearest to their own character, are rewarded; whilst real merit, modesty, and decency, are treated with the greatest contempt. Some time since, the king had a French comedy established at Copenhagen, to the sight of which every decent person was admitted gratis: but I was really astonished to see one or four young men of genius refused admittance to this comedy because they were students in the university, though they were very decently dressed, and were solicited to be admitted into the galleries; while the other places were filled with valets de chambre, and others of that class. No class of people are held in more contempt, in this country, than the students of the university. What encouragement, then, have men of genius to study and cultivate the sciences?
 Elfsineur is situated about 20 miles north of Copenhagen, on a neck or strait of the sea, called the Sound, and surrounded by walls. The castle of Cronenburg, which defends Elfsineur, and the castle of Cronenburg, on the opposite shore, command the commerce of the Baltic; for between these two forts all vessels that trade into that sea must pass; so that this strait is most frequented of any in Europe, that of Gibraltar excepted. The castle of Cronenburg was built by Frederick II. of free-stone, brought from Gothland. Every ship that passes this strait must make sail at Cronenburg, and come to the town to compound for the custom; under the penalty of forcing the vessel and cargo. Elfsineur was surrounded with walls under the reign of Christian IV. and peopled not only with Danes, but also with citizens from several nations. The city suffered very much when Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, besieged Cronenburg in 1658. It was taken by him, but restored to the Danes by the treaty of Copenhagen in 1660. This was the native place of the celebrated John Isaac Pontanus, though his parents were of Haerlam in Holland. He was doctor of physic, professor in the university of Hardewyck, and historiographer to the king of Denmark, and the province of Gelderland.
 Cronenburg castle is 4 or 500 paces distant from Elfsineur, on the spot where stood formerly the fortrefs of Orekrange. It is built upon oaken-piles, fastened

with hewn stones; and so solid, that it supports the fury of the tide, which sometimes beats against it most violently, without damaging it in the least. It makes a large square court, and was adorned with fine statues; the apartments also being very splendid. The pipes of the cistern, which supplied the garrison with water, and the locks of the doors, were all of fine silver, before it was plundered by the Swedes. It has four little towers at each corner, covered with copper: but the castle, with the chapel, steeple, and ornaments of it, are all going to decay. It has a ditch towards the sea, surrounded with another ditch; and the land side is secured by five bastions, and a half bastion. They have five cannons upon them; but the bastion that secures the passage of the Sound has but two cannons, 96 pounders each; and 11 more of smaller size. The rampart is vaulted with free-stone. Frederick II. who built this castle, spent none but his own money in the building of it; and declared, that if he knew there was one single stone in it that cost his people a farthing, he would have it removed. The unfortunate queen Caroline Matilda was confined in this castle.

There is a little hunting-seat, or palace, about a quarter of a mile from Elfsineur, to which the king resorts, for a few hours, in summer. There is nothing worthy of observation in the structure itself; but from the roof the prospect is enchanting, as it commands the town of Elfsineur, the castle of Cronenburg, the Sound, and the coast of Sweden, for a considerable way.

Opposite Elfsineur, lies the island of HURN, or Ween, remarkable only for the castle of Uraniburg, built by the famous Tycho Brahe. King Frederick II. had given him that island for his life, that he might build an observatory there, with other buildings proper for his purpose. The king gave him also a pension of 2000 golden crowns, a considerable fief in Norway, and a prebend in the church of Roschild. This island was perfectly well suited to Tycho Brahe's design; for it is properly a hill, which rises in the middle of the sea, the top of which is flat and smooth, and commands a prospect all over the coast of Schonen, and the neighbouring country, affording thus a very extensive horizon. Add to this, that the sky is here generally clear, there seldom arising any fogs. Tycho Brahe laid, towards the middle of the island, the foundation of his castle, which he named Uraniburg, that is to say, the Town of Heaven; and finished it in four years time. From the disposition and convenience of the apartments, together with the engines and instruments for observations it contained, it was looked upon as a building that had not its equal in the world. In the neighbourhood of it were lodgings for workmen of all kinds, maintained at the expence of the master; a printing-house, a paper-mill, forges for making of instruments, laboratories for chymical experiments, &c. Four years after he built, in the

South part of the island, another house, which he called Stelburg, that is, Starburg; there he kept several instruments, and lodged some students and servants, who applied themselves to some particular study. But Uraniburg is now gone to decay; and the island of Huen belongs now to the Swedes.

The chair in which Tycho Brahe used to sit, to make his astronomical observations, is still preserved in the royal museum, and held, by the Danes, in the highest veneration. "Thus," says a judicious traveller, in a letter to a friend, "it ever happens! I need not remind you that the astronomer himself was driven from his native country by faction and malevolence; or that he died at Prague, in the court, and under the protection, of the emperor Rodolphus, who sheltered this illustrious fugitive, and afforded him an asylum."

Frederickburg is a small town, twenty miles distant from Copenhagen to the north-west, and eighteen from Ellineur to the south-west. It is considerable only by the stately castle and royal palace which stands near it. That castle was formerly but a small feat belonging to a private gentleman. King Frederick II. being charmed with its situation, bought it of him, and began to enlarge it. His son, Christian IV. finished it. This is the Versailles of Denmark. The house is built on piles in a lake. The body of the castle consists of a very fair front, with two great wings. The chapel is well adorned, and covered with gilt copper. It has twelve silver statues of the apostles; and all the locks, bolts, &c. were silver, till it was plundered by the Swedes. The hall is adorned with paintings, and has the pictures of several of the kings of Denmark, and of the royal family, as large as the life; and a frame of paintings, which represent the sea and land battles of the kings of Denmark. It is hung with rich tapestry of molair, representing the actions and battles of Christian IV. There is a gallery which leads from the castle to the hall of audience, adorned with pictures, most of which were bought in Italy. Here is a park about nine miles long, of a proportionable breadth, and interspersed with pools and fish ponds, with a mixture of green plots, hillocks, and small vallies. It was stocked with fallow-deer from England. There is a pretty flower garden behind the castle, in the very lake; in which, though it is exceeding deep, they have built a kind of terrace on piles that cost an hundred thousand crowns.

The town of Roschild, or Roskild, lies at the bottom of the bay of Iseford, and is eighteen miles distant from Copenhagen to the west. It was formerly the capital of Denmark, when the king resided there; but since they have chosen Copenhagen for their residence, it has dwindled greatly in point of importance, and is much decayed with respect to wealth and commerce. Of twenty-seven churches, which formerly embellished this town, only two are now standing. It continues, however, to be the burial-place of the royal family.

Among the monuments of the Danish sovereignty, of which are extremely magnificent, stands a beautiful marble pillar, erected by queen Margaret, as a fine to the whetstone sent her by Albert, king of Sweden, to sharpen her needles, in derision to her sex. But it testified her resentment in such a manner, that he suffered severely for his sarcasm; for he was taken prisoner by queen, detained seven years in custody, and obliged to relinquish all his pretensions to the crown of Sweden.

Here is a convent of Lutheran nuns belonging to the best families; but they are not obliged to wear particular habit, or to be restricted by the vows in convents; but are permitted, if they think proper, to quit the convent, and marry. In 1658 the famous treaty of peace was here concluded between Denmark and Sweden. The university is in a declining condition; and, indeed, the whole town exhibits evident marks of poverty and decay.

Sora is situated on the banks of a lake, about the centre of Zealand, was formerly the seat of a noble abbey, and has many pleasant fields and forests near it. To this place the academy of Frederickburg was moved, and the foundations of the university were augmented by Christian IV. Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, was educated here, and retained in veneration for the place, that when he invaded Zealand, he would not suffer his soldiers to enter the town. But the revenues of this seminary have been annexed to the crown of Denmark, and the whole is gone to decay. Absalom, archbishop of Lund, once founded here an establishment for the maintenance of the who should write the history of Denmark; and to the foundation we owe the history written by the celebrated Saxo Grammaticus.

FUNEN is the next island to that of Zealand, in the scale of importance, among the several parts which form the Danish kingdom. It is bounded by the Greater Belt on the east, by the Lesser Belt on the west, by the Baltic on the south, and by a little channel, which separates it from the island of Samsø, on the north. It is about 36 miles from east to west, and 30 from north to south. The country is fertile and agreeable, being finely diversified with verdant hillside woods, pleasant groves, fruitful fields, rich pastures, &c. The soil is good, well cultivated, and affords a great deal of grain, not only for home consumption, but exportation. Great quantities of black cattle, horses, hogs, &c. are bred here. This island is an appendage to the eldest sons of the kings of Denmark, and is deemed one of the richest governments belonging to that sovereignty. It contains some garrisoned towns, and 264 villages; but the most considerable places, and the only ones, indeed, worthy of description, are the following:

Odense,

Odense, the capital of the island, and is a spacious town, where the kings once met before the sovereign absolute was dedicated to St. Canute near a century ago. It is situated near a copper coffin, &c. The most part of the town, at present, is built of beer in the whole. On the narrower part, between the open and Zealand, the harbor is fertile. The country is fertile. The fortifications in the late war were thoroughly repaired. Zealand are made at the town of Schweneborg is an excellent harbour, situated on the coast. From hence the trade began his march to the island of Zealand, the small town of Roskilde, a little gulf on the coast of the island of Zealand, distant from Schweneborg. In the duchy of Schleswig, this island, over-arched by the sea, is about 11 miles distant from the coast. It was founded by John Rantzow, a Danish philosopher, earl of Maribo, archbishop of Funen, who settled this town with a college. On the western shore of the Lesser Belt, he is 17 miles distant from Zealand, and as many from the coast. It is a small, but nevertheless, with all the necessaries of life, and a safe passage from this island to the coast of Funen. It is not being broadened by the sea. On the coast of Funen, Gustavus, king of Sweden, came to this place, rode to the sea, and was killed by him, and many of his soldiers.

FALSTER lies to the north-east of Zealand, which it is separated from Zealand on the north-east. It is fertile. Its soil is fertile. It is distant from hence to Germany. It is distant from the south, or Sydn-

Danish sovereign, the king's once resided, and the assembly of the sovereign absolute. In a church here, which is dedicated to St. Canute, the body of that prince was found near a century and a half ago. It was deposited in a copper coffin, gilt, and adorned with precious stones. The most particular circumstance relative to this town, at present, is, that the inhabitants brew the beer in the whole kingdom.

n nuns belonging were obliged to wear robes dyed by the rown, if they think proper. In 1678 the university is in a state of decay.

of a lake, about the seat of a castle and forests near Frederickburg was the university was Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, and retained such when he invaded Zealand to enter the town, they have been annexed to the whole is gone to London, once found maintenance of the Denmark; and to the town by the celebra

of Zealand, in several parts which is bounded by the Lesser Belt on the east and west, and the country is fertile with verdant hills, fertile fields, rich pastures well cultivated, and only for home consumption quantities of black. This island is the richest government. It contains four but the most considerable, worthy of

Odenfee,

Odenfee, the capital of the island, stands about its western coast, and is a capacious, well-built town. Here the kings once resided, and the assembly of the sovereign absolute. In a church here, which is dedicated to St. Canute, the body of that prince was found near a century and a half ago. It was deposited in a copper coffin, gilt, and adorned with precious stones. The most particular circumstance relative to this town, at present, is, that the inhabitants brew the beer in the whole kingdom.

On the narrower part of the Greater Belt, between Funen and Zealand, lies Nyburg. This place has a good trade, the harbour is good, and the adjacent country is fertile. The damages done to the fortifications in the late wars with Sweden, are not yet thoroughly repaired. Embarkations for the island of Zealand are made at this town.

Schwenborg is an agreeable town, with a commodious harbour, situate on the south-east part of the island. From hence Charles Gustavus, in the year 1658, began his march, over the ice, to the islands of Langeland, Zealand, and Falster.

The small town of Woburg, or Foburg, is situate on a little gulf on the southern coast of Funen, over-against the island of Arroe, and is about 10 miles distant from Schwenborg to the west.

In the duchy of Sleswick, on the south-west coast of this island, over-against Haderleben, lies Affens. It is about 11 miles distant from Odenfee to the south. In the year 1535 the army of king Christian III. commanded by John Rantzaw, routed that commanded by Christopher, earl of Oldenburg, and killed Gustavus Troll, archbishop of Upsal. Rantzaw afterwards levelled this town with the ground.

On the western shore of the island, lies Middlefar, or the Lesser Belt, hence also called Middlefar-Sound. It is 17 miles distant from Affens to the north-west, and as many from Odenfee towards the south-west. It is a small, but neat town, in a country abounding with all the necessaries of life. It is the common passage from this island to Colding in Jutland; the Lesser Belt not being broader here than the Thames is at Gravesend. On the 13th of January 1658, Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, led his army over the ice to this place, routed the Danish forces that opposed him, and made himself master of the whole island of Funen.

FALSTER lies to the north-east of Laland, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. This island lies between Zealand on the north, and the island of Moon on the north-east. It is 20 miles in length, and eight in breadth. Its soil is very fruitful; and much corn is sent from hence to Mecklenburg, and other parts of Germany. It is divided into two bailiwicks; that of the south, or Synder-Herrit; and that of the north,

or Norre-Herrit. It has several towns; among which the chief are Nycoping, on the western coast of the island, of which it is the capital. It is one of the most pleasant and well-built towns in the whole kingdom, and styled, by Dr. Heylin, the Naples of Denmark. It has a strong castle, and a well frequented harbour. Stubcoping, in Latin, Stubcopia, seated on the north coast, is a place of some trade, being the usual passage from Zealand into Germany.

ARROE is situated near the coast of Funen, being eight miles in length, and two in breadth. It is extremely fruitful in corn, and abounds in aniseed, with which the inhabitants give a flavour to their bread, and season their meat. In this island are plenty of horses and black cattle; and some woods, in which are abundance of hares. The whole island has but three parishes, the most considerable of which is Kopin, or Kioping. The town belonging to it stands on the southernmost part of the island, and bears the same name as the parish. It has a trade on account of its port, and is situated at the bottom of the bay.

LALAND is situated on the eastward of Langeland, and to the southward of Zealand, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called Grone Sound. From its lowness, or flatness, it has the appellation of Laland, or Lowland. It is near 40 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth, where widest. The soil is very fertile; so that Copenhagen is supplied from hence with great quantities of corn, besides what the Dutch traders are furnished with for exportation. This island is divided into five districts, or bailiwicks, the seat of a governor, and has several small islands subject to its jurisdiction. It contains various pleasant little villages and hamlets, and a few seats belonging to the noblesse, exclusive of four towns, Nascow, Saxcoping, Levenscoping, and Nysted.

Nascow, or Naxkow, the capital, is 59 miles south-west from Copenhagen, and has a commodious harbour for trade. The fishery is of some consequence, and the circumjacent country is rich in meadow and pasture lands.

MOON lies to the south-east of Zealand, and to the north-east of Falster. It is about 20 miles long, eight broad, and full of high chalky hills. Here is some pasture ground, but very little corn-land. It was formerly part of the Danish admiral's allowance; as being the first place for him to reside in. There are in this island several villages, large parishes, and a considerable city, called Stege, or Siekoe, which lies on the north of the island, on a little rivulet, that a mile lower falls into the strait called Grone Sound.

Sound. This city made a brave defence against the Lübeckers in the year 1510, and forced them to retreat; and the valour of the inhabitants of the whole island was signalized in 1659, when they defended themselves better against the Swedes than the larger islands had done.

LANGELAND is 22 miles long, and eight broad, is situated on the Greater Belt, to the southward of Funen. This island abounds with wheat, rye, and barley, of which the natives export great quantities. It is divided into 16 parishes; and Ruteping, on its western coast, is the most considerable town, being defended by the fort of Traneker, which is always furnished with a strong garrison.

FEMEREN lies near the coast of Holstein, from whence it is separated by a strait which is not above two miles broad, and is called Der Femmer Sundt, i. e. the Straights of Femeren. Though it is but a small spot of ground, yet it has always been looked upon as one of the keys of Denmark, with regard to the empire. Therefore king Christian IV. was more afraid of the Germans becoming masters of this island, than of their over-running Jutland, which caused him to fortify all the old castles, and put strong garrisons in every place of importance here. This island is extremely fruitful in corn and pastures, and yet has but two parishes, namely, Borg and Peterdorp. There is a fort at the place where people land from Holstein, called Fethchans, that is, the Fort of the Passage.

BORNHOLM, anciently called Boringia, is said to have been discovered by Thicloraus, the son of a prince of Jutland. It is the remotest and most easterly of all the islands belonging to the king of Denmark, being about 75 miles distant from Zealand to the east, and not above 15 from the nearest coast of Schonen to the south-east. It is about 18 miles long, from north-west to south-east; and about 10 in breadth, from south-west to north-east. Bornholm is a place of great importance for its situation and fruitfulness, and belonging once to the archbishop of Lund; but king Christian II. took possession of it in the year 1524, as being absolutely necessary for the fleet he was preparing against Sweden; which usurpation George Sesteburg, who was then archbishop, opposed with all his power, but in vain; for he was forced afterwards to fly into Germany, to avoid the effects of the king's displeasure. The Swedes have frequently laid this island waste; and in the war with Frederick II. they made themselves masters of it, and designed to keep it; but they were obliged to restore it by the treaty of Copenhagen, concluded

May 27th, 1660. The most considerable places Sandwyck, on the northern coast; Ratenby, on the south-western; Nex, on the eastern; and Sand-Ham here are several villages.

Many little islands surround the above-mentioned more considerable ones; but they are either uninhabited, or of so little importance, as not to be thought worthy of notice by travellers, or of mention by geographers. Some others are contiguous to them, and belong to the other provinces of Denmark; the most considerable of which are Samsøe and Læsø, on the coast of Jutland.

SAMSØE, or SAMSØI, is in the Baltic, eight miles from the coast of Jutland. It is near nine miles length, three in breadth, fruitful, healthy, and pleasant.

LÆSØ belongs to the diocese of Aabur, opposite to which it lies, at about the distance of 12 miles from the shore. It is surrounded by sand-hills, but has two places where ships may ride safely at anchor on the north and east sides, and contains three small villages.

Appertaining and contiguous to the duchy of Schleswick, are the following islands, viz.

1. ROM, which is in length seven, and in breadth four miles, contains several small hamlets, and about 1500 inhabitants. Towards the eastern parts the pasture for cattle is excellent; and on the western side of the island are several harbours, in which small vessels may ride in safety.

The greatest part of Manoe, formerly a considerable island, has been swallowed up by the sea.

2. SYLT, situated to the northward of Forø, and is of a triangular form, the longest side being about 14 miles in length. It is sandy, barren, and inhospitable; and the people, who are a hardy, clownish race, are annually engaged in the whale fisheries, on the coasts of Iceland, Greenland, and Spitzbergen. Earthen urns, containing human bones, ashes, &c. have been found in the hills of this island, which further evinces that the ancient inhabitants burned their dead.

3. NORTHSTRAND lies opposite to the bailiwick and town of Hufum, and was, it is said, separated from the continent by a violent storm. When it became an island it was about 12 miles long, and four broad, in some places, and in others less. Its soil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the inundations we shall mention hereafter. It had also very fat pastures, where they fed exceeding good cattle; and they used to send daily to Hufum, and other places, a prodigious number of sheep, cows, ducks, and geese, and great quantities of butter. It contained 21 or 22 parishes, and about 8000 inhabitants;

ants; but it has suffered fatal inundations. Rungholt, with few inhabitants, was carried away by the waves of people, a In 1539 there arose a storm which almost the whole island according to other writers. The next year it was very much injured every year such losses, and particularly in the waves. In 1634, at ten years, and had been carried against the island, 1634. At ten years lay under water, and of a storm in 1500 that gave rise to the flood on the island, but fell down, and were carried away by the dykes were broken, and the whole island continued a waste of ground which at that time the inhabitants of some Denmark they had lost. AMRON, or Amron, is a small island of Northstrand, 12 miles distant. It is a very considerable for the FORA, or Foel, is a small island, and nearer Northstrand and Sylt. It is 10 miles in length, and is of a triangular form, and four miles in length, and four miles in breadth, and has about 1000 inhabitants. The inhabitants are of a clownish manner, and dress like the people of Denmark is extremely rich in harbours are very fertile, and the ships of all burghs are expert in the navigation. The dominion of the island is a great variety of soil, and is very fertile in some parts, and particularly in some parts, where there is a great variety of timber, here is a great variety of fish, tallow, and iron, which is exported to Denmark to carry to France, Spain, and

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ants; but it has suffered prodigiously at several times
fatal inundations. In the year 1300 the little city
Rungholt, with several churches and villages, were
rried away by the waves, which drowned also great
members of people, as well as cattle.

In 1532 there arose such a violent storm here, that
almost the whole island was overflowed; when 1600,
according to others, 1900 persons perished in the
water. The next year another storm damaged the
akes very much. From 1612 to 1618, there hap-
ped every year such inundations, as occasioned pro-
igious losses, and put the inhabitants to very great
opence; and particularly in 1615, when 300 persons
erished in the waves. They were afterwards free for
ome years, and had time to repair their banks and
kes; but all their care and precautions proved in-
ectual against the storm that happened October the
th, 1634. At ten of the clock at night the whole
land lay under water, above 6000 persons were
rowned, and, of all the inhabitants, there were
hardly 1500 that saved their lives. The churches,
which stood on the rising grounds, held out the storm
eared, but fell down afterwards; and 28 windmills
ere carried away by the waves. The loss of cattle
of all forts was reckoned to amount to 50,000 heads;
and the dykes were broke in 44 different places. The
whole island continued thus overflowed, except a small
oot of ground which stood high, than the rest. Since
that time the inhabitants have laboured, with the
assistance of some Dutchmen, to regain part of the
and they had lost.

4. AMRON, or Amroen, is a small island to the north-
west of Northstrand, from which it is about seven
miles distant. It is in the form of a crescent, and is
only considerable for its oyster fishery.

5. FORA, or Foehr, lies towards the north-east of
Amron, and nearer the coast of Sleswick, between
Northstrand and Sylt. It belongs to the prefectorship
of Tunder, and is of an oval figure, about six miles
in length, and four in breadth. It abounds in cattle
and corn, has about 4200 inhabitants, and several
villages. The inhabitants still preserve the language,
manners, and drefs of the ancient Frisons, though
some of them speak the dialect of Lower Saxony.

Denmark is extremely well situated for commerce;
her harbours are well calculated for the reception
of ships of all burthens, and her mariners are very
expert in the navigation of the different parts of the
ocean. The dominions of his Danish majesty furnish
a great variety of timber, and other materials for
ship-building; and there are many productions for
exportation in some of his provinces. Besides fir, and
other timber, here are black cattle, horses, butter,
stock-fish, tallow, hides, furs, train-oil, tar, pitch,
and iron, which being the natural product of the
country, are properly denominated exports; these en-
able Denmark to carry on a very profitable trade with
France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; but the ex-

portation of oats is prohibited. Salt, wine, brandy,
and silk from France, Portugal, and Italy, are the
imports. The Danes have lately had a great inter-
course with England, from whence they import
broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet and lock-work, hard-
ware, &c.

But the commercial spirit of the Danes appears in
a very favourable light, when we consider their settle-
ments in the East and West-Indies. A company for
carrying on the former was established at Copen-
hagen in the year 1612, under the protection of Chris-
tian IV. About four years after the establishment,
four large ships sailed for the East-Indies; and the
Danes made a settlement at Tranquebar on the coast
of Coromandel. Here they built a fort, which is
reckoned the strongest in the Indies. This colony
soon increased from the encouragement given by the
Danes to the Indians, who, finding themselves pro-
tected in their privileges, and permitted to carry on
their trade without oppression, resorted to Tranquebar
in such numbers, that the commerce soon became
very valuable, and the company received a yearly
tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. But not content with
this increasing establishment, the Danes attempted,
in the year 1620, to make a settlement on the island
of Ceylon, in order to acquire the spice-trade, then
monopolized by the Portuguese.—This scheme, how-
ever, failed in the attempt, and the Danes having em-
broiled themselves with the Indian princes on the con-
tinent, their settlement at Tranquebar must have been
taken by the rajah of Tanjour, had not Mr. Pitt, an
English East-India governor, generously sent them
assistance.

After the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, when
the wars in Europe were ended, the Danish East-
India company found themselves so much in debt,
that they published proposals for a new subscription
for enlarging their ancient capital stock, and for fitting
out ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. The
capital was considerably enlarged for these purposes by
a spirited subscription, which alarmed France and the
maritime powers. The Dutch raised a process against
the projects of Van Asperin, who, being a subject of
the States, was condemned and executed in effigy.
Every objection that could be started against the ac-
complishing of the scheme, was published in the
newspapers of Paris, London, and Amsterdam, with
a view to discourage people from engaging in the
commerce. The ministers of Great-Britain and Hol-
land, who resided at the court of Denmark, were
ordered to make remonstrances to his Danish majesty
against this new charter, which they apprehended
would interfere with the East-India trade of their
subjects. The king prudently answered, that he was
not restricted by any treaty whatever from supporting
and extending the traffick of his subjects by every
means in his power, provided he did not infringe the
laws of nature and nations, which he had no in-

ention to violate. After great difficulties the company was established, their commerce extended, and they now carry on an advantageous trade to China, and the coast of Coromandel. Their credit is extensive; their funds are considerable; their warehouses, magazines, yards, and docks in complete order; and they send annually two or three ships richly laden to the East-Indies.

Besides the trade to the East-Indies, the Danes have extended their commerce to the West-Indies, where they possess the islands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the small island of St. John, which are free ports, and celebrated for smuggling; also the fort of Christianburg on the coast of Guinea, and to Greenland. Within a short period of time, the Danish merchants have opened new channels of trade, particularly with the Mediterranean; the number of ships has been doubled, and the revenues of the kingdom increased in proportion.

Denmark is not famous for its antiquities, if we except the royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a very numerous collection of them. Besides artificial skeletons, curious carving in ivory, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony made by a Dutch artist who was blind, here are a great variety of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments, which are placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, so contrived that a coach may drive to its top: a set of medals ancient and modern; and two famous antique drinking vessels, one of gold, and the other of silver, and both in the form of a hunting horn. That of gold seems to be of Pagan manufacture, and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, it was probably made use of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocese of Rippen, in the year 1739. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburzicum*; which, they say, was presented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. Some, however, are of opinion that this vessel was made by order of Christian I. king of Denmark, the first of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. See before, p. 480.

The constitution of Denmark was heretofore of the free Gothic original. The convention of the states, even including the representatives of the boors or peasants, elected a king for his personal virtues, having a due regard to the son of their late monarch, whom, however, they made no scruple of setting aside, if they deemed him unworthy of the royal dignity. They enacted laws, conferred the great offices of state, debated all affairs relative to commerce, peace, war, and alliances; and occasionally gave their consent to the imposition of necessary taxes. The king was in reality no other than chief magistrate, generalissimo, and, as it were, prime minister to his people. His business was to see justice administered impar-

tially; to command the army in time of war; to encourage industry, religion, arts and sciences, and watch over the interests of his subjects. He had public revenue from the state, but lived like a private nobleman from the produce of his own lands and demesnes. Such was the constitution of Denmark till the year 1660, when it underwent a very extraordinary revolution.

At the conclusion of the peace with Sweden, the nation resounded with the clamour of misery and content. There was nothing left in the public treasury to pay off and disband the army, which therefore became insolent and licentious. The common people, and even the burghers, were exhausted by the expensive war: the clergy were unsatisfied with their condition and want of importance, and the nobles were become proud and tyrannical. When the estates assembled to deliberate and redress the grievances of the nation, the commons proposed that an equal should be laid upon all persons without distinction in proportion to their circumstances. The nobles pleaded their privilege of being exempted from imposition. The burghers alleged, that as the nobility engrossed all the lands and riches in the kingdom, it was reasonable they should bear their share of the common burthen; in consequence of this, violent disputes ensued. At length a nobleman, named O. Craeg, stood up, and in a transport of passion told the commons, that they neither understood the privilege of the nobility, who were always exempted from impositions, nor the condition of themselves, who were no other than their slaves. This inglorious reproach produced an immediate ferment in the assembly, the hall resounded with murmurs and altercations. Nansen, speaker of the commons, starting up in a rage of indignation, swore that the nobility should repent their having branded the commons with such an opprobrious epithet. He had previously concerted the design with the bishop of Copenhagen, and the court was not ignorant of their intention. The clergy and burghers breaking up in disorder, marched under the auspices of these leaders to Brewer's-Hall, where after much debate, they agreed to make a solemn tender of their freedom and services to the king, lest he might become absolute monarch of the realm, and see the right of hereditary succession established in his family. Next morning they marched in couples, each burgher being paired with a clergyman, through the streets, which were filled with the populace, who shouted as they passed to the council-hall, where the nobles had re-assembled. There Nansen, in a short harangue, signified the intention of the clergy and commons, demanded the concurrence of the nobles, and threatened that, in case of a refusal, they would forthwith proceed without them to the palace. The nobles, confounded and abashed, endeavoured to purchase time: they professed a desire of concurring with the other states, but desired that an affair of such impor-

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consequence might not be precipitated. The others, being deaf to their remonstrances and entreaties, conducted their procession to the palace, where they were met by the prime minister, who conducted them to the hall of audience. There the bishop of Copenhagen, in a florid speech, as deputy from the two orders, made a solemn tender to the king of an absolute and hereditary dominion; assuring his majesty, that he might command their purses and arms, to support a measure so necessary to the welfare of his people. He received them graciously, assented to the proposal, thanked them for their zeal and confidence, and assured them they might depend upon his royal favour and protection. The city gates were immediately shut, that none of the senators should escape, and the nobles were so greatly intimidated, that they immediately signified their readiness to concur with the step which the other two orders had taken. Preparations were forthwith made for this strange inauguration. Scaffolds were erected in the open space before the castle, and the nobles and burghers received orders to appear in arms, under their respective officers. On the sixteenth day of October, in the year 1660, the king, queen, and royal family, ascended an open theatre, and placing themselves on chairs of state, under canopies of velvet, received in public the homage of all the senators, nobility, clergy, and commons, couched in an oath of allegiance composed for the purpose. Thus the people, with a rash and desperate hand, from motives of revenge, fomented by an artful ministry and ambitious clergy, resigned their liberty and independence, and invested their sovereign with a despotic power over their lives and fortunes.

Soon after this extraordinary revolution took place, the king of Denmark divested the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; though he took no method to relieve or reward those poor people by whose means he was invested with the sovereign power, but left them in the same state of slavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the present age.

When the revolution in the reign of Frederic III. had been effected, the king re-united in his person the rights of the sovereign power; but as he could not exercise all by himself, he was obliged to intrust some part of the executive power to his subjects. The supreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal president. The German provinces have likewise their supreme tribunal; which for the duchy of Holstein is holden at Glückstadt, and for the duchy of Sleswick in the town of Sleswick.

The king for the most part decides matters of importance in his council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will. In this council the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the royal

authority; here likewise great changes or establishments are proposed, and approved or rejected by the king; and in the council, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extension, or their restriction, and upon the most important affairs of the kingdom, according to his sovereign will and pleasure.

The kings of Denmark not only preside nominally in the sovereign court of justice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always address their discourses in pleading, and the judges the same in giving their opinion. The king is present every year at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges such instructions as he thinks proper. The decision of those judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal sentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is signed by the king. There are three courts in Denmark, and an appeal in extraordinary cases lies from the inferior to the superior tribunal. As every man is permitted to plead his own cause, a trial is attended with very little expence; nor can any suit be suspended longer than 18 months.

In Denmark, the judges are punishable for any misdemeanors they may be guilty of, and there are many excellent regulations for the due administration of justice; but notwithstanding this, it is so far from being distributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can scarcely ever obtain justice in this country against one of the nobility, or against one who is favoured by the court or by the chief minister. If the laws are so clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are ashamed to decide against them, the latter, through his influence with the minister, procures an order from the king to stop all the law-proceedings, or a dispensation from observing particular laws; and thus every rule of equity being perverted and set aside, the lower class of subjects are aggrieved and injured without any possibility of redress.

The code of laws at present established in Denmark was published by Christian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have been since published, and is nearly the same with that published in Norway. These laws are contained in a quarto volume, drawn up in the language of the country, in so plain and perspicuous a manner, and founded upon such unerring principles of justice, that the most ignorant may understand, and every impartial person approve of them; and, if carried into execution in an equitable manner, would be productive of many beneficial effects to the people. But as the king can change, alter, and dispense with the laws as he pleases, and support his ministers in their disregard and violation of them, the people of Denmark undergo a great degree of tyranny and oppression, and have abundant reason to regret the tameness and servility with which they surrendered; their

their liberties, and thereby established absolute monarchy.

The police is very strict in Denmark, hence highway robberies, burglaries, coining, clipping, &c. are crimes scarce ever heard of; and to speak against the government is so strongly prohibited, that none dare wag their tongues licentiously in political matters. The common method of execution here is beheading and hanging: in some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. The other principal modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, and to public labour, and imprisonment. The public executioner, though universally despised, is commonly rich, as he is not only well paid to deprive malefactors of life, but is the general contractor to empty all the privies, and remove from houses, stables, streets, &c. all kinds of filth, and, in particular, dead cats, dogs, &c. which no other Dane will touch upon any account whatever.

The revenues of Denmark arise from crown lands, taxes, and duties, and these are extremely heavy. Wine, salt, tobacco, and provisions of all kinds are taxed. Marriages (a most impolitic tax!) paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll money, also raise a considerable sum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people; and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from the passage of their ships through the Sound into the Baltic. The income of this toll is at present much less than formerly. About the year 1640, it produced 240,000 rix-dollars per annum; but since 1645 it has not yielded above 190,000; some years not above 80,000; in 1691, it did not extend to full 70,000, and is now much less. This tax has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame; having been disputed by the English, Dutch, and Swedes, who deemed it arbitrary and unjust, being originally only a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expence of light-houses on the coast; but it was at length, by the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, agreed to be paid by the former and other powers. The toll is paid at Elfsneur.

The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elfsneur, amounts at present to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. sterling yearly. By a list of the revenue taken in 1730, it then amounted only to 454,700l. English money, which is less than half the sum it now produces.

The military force of Denmark consists in its regular troops, militia, and navy. The greatest part of the regular troops are foreigners, particularly Germans. The cavalry and dragoons are well mounted, and consist of eleven regiments; and each regiment in four squadrons, including the body guards. Three of these

regiments are quartered in Zealand, one in Funen, three in Jutland, and four in Holstein. The infantry is composed of sixteen regiments; of which two are duty as the king's guards. When the regiments are complete, each consists of two battalions, and each battalion contains six companies of 100 each. The artillery consists of three regiments, one of which is stationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and third in Holstein. The body of engineers is divided into three parts, each of which comprises two officers of various ranks.

Since the late reduction of the Danish forces, the numbers are, 10,000 cavalry and dragoons, and 30,000 infantry and artillery, which, with the militia, make up a body of 70,000 men. Every person who cultivates or possesses 360 acres of land, is obliged to find one man for the militia, and pay half the expence of a man towards a corps-de-reserve, to be embodied and called out only upon great emergencies. They receive no pay, but are registered on the annual list, and exercised every Sunday.

Though the Danish army is extremely burdensome to the nation, yet it costs little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money.

The present fleet of Denmark is composed of thirty-six ships of the line, and eighteen frigates; but many of the ships being old, and wanting great repairs, they can send out twenty-five ships upon the greatest emergency, this is thought the most they can do. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the material necessary for the use of the marine. They have 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor serve on board a merchantman without permission from the Admiralty; 4000 of these are kept in constant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings a month, but then they have provision and lodgings allowed for themselves and families, and a sort of blue uniform, faced with different colours.

The Danish men of war carry the same complement of men, in proportion to their guns, as the French ships of war do; but they are much inferior in point of construction, both to English and French ships of war; and, indeed, are far from being equal to the Swedish ships.

The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of their subjects in martial affairs, were very respectable princes, by the number and discipline of their troops. Frederic IV. established a marine academy for fifty young cadets, to be trained up to a thorough knowledge of naval affairs, and to be perfectly taught navigation, gunnery, drawing, fencing, history, geography, geometry, &c. and

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order to join practice to theory, they were annually to make a voyage in a frigate, and successively to perform the services of common seamen, pilots, and officers. But this noble institution is now totally neglected, and the money appointed to support it is sunk into venal pockets; so that except a few officers, who have been bred in the English and French services, the Danes would have a great difficulty, in case of a rupture with any naval power, to find proper persons to command their ships of war.

To the court belong two ancient orders of knighthood, viz. that of the elephant, and that of Daneburgh. The badge of the former, which is the most honourable, is an elephant surmounted with a castle, and with diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured ribbon, worn like the George in England. This order was instituted by Christian I. at his son's wedding; it is conferred only on persons of the highest quality; and the number of companions amount to 30 besides the sovereign. The order of Daneburgh, though less honourable, is much more ancient; so that the origin of it is lost in fable: it is bestowed, as an honorary reward, upon the noblesse of inferior rank, its insignia being a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left shoulder, from which depends a small diamond cross and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto *PIETATE ET JUSTITIA*, piety and justice.

A COMPENDIOUS HISTORY OF DENMARK, NORWAY, &c.

VERY little is known of the early periods of the Danish history. Even the name of the first Christian king of Denmark is uncertain; and those of the people whom they commanded were so blended together, that it is impossible for the reader to conceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. All that we can discover relative to the inhabitants of these kingdoms is, that they appear to have been colonies of the ancient Scythians, who spread themselves through all the northern and western parts of Europe. In the 4th century, the Saxons, a name under which the Danes, Norwegians, and other nations of the North were comprehended, committed dreadful ravages on the coasts of Britain and Gaul, and obliged the Romans to station their forces along the coasts, under the command of an officer called Comes Littoris Saxonicæ. Their ravages, like their manners, were cruel and inhuman; their tracks were marked with blood and desolation; and neither age, innocence, nor religion could afford protection from the swords of those barbarians. They formed settlements on the coasts of Normandy, Ireland, and Scotland; and in the year 1012 made a conquest of England.

Few very interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret II. ascended the throne. That princess married Aquin, king of Norway, by which the two kingdoms became united. Aquin died soon after; but Margaret, partly by address, and partly by the right she had obtained by her marriage, formed a treaty, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. This treaty is generally known by the name of the union of Calmar. Margaret, whose soul was formed for greatness, swayed the sceptre of these kingdoms with honour to herself, and advantage to her country. Her friendship was courted by most of the European powers, so that historians have justly styled her the Semiramis of the North. But, like all other sublimity greatness, it was fleeting and transient. The successors of Margaret were far inferior to her in abilities; and the union of Calmar was soon destroyed. The Swedes rebelled, and placed Gustavus Vasa on the throne of his ancestors. Norway, however, still continued united to Denmark, nor has there been any rebellion in that kingdom since the union.

In the year 1448, the crown of Denmark passed to Christian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the present royal family is descended. In 1513, Christian II. one of the most complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the sister of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full proof of his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden for the bloody massacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled against him likewise; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holstein, was unanimously called to the throne, on the deposition of his cruel nephew: he openly embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the protestant religion was established by that wife and politic prince, Christian III. He was opposed in the Reformation by his bishops, and therefore seized on the lands and revenues of the church, annexing them to his own.

Christian IV. of Denmark, though very brave in his own person, wanted the abilities proper for the command of an army. He was chosen head of the protestant league formed in 1629, against the house of Austria; but was foiled in every attempt, and even in danger of losing his own dominions; when he was succeeded in the command of the army by the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, under whose command the protestant forces acquired immortal honour.

Frederic III. who succeeded his father Christian IV. in 1648, declared war against the Swedes, at the instigation of the Dutch. This precipitate conduct had nearly proved fatal to Denmark. Charles took the fortress of Frederickstadt by storm; and in the succeeding winter, 1658, marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the

Danish forces, made himself master of Odensee and Nyburg, and, pursuing his victories, marched over the Great Belt, and besieged Copenhagen itself. Frederic, however, defended his capital with the greatest resolution; and Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interposing, the peace of Roschild was concluded, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Scania, the island of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway. Frederic was very desirous of eluding these severe terms, and postponed the surrender of the places stipulated in the treaty so long, that Charles put his army in motion, made himself master of Cronenburg, and once more invested Copenhagen by sea and land. Frederic bore these misfortunes with such a heroic firmness and confidence, as endeared him to his subjects. Charles made several attacks upon the city, but was always repulsed with considerable loss, and there seemed no other way of reducing it but by famine. In the mean time a strong Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and soon defeated and dispersed the Swedish ships which blocked up Copenhagen by sea. Animated by this assistance, the Danes exerted all their power, and Charles was obliged to raise the siege. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who was actually making preparations for invading the territories of the enemy: but before he was ready to carry his plan into execution, an English fleet arrived, and the Dutch were obliged to retire. Charles was now enabled to renew the siege of the capital; but by the mediation of France and England, a peace was concluded at Copenhagen, by which Charles agreed to restore the island of Bornholm; and Frederic to cede the islands of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, to the Swedes.

The magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, during this destructive war, so endeared him to his subjects, that on the nobles refusing to subject their estates to the payment of an equal tax proposed by the commons to be levied on all persons whatever, they made the king a tender of their liberties, and the government of Denmark became arbitrary in the manner we have already mentioned.

Christian V. who ascended the throne of Denmark in 1670, was at first very successful in his war against the Swedes; he recovered several places in Schonen, that had been wrested from him, and obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had acquired by the treaty of Roschild: While he was pursuing his victories with amazing success, fortune forsook his standard, and his army was totally defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. Christian, however, determined to persevere, notwithstanding the dreadful misfortune he had suffered. He raised a new army, and led his forces once more against the enemy. But he had lost the veteran part of his forces, and his troops, new to the field, and

almost strangers to military discipline, were totally defeated at the decisive battle of Landscroon. Christian was now in no condition of facing the enemy, his allies having abandoned a cause which they considered as desperate, he was obliged, in 1679, to sign a treaty of peace on the terms prescribed by France. The love of glory, however, would not suffer Christian to abandon his military projects; and being incapable of carrying on the operations of war unassisted, he became a subsidiary ally to Lewis XIV. who threatened Europe with slavery. This treaty with French monarch enabled him to pursue the scheme he had formed against Holstein, Hamburg, and other northern powers; but before any thing of importance could be effected, Christian, after a vast variety of treating and fighting with the Hollanders, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, ended his reign in the year 1699.

Frederic IV. ascended the throne on the death of his father, and, like his predecessors, maintained pretensions to the duchy of Holstein. He laid siege to Tonningen, and would probably have taken the place, had not the English and Dutch fleets forced him to abandon the enterprize. In the mean time Charles XII. of Sweden, then only sixteen years of age, landed in Zealand within eight miles of Copenhagen, in order to make a diversion in favour of his brother-in-law, the duke of Holstein. Charles prosecuted the war with that rapidity which constituted his character, and would, in all probability, have taken the capital of Denmark, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was granted in the duke's favour. By another treaty, concluded with the States-General, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great service against the French in the war between the allies and Louis XIV.

This, however, did not prevent Frederic from being continually engaged in disputes with the Swedes; and taking the advantage of the misfortunes of Charles, he made a descent on Swedish Pomerania, and laid siege upon Bremen, and took the city of Stadt. But his troops were totally defeated at Gadesbusch, by Charles Swedes, who laid his favourite city of Altena in ashes. Frederic had however soon after an opportunity of revenging the affront he had received. He made himself master of great part of Holstein, and obliged count Steinbock, the Swedish general, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. He pursued his victories with such success, that in the year 1716 his allies began to suspect that he intended to usurp the crown of all Scandinavia. Charles now returned from his exile, and carried on the war with great vigour and a most embittered spirit against Frederic; but being killed at the siege of Fredericks-hall, his Britannic majesty offered his mediation for a peace, which Frederic durst not refuse. Accordingly a treaty was concluded

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Stockholm, by which Frederic obtained the duchy of Sleswick. He died in 1730, leaving the crown to his son Christian Frederic, or Christian VI. who made no other use of his power, than that of cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and in promoting the happiness of his subjects. He abolished a grievous monopoly established by his father, relating to the sale of wine, brandy, and tobacco. He terminated the old dispute between the crown of Denmark and the city of Hamburg, by which he obtained several valuable concessions in favour of his people, besides a million of marks of silver. He instituted a council of trade, to examine all proposals for the extension and encouragement of commerce: he invited artists and workmen from foreign countries, and established manufactures at his own expence: he maintained a respectable fleet and army; and that these might not be burdensome to his subjects, he, from time to time, concluded subsidiary treaties with foreign powers, by which his finances were always in a flourishing condition. In a word, he acted on all occasions with equal prudence and discretion, as a great king, a wise politician, and a prince who had always at heart the interests of his people. He died in 1746, much regretted by his subjects.

Frederic V. son and successor of Christian VI. improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people: but took no active part in the German war, being only a mediator between the contending powers; and by his intervention the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded between his Royal Highness William, late Duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richelieu. He married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic Majesty George II. by whom he had a son, his present Danish Majesty: he afterwards, on the death of his first queen, married a daughter of the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbattel. He died in 1766, and was succeeded by his son,

Christian VII. the present king of Denmark and Norway, L.L.D. and F.R.S. who was born Jan. 17, 1749; married, in 1766, to the princess Caroline-Matilda, youngest sister of his present Britannic Majesty; and has issue Frederic, prince royal of Denmark, born Jan. 28, 1768; and Louisa-Augusta, born July 7, 1771. The reign of this young monarch opened auspiciously; but was afterwards darkened by a fatal event, that occasioned much astonishment to all Europe, and which is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present king, who has a son named Frederic, and whom she is represented as desirous of raising to the throne. She possesses a great deal of dissimulation; and when the princess Caroline-Matilda came to Copenhagen, she received her with all the appearance of friendship and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the same time telling her, that she would take every opportunity, as a mother, to assist her in reclaiming him. By this conduct, she became the young

queen's confidante, whilst at the same time, it is said, she placed people about the young king, to keep him constantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery, to which she knew he was naturally too much addicted: and it was at length so ordered that a mistress was thrown in the king's way, whom he was persuaded to keep in his palace.

When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager used frequently to visit the young queen Matilda; and, under the mark of friendship and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and excesses which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often persuaded her not to live with him. But as soon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately took his part, and endeavoured to persuade the king to give no ear to her counsels, as it was presumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king.

Queen Matilda now began to discover the designs of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for his sake was much reclaimed. The young queen also assumed to herself the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with, in the management of public affairs. This stung the old queen to the quick; her thoughts were now entirely occupied with schemes of revenge, "and who is able to stand before envy?" But her views of this kind appeared the more difficult to carry into execution, because the king had displaced several of her friends who were about the court, who had been increasing the national debt in times of profound peace, and who were rioting on the spoils of the public. However, she at length found means to gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. We shall give the particulars of this unfortunate affair in the words of an intelligent gentleman, who made very minute inquiries concerning it, of the most cool and dispassionate Danes, and wrote this narrative in the city of Copenhagen.

"I have," says this gentleman, "made it my endeavour, since my arrival here, to gain the most authentic and unprejudiced intelligence respecting the late celebrated, and unhappy favourite count Struensee, and the late extraordinary revolution which expelled a queen from her throne and kingdom, and brought the ministers to the scaffold. Struensee had not any noble blood in his veins, nor, consequently, any hereditary and prescriptive title to the immediate guidance of affairs of state. Fortune, and a train of peculiar circumstances coinciding with his own talents and address, seem to have drawn him from his native mediocrity of condition, and placed him in an elevated rank. He originally practised physic at Altena, on the Elbe, and afterwards attended the present king of Denmark, on his travels into England, in quality of physician. On his return he advanced, by rapid strides, in the royal favour; and seems to have eminently possessed

possessed the powers of pleasing, since he became equally the favourite of both king and queen. He was invested with the order of St. Matilda, instituted in honour of her majesty, created a count, and possessed unlimited ministerial power; his conduct, in this sudden and uncommon eminence, marks a bold and daring mind, perhaps I might add, an expanded and patriotic heart. Unawed by the precarious tenure of courtly greatness, and more peculiarly of his own, he began a general reform. The state felt him through all her members; the finances, chancery, army, navy, nobles, peasants, all were sensible of his influence. He not only dictated, but penned his replies to every important question or dispatch; and a petition, or a scheme of public import and utility, rarely waited two hours for an answer. At present, I am told, you may be two months without receiving any.

The civil judicature of this capital was then vested in 30 magistrates. Struensee sent a message to this tribunal, demanding to know the annual salary or pension annexed to each member. Rather alarmed at this inquiry, they sent an answer, in which they diminished their emoluments near two-thirds, and estimated them at 1500, instead of 4000 rix-dollars. The count then informed them, that his majesty had no further occasion for their services; but, in his royal munificence and liberality, was graciously pleased to continue to them the third part of their avowed incomes as a proof of his satisfaction with their conduct. He, at the same time, constituted another court composed only of six persons of integrity, to whom the same power was delegated. He proceeded to purge the chancery and other bodies of the law. Then entering on the military department, he, at one stroke, broke all the horse-guards, and afterwards the regiment of Norwegian foot-guards, the finest corps in the service, and who were not disbanded without a short, but very dangerous sedition. Still proceeding in this salutary, but most critical and perilous achievement, he ultimately began to attempt a diminution of the nobles, and to set the farmers and peasants at perfect liberty: no wonder that he fell a victim to such measures; and that all parties joined in his destruction. These were his real crimes, and not that he was too acceptable to the queen, which only formed a pretext. It was the minister, and not the man, who had become obnoxious. I do not pretend, in the latter capacity, either to excuse, or condemn him; but, as a politician, I rank him with the Clarendons and Mores, whom tyranny, or public business, and want of virtue, have brought, in almost every age, to an untimely and ignominious exit, but to whose memory impartial posterity have done ample justice. Yet I must avow, that though I cannot think Struensee made a bad use, yet he certainly made a violent and imprudent one of his extensive power. He seems, if one may judge by his actions, to have been intoxicated with royal favour, and such accumulated honours; and not to have

adverted sufficiently to the examples which history furnishes of Wolfseys in former days, and of Choiseul in modern times, who most strikingly evince the necessary foundation of political grandeur. When he was even pressed, only a short time before his seizure, to withdraw from court and pass the Belts, with the most ample security for his annual remittance of four hundred, or even an hundred thousand dollars, an unhappy fascination detained him, in defiance of every warning, and reserved him for the prison and block. The queen-dowager and prince Frederic were only the feeble instruments to produce this catastrophe, as being, by their rank, immediately about the person of the sovereign, though common report has tallied loudly of the former's intrigue, and attributed it to her imaginary abilities. The only mark of capacity or address, they exhibited, was in preserving a secret which deluded Struensee, and the queen Matilda, at the time of their being arrested. I have been assured that on the last levee-day preceding this event, the count was habited with uncommon magnificence, and never received greater homage, or court servility, from the crowd, than when on the verge of ruin. On the night fixed for his seizure, there was a bal paré, masked ball, in the palace. The queen, after dancing as usual, one country dance with the king, gave her hand to Struensee during the rest of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. The moment was now come; the queen-dowager, and her son prince Frederic, hastened to the king's private chamber, where he was already in bed. They knelt down beside him, and implored him, with tears and expostulations, to save himself and Denmark from impending destruction, by arresting those whom they called the authors of it. It is said the king was not easily induced to sign the order, but did it with reluctance and hesitation. At length their entreaties prevailed, and he affixed his sign manual to the paper. Colonel Koller Banner instantly repaired to Struensee's apartment, which, as well as Brandt's, was in the palace; they were both seized at nearly the same instant, and as all defence was vain, hurried away immediately to the citadel. When count Struensee stepped out of the coach, he said, with a smile, to the commandant, "I believe you are not a little surprised at seeing me brought here as a prisoner." "No, and please your excellence, replied the old officer bluntly, I am not at all surprised, but, on the contrary, have long expected you." It was five o'clock in the morning when count Rantzaw came to the door of her majesty's ante-chamber, and knocked for admittance. One of the women about the queen's person was ordered to wake her, and give her information that she was arrested: they then put her into one of the king's coaches, drove her down to Ellsneur, and then her up in the castle of Cronenburg.—Mean while they dreaded an insurrection in Copenhagen; every

military

...ary precaution was taken to prevent it; the most
... and silly reports were circulated among the
... to render the state prisoners odious: that they
... put poison into the king's coffee to destroy him;
... they intended to declare him incapable of govern-
... to send the dowager-queen Juliana out of the
... whom, as well as her son prince Frederic, and to
... claim Matilda regent. To confirm these extraordi-
... and contradictory reports, the king himself, and
... brother, appeared in a state coach, and paraded
... the streets of the city, to shew himself unhurt,
... if escaped from the most horrid conspiracy. Du-
... these transactions, Struensee and Brandt were de-
... in the most rigorous imprisonment. They loaded
... former with very heavy chains about his arms and
... and he was at the same time fixed to the wall by
... iron bar. I have seen the room, and can assure you
... is not above 10 or 12 feet square, with a little bed
... and a miserable iron stove; yet here, in this abode
... misery, did he, though chained, complete, with a
... an account of his life and conduct, as mi-
... which is penned, as I have been assured, with
... common genius."

After this, the government seemed to be entirely
... in the hands of the queen-dowager and her son,
... and assisted by those who had the principal
... in the revolution; while the king appeared to be
... more than a pageant, whose person and name it
... was necessary occasionally to make use of. All the of-
... who had been instrumental in the revolution were
... immediately promoted, and an almost total change took
... place in all the departments of administration. A new
... was appointed, in which prince Frederic pre-
... and a commission of eight members, to examine
... the papers of the prisoners, and to commence a process
... against them. The son of queen Matilda, the prince
... who was entered into the fifth year of his age,
... was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was ap-
... pointed governess, under the superintendency of the
... queen-dowager.

The two counts were beheaded on the 28th of April
... 1772, having their right hands previously cut off; and
... their skulls and bones are yet exposed on wheels, about
... a mile and a half from the metropolis. Many of their
... friends and adherents, eighteen of whom had been im-
... prisoned, were set at liberty. Struensee at first had ab-
... solutely denied having any criminal intercourse with
... the queen, but this he afterwards confessed; and though
... he is said by some to have been induced to do this only
... by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this re-
... spect were esteemed notorious, and his confessions full
... and explicit. Besides, no measures were adopted by the
... court of Great-Britain for clearing up the queen's char-
... acter in this respect.

In the following May, his Britannic Majesty sent a
... small Squadron of ships to convey the unfortunate prin-
... cess to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his
... electoral dominions, for the place of her future residence.

She died there, of a malignant fever, on May 10, 1775,
aged 29 years and 10 months. In 1780, his Danish
Majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by
the empress of Russia. He appears at present to have
such a debility of understanding, as to disqualify him
for the proper management of public affairs.

On the 16th of April 1784, another revolution took
place in Denmark. The queen-dowager's friends were
removed, a new council formed under the auspices of
the prince royal, some of the former old members re-
stored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the
future to any instrument, unless signed by the king, and
countersigned by his royal highness prince Frederic,
his son, heir apparent to the throne of Denmark.

CHAP. V.

L A P L A N D.

*Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Subdivisions, Climate, Soil,
Mountains, Rivers, Forests, Vegetables, Animal and
Mineral Productions, &c.*

THIS country is divided into six provinces, viz. 1.
Angermanland-Lapmark; 2. Uma-Lapmark; 3.
Pitha-Lapmark; 4. Lula-Lapmark; 5. Torno-Lap-
mark; and 6. Kima-Lapmark.

The first of these provinces is the most southern, and
contains only one town of any consequence, which is
called Aofalko, and situated about 300 miles distant
from Stockholm.

The second province, which adjoins to the former,
contains two little villages, viz. Loifby and Semisjorfe.

The third province, which is situated between the
Norwegian mountains, contains four unimportant vil-
lages, viz. Sitonia, Arieplogs, Locketari, and Arivit-
zerfs.

The fourth province, which adjoins to the latter,
contains three little villages, viz. Jackmoth, Torpajour,
and Sirkestucht.

The fifth province, which is the most northern of
Swedish Lapland, is well watered by many rivers, has
several lakes, and contains four towns, viz. Tingavara,
Sandewara, Ronnala, and Titifara.

The sixth province, which is contiguous to Russian
and Danish Lapland, is likewise well watered; it con-
tains the great lake Enure, and has six towns, viz. Soin-
by, Kalajerfui, Kitijsfulye, Kimibi, Solden-Kyte, and
Kimi.

The known part of Lapland extends from the North
Cape, in 71 deg. 30 min. north lat. to the White
Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of it belongs to the
Danes, and is included in the government of Ward-
huys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the most va-
luable; and some parts in the East, to the Muscovites
or Russians, and are situated between the lake Eparak
and the White Sea, being divided into three distinct

prefectures, viz. that of the sea-coast towards the north, called Mourmankoi Leporic, Jerthoi Leporic, and Bel-lamofekoi Leporic. But as the most considerable and best-peopled division of this country belongs to the Swedes, we shall therefore begin with a description of it.

Swedish Lapland is bounded on the east by Russian Lapland; on the west by a ridge of mountains that separate it from Norway; on the north by Danish Lapland; and on the south by Bothnia, Angermania, and Septerland. Its greatest extent, from east to west, is about 360 miles; in breadth it extends from 65 deg. 33 min. to 69 deg. of north latitude. It is divided into six provinces, or districts, the names of which, as above noticed, are the following; viz. Angermanland-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Pitha-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Tornio-Lapmark, and Kima-Lapmark.

Each of these provinces receives its name from the chief river that waters it; they are again subdivided into smaller districts called biars, and these contain a certain number of families, called by the Swedes reckars. Every reckar, or family, is allowed a considerable tract of land, with forests, lakes, and brooks, for the maintenance of their families and cattle; but their lands are not enclosed, so that the property of one is often converted to the use of others.

In general, Lapland is situated so near the pole, that the sun neither sets in summer, or rises in winter. In the latter season, the cold is so intense, that none of the natives are able to bear it. The most rapid rivers are then frozen up, and the ice is two or three, and sometimes four or five feet thick. In summer the weather is as sultry as it is cold in winter; for autumn and spring are unknown in this climate. The excessive heat, however, is qualified by the vapours that rise from the sea, and by the snow that continues all the summer on the tops of the mountains, and in ditches that are sheltered from the sun. It seldom rains in the summer, but the whole country is covered with snow in winter.

M. Maupertuis, who, with several other astronomers, was sent hither by order of the king of France, to discover the figure of the earth at the polar circle, has given the best description of the climate of this country. "In December, says he, the snow continually falling, or ready to fall, for the most part hid the sun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-day. In the month of January the cold was increased to that extremity, that M. Reaumur's mercurial thermometer, which, at Paris, in the great frost of 1709, it was thought strange to see fall to fourteen degrees below the freezing point, was now got down to thirty-seven. The spirits of wine in the others was frozen. If we opened the door of a warm room, the external air instantly converted all the vapour in it into snow, whirling it round in white vortices. If we went abroad, we felt as if the air was tearing our breasts in pieces; and the cracking of the wood, of which the houses are built, as if split by

the violence of the frost, continually alarmed us with increase of cold. In this country you may often see people who have lost an arm or a leg by the frost. The cold, which is always very great, sometimes increases to such violent and sudden degrees, as are almost insupportable to those who are so unhappy as to be exposed to it; and sometimes there rise sudden tempests of ice that are still more dangerous.

The winds seem to blow from all quarters at once, and drive about the snow with such fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered invisible. Dreadful the situation of a person surpris'd in the fields by such a storm: his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him; he is blinded by the snow, and, if he attempts to find his way home, is generally lost. In thurt, during the winter, the cold was so excessive, that on the 7th of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty divisions below the point of freezing; though every afternoon it rose two or three divisions above it; a difference in the height not much less than that which the greatest heat and cold felt at Paris usually produce in that instrument. Thus in 24 hours we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones in the compass of a whole year."

But though in winter the nights are very cold, long, and tedious, yet those inconveniences are, in some degree, obviated by the serenity of the sky, the brightness of the moon and stars, and the resplendent light of the *Aurora borealis*, which is reflected from the white surface of the earth covered with snow; from all which such light is produced, that the inhabitants are enabled to discharge their ordinary occupations. The above writer, in speaking of these nocturnal lights, says, "The days are no sooner closed than fires of a thousand figures and colours light up the sky, as if designed to compensate for the absence of the sun. These fires have here, as in more southern climates, any constant situation. Though a luminous arch is often seen fixed towards the north, they seem more frequently to possess the whole extent of the hemisphere. Sometimes they begin in the form of a great scarf of bright light, which its extremities upon the horizon, which, with a motion resembling that of a fishing-net, glides softly up the sky preserving, in this motion, a direction nearly perpendicular to the meridian; and most commonly after this prelude, all the lights unite at the zenith, and form the top of a crown. Arcs, like those seen in France towards the north, are here frequently situated towards the south, and often towards both the north and south at once. Their summits approach each other; the distance of the extremities widens towards the horizon. I have seen some of the opposite arcs, whose summits almost joined at the zenith; and both the one and the other have frequently several concentric arcs beyond it. Their tops are all placed in the direction of the meridian, though with a little declination to the west; which I did not find to be constant, and which is sometimes insensible

would be endless to meteors represent which they are agitatedly like that of a y the different tints of the different tints of so many va sometimes they li the eighteenth of this kind, that, in which I was now every nation. To the south of the north, which was as if it Union looked as if it into other colours, whose top stood with. The moon thou ce it. In this coun any different colours, and such are take mence. After all, wh ana with an unphilof discover in them th many chariots, and a tho of the most part, t bad, being lo inter thing will grow in ously, owing to the which it abounds rocks and mountai mountains, which sept a prodigious height here prevent all trees mountains are large m here are many trees, ence from each other infant vallies, which country, being well wa and springs. Many of the rivers here, and fall into the here are the Uma. L greatly increased by the rivers Vendilor are both very confid ourie, by a great nu ceives 20 rivers, on arath. When the low their banks; and ndous cataracts. I many lakes, which a as well as the rivers. There are a great n and, among which a parts of it also prod ar, elder, and the co planets; but the most which are greatly e

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 meteors represent, and the various motions with
 which they are agitated. Their motion is most com-
 monly like that of a pair of colours waved in the air,
 and the different tints of their lights give them the ap-
 pearance of so many vast streamers of changeable taste-
 fulness. Sometimes they line a part of the sky with scarlet.
 On the eighteenth of December I saw a phenomenon
 of this kind, that, in the midst of all the wonders to
 which I was now every day accustomed, raised my ad-
 miration. To the south a great space of the sky appeared
 tinged with so lively a red, that the whole constellation
 Orion looked as if it had been dipped in blood. This
 light, which was at first fixed, soon moved, and chang-
 ed into other colours, violet and blue, settled into a
 flame, whose top flood a little to the south-west of the
 zenith. The moon shone bright, but did not in the least
 dim it. In this country, where there are lights of so
 many different colours, I never saw but two that were
 permanent. After all, when people gaze at these pheno-
 mena with an unphilosophic eye, it is not surprising if
 they discover in them the appearance of armies engaged,
 fiery chariots, and a thousand other prodigies."

For the most part, the soil of this country is exceed-
 ingly bad, being so intermixed with stones, that hardly
 anything will grow in it; but in some places it is very
 fertile, owing to the number of marshes and brooks
 with which it abounds. The whole country is also full
 of rocks and mountains. Those called the Dofrine
 mountains, which separate Lapland from Norway, are
 of a prodigious height; and the high winds that blow
 here prevent all trees from taking root. Beneath these
 mountains are large marshes and extensive forests, where
 there are many trees, though they stand at a great dis-
 tance from each other. At the bottom of the hills are
 pleasant vallies, which are the most fertile parts of the
 country, being well watered by a great number of brooks
 and springs.

Many of the rivers rise from the mountains of Nor-
 way, and fall into the Bothnian Gulph. The chief of
 these are the Uma, Lula, Rima, and Torna. The Uma
 is greatly increased by the waters that flow into it from
 the rivers Vendilor and Skialfre. The Lula and Rima
 are both very considerable, and are swelled, in their
 course, by a great number of lesser ones. The torna
 receives 20 rivers, one of which is a Swedish mile in
 breadth. When the snow melts, all these rivers over-
 flow their banks; and the chief part of them have stu-
 pendous cataracts. Besides the rivers, here are also
 many lakes, which abound with various kinds of fish,
 as well as the rivers.

There are a great number of trees in the forests of Lap-
 land, among which are the birch, pine, and fir. Some
 parts of it also produce the service-tree, willow, pop-
 lar, elder, and the cornel. They have several sorts of
 plants; but the most useful are the angelica and sorrel,
 which are greatly esteemed by the natives, who use

them in their food. They have likewise different kinds
 of grass, heath, and fern; but the most plentiful, as well
 as most useful vegetable, is the moschus, or moss, of
 which there are several species, either adhering to trees,
 or growing on the surface of the earth. The rein-deer
 is almost wholly sustained by this vegetable, which, in-
 deed, he prefers to all others, and without which he
 cannot subsist. The natives not only use it as forage for
 their cattle, but boil it in broth as a cordial and restora-
 tive. Here are also great quantities of berries, such as
 black currants; the Norwegian mulberry, which grows
 upon a creeping plant, and is much esteemed as an anti-
 scorbutic; raspberries, cranberries, and bilberries. Jun-
 niper-berries are also very plentiful, and some of the
 trees grow to a considerable height.

Among the animals of this country are stags, bears,
 wolves, foxes of several colours, squirrels, ermines,
 martens, hares, glittens, beavers, otters, elks, and rein-
 deer; but the last of these is the most useful to the na-
 tives, who, without them, could not possibly preserve
 their existence; for these animals not only afford them
 food and garments, but also supply the place of horses,
 and travel in those parts where the latter animals could
 be entirely useless. The rein-deer is a kind of stag,
 with large branched horns, the tops of which bend for-
 ward like a bow. He is larger, stronger, and swifter
 than the stag, and his hair changes colour according to
 the season of the year. His hoofs are cloven and move-
 able, for which reason he spreads them abroad as he runs
 along the snow, to prevent his sinking into it. The
 horns are very high, and divided into two branches near
 the root. On each horn are three branches, one above
 another, which are again subdivided into smaller ones,
 insomuch that no horned beast whatever has the like,
 either for bulk, branches, or weight. The horns are of
 a light colour, and there are veins, or blood-vessels,
 running along them, under which there are furrows.
 When the beast runs he lays these horns upon his back;
 but there are two branches that always hang over his
 forehead, and almost cover his face. Most of these ani-
 mals are wild; but some of them are tame, and exceed-
 ing serviceable to the natives.

Those rein-deer which are produced between a tame
 doe and a wild buck are not only the largest, but by far
 the strongest. These animals are of infinite use to the
 Laplanders, for without subjecting them to the least
 expence, they supply them with almost every necessary
 of life. From these creatures they are furnished with
 milk and cheese, as also flesh, which they lay up for
 winter store. The skins afford caps, clothes, boots, shoes,
 bedding, thongs, and many other articles. The nerves
 and sinews are twisted into thread. Their bows and ar-
 rows are tipped with the bones, and their boxes inlaid
 with the horn, which is likewise formed into curious
 spoons, toys, and utensils. These creatures are likewise
 used as beasts of draught or burthen, and, far from de-
 manding any provision or provender, dig with their feet
 among the snow for the moss, which they prefer to
 every

every other kind of food. The dogs here are very small, not being above a foot in height. They turn up their tails, which are short; and their ears stand erect, like those of wolves. They are of a red colour, and in hunting are very serviceable.

In Lapland, the birds are swans, geese, ducks, lapwings, snipes, most sorts of water-fowl, heath-cocks, stock-doves, woodcocks, and partridges. Besides these, they have two kinds of fowl peculiar only to this country. The first is called the kniper, and is a kind of snipe, black on the head, back, and wings; but the breast and belly are white. It has a long red beak, set with teeth, and short red feet, resembling those of water-fowl. The other is called the loom, and is never seen on the ground, but either in the water, or flying. The partridges here are as white as snow, and, instead of feathers, their bodies are covered with a kind of wool. The rocks and mountains are frequented by eagles, hawks, falcons, kites, and birds of prey of various kinds.

The principal insects here are flies, which, in the summer, are hatched in the morasses and woods, and are frequently so numerous as to obscure the light of the day. They are venomous, and exceeding troublesome, inasmuch that the rein-deer fly to the tops of the mountains for shelter, and the inhabitants move to the sea-side, those parts being the least infested by these pestilent vermin. Monsieur Maupertuis says, that, while he was here, the flies were so troublesome, that even the Finland soldiers, who are counted the most hardy troops in the service of Sweden, were obliged to cover their faces with the skirts of their coats from the attacks of these animals, which swarmed to such a degree, that the moment a piece of flesh appeared, it was blackened all over. Some of these flies are very large, with green heads, and, where-ever they strike, draw blood from the skin.

In the rivers and lakes there is abundance of delicious salmon, which come from the Gulf of Bothnia; also trout, bream, and perch, all of which are of an amazing size, and exquisite flavour.

Mines of silver, lead, and copper, together with excellent veins of iron, are in some of the districts, but they are not at present worked to any considerable advantage, their situation being almost inaccessible. In the district of Tornio there is a vein of gold and silver mixed, another of lead and silver, and a third of copper; and here they have both copper works and a foundry. They have also furnaces in the province of Lula, where they melt the silver which they dig in that part of the country. These mines, however, are only worked for a short time in the summer, the climate being so severe for the principal part of the year, that the engines cannot work them.

Beautiful crystals of a prodigious size are found in the rivers and lakes; these are so hard and fine, that, when polished, they appear like real diamonds. Here are likewise a great variety of curious stones, some of which bear the resemblance of animals, trees, &c.

When the natives find these, they place them in a conspicuous place, and worship them as idols.

The generality of the Laplanders are remarkable for short stature, not being above four feet and a half, and some of them even under that size; the cause of which is attributed to the severity of climate, and the poorness of their living. They are in general, very disagreeably formed, having a large head, a broad forehead, hollow and beared eyes, a short and flat nose, and a broad face, with black, and rough hair. They have broad broad slender waists, and small legs; but they are stout, hardy, and active, inasmuch that they will bear incredible fatigue; and it is remarked, that the stoutest Norwegian is not able to bend the bow of a Laplander. The women, however, are much less hardy than the men; and the complexions of some of the women are delicate and florid.

With respect to their dispositions, they are very honest and hospitable; but so timorous, that they fly the moment they perceive a vessel at sea, or the least footstep of a stranger. They are naturally haughty and passionate, and, when once provoked, not easily appeased. They indulge themselves in laziness to such a degree, that they neither plough or sow, nor leave their ground totally uncultivated; neither do they seek for provender either by hunting or fishing, till they are compelled to it from mere necessity. It hath been observed, that when they have been transported to more moderate climates, they have died, though in their own country they live to a great age. It is no uncommon thing to see a Laplander upwards of an hundred years of age, hunting, lowing, skating, and performing with the most astonishing agility the severest exercises.

The Lapland houses, or rather huts, are made of pieces of timber, or rafters, joined together, and covered with turf, or the branches of pine trees and coral close together. Some of them are built upon trees to prevent the being overwhelmed with snow, and to secure them from the wild beasts. Their huts have two doors, the lesser of which no woman must enter, because from thence the men go to hunt; and should they meet the woman at going out, it would be considered as a bad omen. They have no other chimney than a hole at the top of their huts, which serves to let the smoke out, and the light in. Their stone houses are built in trees, to secure their provision from bears and other beasts of prey.

In summer their dress consists of a close garment reaching to the middle of the legs, and fastened round the waist with belts. They have not any linen, and their clothes are made of coarse wool, of a dark green colour. The richer sort have their clothes of various colours, but red is the most universally esteemed. In their girdles they hang a Norway knife and a pouch, the latter of which contains flints, matches, and tobacco, with other necessaries; the girdle itself being decorated

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decorated with brass rings and chains. Their night-
caps are made of the skins of the bird-loom, with the
lashes on; and their shoes of the skins of rein-deer,
with the hair outwards. In winter they are totally
wrapped up in coats, caps, boots, and gloves, made of
the rein-deer's skin, with the hair inwards. The
women's apparel differs but little from that of the
men: they hang to their girdles many rings, chains,
knives, and knives, with a needle case, and other trifles.
Their thread is made of the sinews of rein-deer; and
in winter they lie in their skins. In summer they all
cover themselves at night with large pieces of coarse
cloth, to secure them from being stung by the gnats
and flies.

These people make all their own furniture, boats,
sledges, bows and arrows. The boards with which
they make their boats are fastened together with
the nerves of rein-deer, or the small roots of
trees twisted together like ropes; and they calk them
with moss to keep out the water. They make boxes
of their birch planks, which they neatly inlay with
the horns of rein-deer; and they are very dexterous at
making baskets of the roots of trees, slit in long
thin pieces, and twisted together. Some of these are
made so neat that they will hold water; and the
Laplanders greatly admire them. These articles are made
by the men, who also perform the office of cook,
by dressing victuals for the family.

The women are employed as taylors and em-
broiderers; they make clothes, shoes, and boots, and
knives for the rein-deer: they spin thread with fur,
and knit it into caps and gloves, which are very soft
and warm: they likewise draw tin into wire through a
horn, and with this they cover their thread, which
they use, in embroidering on their caps and girdles
the figures of bealls, flowers, stars, and the like.

Those who inhabit the mountains live chiefly on
the flesh and milk of the rein-deer; the former of
which they dry, and from the latter they make great
quantities of cheese. Those who live in the low
country feed on venison and fish. They have neither
bread or salt; but instead thereof use the inner rind
of the pine-tree, dried and ground, and dried fish
reduced to powder. They make broth of fish and
beef boiled together; and their usual drink is water
beaten in a kettle, which in winter hangs continually
over the fire: but their greatest dainty is bear's flesh,
which they eat on all particular festivals. On these
occasions likewise they indulge themselves with brandy,
and never think themselves so happy as when they
can enjoy a pipe of tobacco. These commodities the
Laplanders purchase at Norway, as also a few cows
and sheep for the winter store. They make de-
coctions of berries, angelica, and ferrel, which they
are not only fond of, but also deem them excel-
lent preservatives against all disorders of a scorbutic
nature.

The Laplanders, besides their domestic business, em-

ploy themselves in hunting, in which excursions they
travel through the snow with astonishing expedition.
They wear a pair of skais, or snow shoes, which are
made of fir boards, covered with the rough skin of the
rein-deer: one of these is usually as long as the person
who wears it, but the other is about a foot shorter.
The feet are placed near the middle, and the shoes
are fastened to them with strings, or thongs made with
the sinews of the rein-deer. When the Laplander
travels in this manner he carries a long pole in his
hand, near the end of which is a round ball of wood;
and this not only secures him from penetrating too
deep into the snow, but also enables him to stop him-
self when there is occasion. A Laplander will travel
in his snow shoes at the rate of sixty miles a day
without being fatigued. But the most expeditious
method of travelling in this country is with a sledge
drawn by rein-deer. This carriage, which is called
by the natives pulkha, is made in the form of a small
boat, with a convex bottom, that it may slide the
more easily over the snow; the head of it is sharp
and pointed, but the hinder part is quite flat. The
traveller sits, or rather lays with his back against the
end of the sledge, and holds a stick in his hand, with
a large wooden ball at the end of it, with which he
disengages the sledge from such obstructions as he
may happen to meet with in the course of his journey.
He must likewise take care properly to balance the
carriage with his body, otherwise he will be subject
to be overturned. The traces, by which the sledge
is fastened to the rein-deer, are fixed to a collar about
the animal's neck, and run down over the breast,
between the fore and hind legs, to be connected with
the prow of the sledge; the reins are tied to the
horns, and the trappings are furnished with little bells,
the sound of which is very pleasing to the animal.
The rein-deer is so fleet that he will run with his
carriage upwards of 100 miles a day. Before a Lap-
lander sets out on his journey, he whispers in the
ear of the animal the way he is to go, and the place
at which he is to halt, from a persuasion that the beast
understands his meaning; but, in spite of this im-
itation, he frequently stops short, and sometimes
over-shoots the mark by several miles. Though this
method of travelling is exceedingly expeditious, yet
it is far from being easy, the person being continually
in a confined posture; neither is it exempted from the
most imminent danger, on account of the uncertainty
of the roads, and the drifts of loose snow, which, if
the wind blows high, are driven about with incredible
fury, and in prodigious quantities.

When the winter commences, the Laplander's mark
the most frequented roads by strewing them with fir-
boughs. Indeed, these roads are no other than path-
ways made through the snow by the rein-deer and
sledges: their being frequently covered with new snow,
and alternately beaten by the carriage, consolidates
them into a kind of causeway, which is the harder if

the surface has felt a partial thaw, and been crusted by a subsequent frost. It requires great caution to follow these tracks; for if the carriage runs either on one side or the other, the traveller is thrown into an abyss of snow. In less frequented parts, where there is no such beaten road, the Laplander directs his course by certain marks which he has made on the trees; but, notwithstanding all his caution, the rein-deer very often sinks up to his horns in snow; and should a hurricane arise, which is sometimes the case, the traveller would be in great danger of his life, were he not provided with a kind of tent, to screen him in some measure from the fury of the tempest. But the rein-deer in winter is rather weak and dispirited, so that he cannot travel with the same alacrity as in summer. In this season the traveller is obliged to halt at different times, that the animal may rest himself; and in these intervals be fed with a kind of cake made of moss and snow, which serves him for drink and provender at the same time.

The chief employment of the Laplanders, exclusive of their domestic affairs, consists in hunting and fishing. Those who practise the latter have small boats, so lightly constructed that they can carry them on their shoulders, which they frequently do, when interrupted on the rivers by whirlpools or cataracts. The boats are of different sizes, from two to six yards in length, managed with oars, and calked with moss so tight, as effectually to keep out the water. They steer with amazing rapidity, even among the rocks, and down the most rapid water falls; but when they go against the stream, and meet with a cataract, they take out their boat, and carry it on their shoulders till they have passed it, when they launch it again, and proceed on their way.

Such as employ themselves in hunting, perform it various ways. In summer, they hunt wild beasts with small dogs trained to the diversion. In winter, they pursue them by their tracks upon the snow; skating with such velocity, that they frequently run down their prey. They catch ermines in traps, and sometimes with dogs. They kill squirrels, martens, and sables, with blunt darts, to avoid injuring the skins. Foxes and beavers are killed with sharp pointed darts and arrows, in shooting of which they are accounted the best marksmen in the world. The larger beasts, such as bears, wolves, elks, and wild rein-deer, they either kill with fire arms, or else ensnare by digging pits in places mostly resorted to by these creatures.

The Laplanders have particular laws relative to the chase, which they observe with great punctuality. The beast becomes the property of the man in whose snare or pit he is caught; and he who discovers a bear's den has the exclusive privilege of hunting him to death. The conquest of a bear is the most honourable achievement that a Laplander can perform; and the flesh of this animal they think more delicious than that of any other whatever. The bear is

always dispatched with a fusil, sometimes laid in a snare, ready cocked and primed; but more frequently by the hands of the hunter, who, on missing his aim would run the most imminent danger of his life.

These people celebrate the killing a bear with great rejoicings. The carcass is drawn to the cave or hut of the victor, by a rein-deer, which, on that account, is afterwards kept a whole year without doing any work. The bear is surrounded by a great number of men, women, and children, who recite a particular song of triumph, in which they thank the vanquished enemy for having allowed himself to be overcome, without doing any mischief to his conqueror; after this they address themselves to Providence, acknowledging the singular benefits they receive from his having created beasts for their use, and endowed them with strength and courage to attack and overcome them. The conqueror is saluted by the women, and is feasted by the men of the village for three successive days; besides which, he is ever after distinguished from the rest, by having his wroughit with tin ware round his cap.

Nuptial ceremonies among the Laplanders are very remarkable and ludicrous. When a young man has made choice of a female, he employs some friends as mediators with the girl's parents; and these being provided with some bottles of brandy, the suitor accompanies them to the hut of his intended father-in-law, who invites the mediators to enter; but the suitor is left without, until the liquor be drunk, and the proposal discussed. After this he is called in, and entertained with such fare as the hut affords, but without seeing his mistress, who, on this occasion, is obliged to retire. The suitor having at length obtained leave to make his addresses to the girl in person, he goes home, puts on his best attire, and then returns to the hut, when his mistress appears, and he salutes her with a kiss; after which he presents her with the tongue of a rein-deer, a piece of beaver's flesh, or some other kind of provision. The girl first declines the offer, it being made in the presence of her relations; but at the same time she makes a signal to the lover to follow her into the fields, where she accepts the presents. Thus encouraged, he begs permission of her to let him sleep with her in the hut; if she consents, she keeps the presents; but if not, she throws them with contempt on the ground.

When the lovers are agreed, the youth is permitted to visit his mistress as often as he thinks proper; but every time he comes he must purchase this pleasure with a fresh bottle of brandy, a requisite so agreeable to the father, that he often postpones the celebration of the nuptials for two or three years. At length the ceremony is performed at the nearest church, by the priest of the parish; but even after this, the husband is obliged to serve his father-in-law a whole year, at the expiration of which he retires to his own habitation with his wife, and then receives presents

from all his relations, who squanders his wife of the male sex, and a malicious eye.

In Lapland, as soon as a child is born, the mother must not be bled, which has been baptised in child-bed. The nurse is generally the child to be baptised, the residence of the nurse is generally a large forest, the extended walls of which are covered with moss, and hung by two women who always suckles the child in a cradle which is hung to the other. When the mother is very careful in

breast they have a great deal from their infancy, and they are not allowed to be hit the mark.

The business peculiar to these people is to hunt for furs, which they sell to the merchants of the north. There are no physicians in Lapland, but the people are subject to those disorders which they are accustomed to.

The disorder they are most frequently afflicted with is the jaundice, which they call *jerit*, and is cured by drinking made with the bark of the birch-tree, which they call *jerit*, and boil the rein-deer. When they are sick, they take a kind of medicine upon the birch-tree bark, apply it, burning it, which produces a bluish colour, the peccant humour is then discharged. When they have a fever, they rub their chest with iron into a cheel, and rub it with the fat that drops from the cheel. When they rub the part affected, it is cured by that means.

When a native of Lapland dies, such as a Christian, but those who have not embraced the Christian religion, so take the same method, but the funerals are very different, the breath is out of

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of the male sex, and watches over her conduct with a
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In Lapland, as soon as a child is born, it is washed
all over with snow or cold water, except the head,
which must not be touched with water till after the
child has been baptized. The woman does not re-
main in child-bed above four or five days, and in
fourteen is generally quite recovered. She then carries
the child to be baptized; but before she can reach
the residence of the priest, she is often obliged to
traverse large forests, mountains, lakes, and wide
extended wastes of snow. The infant is fastened in a
hollowed piece of wood, stretched naked on a bed of
fine moss, covered with the skin of a young rein-deer,
and slung by two straps to the back of the mother,
who always suckles her own child. At home this
little cradle is hung to the roof of the hut, and the
child is lulled to sleep by swinging it from one side to
the other. When the children grow up, their parents
are very careful in teaching them most kinds of work;
but they have a great aversion to schools. The boys,
from their infancy, are taught to practise the bow;
and they are not allowed to break their fast till they
have hit the mark. The girls are early initiated in
the business peculiar to females.

There are no physicians among the Laplanders;
neither have they, indeed, occasion for any, not being
subject to those distempers common in other countries.
The disorder they are most subject to is sore eyes,
occasioned by the smoke of their huts, and the fire
to which they are almost continually exposed. They
are sometimes afflicted with rheumatic pains, and the
scurvy; and a few are subject to the vertigo and
apoplexy. To cure all inward disorders they use a
drink made with the root of a certain species of moss,
which they call *jerib*; and when that cannot be pro-
cured, they boil the stalk of angelica in the milk of
reindeer. When they feel a pain in any part of the
body, they take a kind of mushroom, which grows
upon the birch-tree like a cake, and having set fire to
it, apply it, burning hot, to the part affected; and
this produces a blister, which is supposed to draw off
the peccant humour. They have no other plasters
for wounds but the rosin which drops from fir-trees.
When they have any limb frozen, they put a red-
deer horn into a cheese made of reindeer's milk, and
with the fat that drops from it, like a kind of oil,
they rub the part affected, which is almost instantly
cured by that means.

When a native of this country is supposed to be on
his death-bed, such friends as are advocates for the
Christian religion, give him Christian exhortation.
But those who have no great zeal for the Christian
religion, to save the dying person, and think of
nothing but the funeral entertainment. As soon as
the breath is out of the body, most of the company

leave the hut, being of opinion they shall receive
some injury from the spirit or ghost, which they be-
lieve remains with the corpse, and takes all oppor-
tunities of doing mischief to the living. The de-
ceased is wrapped up in linen or woollen, according
to his circumstances, and deposited in a coffin by a
person selected for that purpose; but this office he
will not perform till he receives a consecrated brass
ring, which is placed on his left arm, and which he
imagines secures him against receiving any injury from
the ghost of the deceased person.

The Laplanders, before they embraced the Christian
religion, used to bury their dead in the first place they
happened to think of, which they still do when they
are very far from any church. Many of them also pre-
serve the rites of heathenish superstition; for with the
body they put in the coffin an axe, a flint and steel, a
flask of brandy, some dried fish, and venison. With
the axe the deceased is supposed to hew down the
bushes or boughs that may obstruct him in the other
world; the steel and flint are to furnish him with a
light, should he find himself in the dark; and the
provision is for him to subsist on during his journey
thither.

Previous to the body being carried to the place of
interment, the friends of the deceased kindle a fire of
fir boughs near the coffin, and express their sorrow in
tears and lamentations. They walk in procession
several times round the body, demanding, in a whi-
ning tone, the reason of his leaving them on earth.
They ask whether he was out of humour with his
wife? whether he was in want of meat, drink,
clothing, or other necessaries and whether he had
not succeeded in hunting or fishing? These, and other
such interrogatories, are intermingled with groans and
hideous howlings; and between them the priest
sprinkles the corpse and the mourners alternately with
holy water. After these ceremonies are over, the body
is conveyed to the place of interment, in a sledge
drawn by a rein-deer, and followed by the friends and
relations, who shew their concern for the loss of the
deceased, by dressing themselves in the worst garments
they have, and keeping a continual howl during the
procession. As soon as the ceremony is over, the
people retire; and the sledge, with the clothes which
belonged to the deceased, are left as the Priest's
perquisite.

Three days after the funeral, the relations and
friends of the deceased are invited to an entertainment,
where they eat the flesh of the rein-deer which con-
veyed the corpse to the grave. The animal being
made a sacrifice to the manes of the deceased, the
bones of it are collected together, put into a basket,
and interred with great ceremony. The effects of
the deceased are divided between the brothers and
sisters, the former having two-thirds, and the latter
one; but the lands, lakes, and rivers, are held jointly
by all the children of both sexes, according to the
division

division made by Charles IX. of Sweden, when he assigned to each family a certain tract of land for their support.

The Lapland language is altogether barbarous, and varies in different parts of the country, according to the correspondence which the natives maintain with the different nations; such as Norwegians, Swedes, Finlanders, and Russians. The greater part of them are totally ignorant of letters; and the same may be said also of arts, except such as necessity has taught them to make use of for their own preservation and convenience.

With respect to religion, Christianity was first supposed to have been introduced into Lapland about the year 1300. However, no material progress was made in the establishment of it till the last century, when missionaries were sent for that purpose from Norway, Sweden, and Russia. Several churches were built in different parts of the country, and supplied with ministers from Sweden and Russia. Gustavus Adolphus founded two schools, one in the province of Pitha, and the other in that of Ulma, for instructing the children of the Laplanders in the Christian religion and in letters. He also ordered several pious books to be translated from the Swedish into the Lapland language; such as the catechism, with some prayers, and the manual, containing the Psalms of David, the Proverbs of Solomon, &c. That they might be encouraged to send their children to school, an annual revenue was allotted for the maintenance of the scholars. Hence Lapland produced some preachers, which greatly promoted the knowledge of Christianity in that country; for, heretofore, their clergy having been Swedes, whose language the people did not understand, it could not be reasonably supposed that they should profit much by their instructions. Since that time, however, many have intermixed idolatry with the pure profession of Christianity, and, from local customs, their particular fondness for omens, particular times and seasons, distinguished by the names of black and white days, &c. retain many of their former superstitions. They have some notion of the doctrine of the transmigration of souls; for they not only respect the manes of their departed relations and friends, but dread them as being mischievous, till they imagine the spirits of the dead have re-animated other bodies. They believe there are fairies that wander about among the rocks, mountains, rivers, and lakes, and give them also a share of their devotion.

They own one Supreme Being, whom they arm with thunderbolts; they make the rainbow his bow, and have the same notion of him that the old Pagans had of their Jupiter. They have another subordinate deity, to whom they acknowledge they owe all the blessings of life, and never fail to worship him. The sun is another of their divinities, because of his influence on the bodies of men and beasts. They have

temples and images consecrated to each of their gods. Their idols are either the trunks of trees rudely carved, or of stone. One of these is preserved in the royal cabinet of antiquaries at Upsal. All the women are excluded from worship. They anoint the idol with the heart's blood of the sacrifice; and when they cannot reach the top of a mountain consecrated to Storjunker, one of their deities, they dip a stone in the blood of the sacrifice, throw it up to the mountain, and conclude their devotion by that act.

These people were formerly deemed great magicians, and the credulous supposed them to be mightily skilled in divination. So excessively credulous, indeed, were these poor Laplanders, and so preposterously attached to their conjurers, that they implicitly follow their directions. If these pretended wizards tell them that on such a day they shall take plenty of fish or game, they will not fail to go out that day; and where there is most commonly abundance of both in the country, they usually verify the prediction, by coming home loaded whenever they go out in search of game. And if the wizards mark another day as unfortunate, they infallibly make it so, by not going abroad in quest of any.

Different governors, or prefects, are deputed, by the three powers to whom Lapland is now subject, to preside over their respective districts. The Laplanders, however, had kings of their own till the year 1777, when the Swedes conquered part of the country, and the Russians and Norwegians soon after followed their example, and subdued the remaining part.

As Swedish Lapland is the most considerable district of the three, the laws of Sweden are observed; and three tribunals, or courts of justice, are erected: one for Angermansland-Lapmark; a second for Uma, Pitha, and Lula-Lapmark; and the third for Tornea and Kemi-Lapmark; in each of which courts there is a prefect who determines all causes. They administer justice in the king's name, and in the presence of the priest belonging to the district.

Such of the Laplanders, as live near the mountains which part Norway from Sweden, trade with the inhabitants of those countries. Others, who are at a greater distance from those mountains, trade only with the Swedes; and they who are situated towards the north and east, trade with the Russians and Finlanders. The commodities they receive from those nations are six-dollars, woollen stuffs, linen, copper, tin, flour, salt, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, and especially tobacco, of which they are extremely fond. They give, in return, rein-deer and fish, of the last of which they take such large quantities, that they flock whole reservoirs with them, and put them afterwards into barrels, which they carry to the neighbouring countries; namely, the north of Bothnia, and White Russia. They also trade in fine crinines, the skins of several wild beasts, dried pikes, and cheese made of the milk of their rein-deer.

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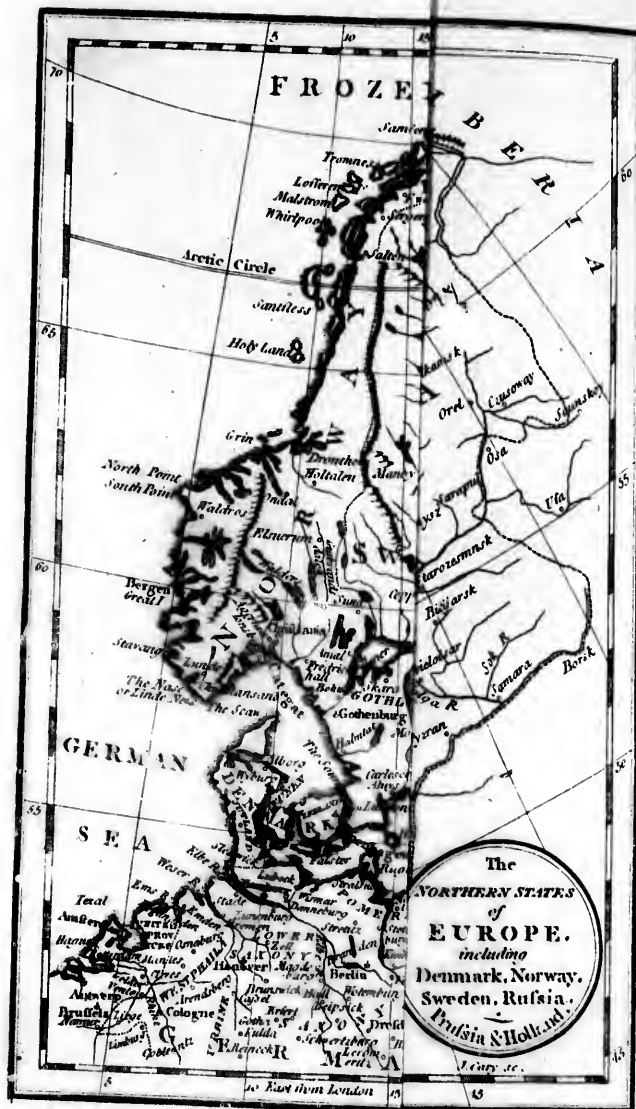
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Formerly, the tribute paid by the Laplanders, consisted in skins of wild beasts; but now they consist in certain coin, rein-deer, and in skins, either dressed to certain uses, or raw; and are proportionable to the extent of land possessed by each head of a family. The largest are styled entire territories, or territories in full tribute; and the owner is obliged to pay yearly two rix-dollars, in coin, to the crown of Sweden. They who possess a territory, or land of less extent, pay only one rix-dollar. But as it happens very often, that many of them have no rix-dollars, they are allowed to give skins of foxes or squirrels instead of coin. Fifty squirrel skins, or one fox's skin, with a pair of shoes, after the fashion of Lapland, are valued at one rix-dollar: besides which, every head of a family is obliged to give yearly a pair of fox's skin, or a pair of shoes; and if he cannot procure those things, he must give half a pound of silver pikes. Part of these taxes are employed for the maintenance of the priests who live in that country, and to instruct the Laplanders. The inhabitants of the other districts of Lapland trade much in the same manner, and pay the revenues in a similar manner to the respective states, under whose particular jurisdiction they are.

The Laplanders have neither castles, bulwarks, or garrisons, for the defence of their country: nor indeed is there occasion for any, its frightful aspect forming a more effectual barrier than all the fortifications of art garrisoned by innumerable armies of veteran soldiers; the judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a re-

markable aversion to war, and, we believe, are never employed in any army. With respect to the security of their property, few disputes happen.

C H A P. VI.

S W E D E N.

Situation, Dimensions, Provinces, Cities, Climate, Soil, Produce, Mountains, Inhabitants, Religion, &c.

THIS country is situated between 56 and 69 deg. north lat. and between 10 and 30 deg. east long. being 800 miles in length, and 500 in breadth; and is bounded, on the south, by the Baltic, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac; by Danish or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; by Muscovy, on the east; and by the impassable mountains of Norway, on the west. Such a vast tract of country may naturally be supposed to contain a great number of inhabitants; but these bear a very small proportion to the extent of Sweden, great part of it being rendered uninhabitable by seas, lakes, mountains, and marshes. It is divided into seven parts or provinces; viz. Sweden, properly so called, bounded by Norway and the gulf of Bothnia, Gothland, Livonia, Ingria, Finland, Swedish Lapland, and the Swedish islands. But it is necessary to observe, that Livonia and Ingria, though reckoned as part of Sweden, belong now to the Russians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by posterior treaties.

The following are the Dimensions of the Kingdom of Sweden:

Places.	Length	Breadth	Square Miles.	Capital Cities.
Sweden Proper.....	342	194	47,900	STOCKHOLM.
Gothland.....	253	160	25,975	Calmar.
Schonen.....	77	56	2,960	Lunden.
Lapland, and West Bothnia.....	420	340	76,000	Torne, Uma.
Swedish Finland, and East Bothnia.....	305	225	73,000	Abo, Cajanburg.
Gothland I.	80	23	1,000	Wifby.
Oeland I.	84	9	560	Barkholm.
Upper } Pomerina P.	47	24	} 1,320	Stralsfund.
Saxony } Rugen I.	24	21		
Total			228,715	Bergen.

SWEDEN PROPER contains the following provinces; namely, Uplandia, Sudermania, Westmania, Nericia, Gellericia, Helsingia, Dalecarlia, Medelpedia, Angermania, Jemptia.

Gothland contains East Gothland, West Gothland, Smaland, Wermeland, Dalia, Schonen, Bleking, Halland.

Swedish Lapland contains Thorne-Lapmark, Kimi-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Pithia-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark.

In West Bothnia, the principal places are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Finland contains East Bothnia, Cajania, Savoloxia, Nyland, Travastia, Finland Proper.



Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen, are the Swedish islands.

The climate, air, and soil of Sweden, are pretty similar to those of Norway and Lapland, already described; in this, as in the other countries, there is an uninterrupted day-light of several weeks in summer, which is proportionably defective in winter. Spring and autumn are not known: the sun is so excessively hot in summer, as sometimes to set forests on fire; and the winter is so intensely cold, that the noses and extremities of the inhabitants are frequently mortified; and in such cases, the best remedy that has been found out, is, rubbing the part affected with snow: they endeavour to mitigate the severity of the weather, by stoves and warm furs.

The soil is much the same with that of Denmark, and some parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in some vallies surprisngly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not industry enough to remedy the one, or improve the other. But since the days of Charles XII. they have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenness of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in some places with great success. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and some late accounts say, that they raise almost as much grain as maintain the natives. In summer, a beautiful verdure, interspersed with flowers, overspreads the fields; currants, strawberries, raspberries, with other small fruits, are produced spontaneously. Great plenty of pot-herbs and roots are reared in the kitchen-gardens. In dry seasons, melons are brought to great perfection, and the orchards abound with cherries of different kinds, and of excellent flavour. Apples, pears, and plums are pretty scarce here; and the common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, neclarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits.

The mountains in Sweden are numerous, huge, and hoary; the principal among them are the Dofrine, which begin about Jemptland, and extend near four hundred English miles north. The face of the country is in a great measure overspread by vast forests of fir, pine, alder, juniper, beech, birch, and some oak. These trees grow so close together, and such a number of those that fall are left to rot, that in many places the woods are entirely impassable. The timber is in general as good as that of Norway.

Their seas are the Baltic and the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the west of Sweden are the Categate sea, and the Sound, a freight about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark. These seas have no tides, and are usually frozen up four months in the year; nor are they so salt as the ocean, never mixing with it, because a current sets always out of the Baltic sea into the ocean.

This kingdom is watered by many navigable rivers, among which are the Lahla, Tornea, and Kima; but

the chief of them is the Uma, which is augmented by many others.

The lakes in Sweden are of prodigious extent and depth, and are traversed by the inhabitants in boats in the summer, and sledges in the winter. The names of the principal of these are the Veller, the Wenner, and the Maeler. In the lakes, and along the sea-coast, there are innumerable islands, of which six thousand are inhabited, but the rest are either bare rocks, or small islands covered with wood.

Sweden has several mines of silver, many of copper, and vast numbers of iron. The principal of these is the great silver mine, into which workmen are let down in baskets to the first floor, which is 105 fathoms under ground: the roof there is as high as a church, supported by vast arches of oak; thence the descent is by ladders, or baskets, to the lowest mine, above 40 fathoms. They have no records so ancient as the first discovery either of this or the great copper mine, which must needs have been the work of many ages. The ore seldom yields above four per cent. and requires great pains to refine it. They are also at the charge of a water-mill to drain the mines, and have the benefit of another to draw up the ore. This mine formerly produced between 20,000 and 30,000 fine silver crowns annually, and the king had a privilege in his favour, of being allowed to purchase whatever quantity he thought proper of it, and to pay one fourth less than the intrinsic value. A late traveller informs us, that this mine is, at present, much diminished in value, by having been so greatly exhausted. However, it may not be improper, in this place, to describe the metal called silver, and the nature of the various ores from which it is produced.

Silver is a noble and perfect metal, of a white shining colour, sonorous and ductile, but not so perfect as gold. It is sometimes found in small masses of many different shapes, but most commonly like filaments and scales in several sorts of stones and moulds, and in many sorts of land.

The Vitrean silver is of an irregular form, very weighty, and may be easily flatted with a hammer, for it is not much harder than lead, and is much of the same colour; for which reason it is often mistaken for lead. It melts presently, and soon grows red-hot. It consists of sulphur and pure silver, and above three quarters of it is silver. The horny silver ore is half transparent, and of a deeper yellow or brown colour, according as it consists of larger or smaller lumps. It looks like rosin, and is of an irregular shape. When carefully examined, it appears to consist of very thin plates. It is not very weighty or hard, for it may be easily ground, and when brought suddenly to the fire, it crackles, bursts, and exhales a sulphurous smell, and sometimes bursts lightly. This hard sort contains two thirds of silver. The red silver ore is sometimes of a lighter, and sometimes of a deeper scarlet colour. The first case is transparent, like a garnet, and has been mistaken for transparent cinnabar, and in the second case

it is of a deeper dye ore, but bursts with fire, and the remainder is then it emits them with a thick fire of silver as the horn

The white silver is of an irregular figure, present only copper in silver, for it differs from the other principal silver ores are looked upon as contain a considerable is always more of ore they cannot produce

Silver may be cast into channels, made then blowing up into the channels,

Silver is harder than gold, being little lighter than gold, but will grow black

it mixed with some half transparent brought back to silver in a violent fire will be dissolved in aqua fortis

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The great copper great extent, but it is the roof; yet that is the dance of ore which most commonly these falls is ascribed stones, brought out it; by which the way. The reason of this is, that those who are not able to work the rubbish to a great abates a considerable crown from this ore years, be at a stand copper, which are effect. The copper amounts to the value king has a fourth

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it is of a deeper dye. It is heavier than the former horny ore, but bursts when brought near a candle or a mild fire, and the remaining part melts before it grows red-hot; then it emits a disagreeable smell of arsenic, together with a thick smoke. It contains the same quantity of silver as the horny ore just mentioned.

The white silver ore is of a light grey colour, of an irregular figure, pretty weighty, and very brittle. It has not only copper in it, but sometimes more of it than of silver, for it differs from the white copper ore in nothing but the quantity of silver it contains. These are the principal silver ores hitherto known, though many others are looked upon by some as such, because they contain a considerable quantity of silver; but then there is always more of other metals along with them, therefore they cannot properly be called silver ores.

Silver may be easily extracted from lead, by melting it in channels, made with ashes in the furnace, and then blowing up the fire till it turns into glass, sinks into the channels, and leaves the pure silver behind.

Silver is harder than gold, but not so ductile, and is lighter than gold or lead, the weight, with regard to gold, being little less than five to nine. It will not rust, but will grow black by sulphurous vapours, and will dissolve in aqua fortis, but not in aqua regia. When it is mixed with common salt, and melted, it turns into a half transparent mass like horn, which is hard to be brought back to silver again, because it is volatile, and in a violent fire will all fly away. When silver is dissolved in aqua fortis it may be crystallized, and the crystals are very corrosive, and of an exceeding bitter taste. When applied to the skin, they leave an impression like that of a burning coal, and make an escar of a black colour. The solution of silver will turn any thing black, and therefore, when properly diluted, is often used to colour the hair. These crystals will melt in a very moderate heat before they grow red, and form a blackish mass: it is then proper for the use of surgeons, and is called the silver caustic.

The great copper mine is about 80 fathoms deep, of great extent, but subject to damages by the falling-in of the roof; yet that is sometimes recompensed by the abundance of ore which the ruined pillars yield, though most commonly the loss is very great. The occasion of these falls is ascribed to the throwing the earth and stones, brought out of the mine, upon the ground over it; by which the pillars become overcharged, and give way. The reason of this is said to be, that the profit arising to those who are concerned is so little, that they are not able to work it off as they ought, and to remove the rubbish to a greater distance; and unless the king abates a considerable part of the profit arising to the crown from this mine, it is believed it will, in a few years, be at a stand, especially if the designs of making copper, which are on foot elsewhere, take any tolerable effect. The copper yearly made out of this mine amounts to the value of about 200,000*l.* of which the king has a fourth part, not by way of pre-emption, but

in kind; besides which, he has upon the remainder a custom of 25 per cent. when it is exported unwrought. Many years ago a gentleman of Italy came into Sweden, with proposals to make copper a shorter and cheaper way than had till then been practised, so as to make that in five days, which before required three weeks, and with one fifth part of the charcoal, and with fewer hands. The bargain was made, and his reward to be 100,000 crowns. The first essay he made succeeded to admiration; but when he came to work in earnest, and had got his new ovens built to his mind, the miners, as he complained, picked out the very worst ore, and were otherwise so envious and untractable, that he failed of success, and lost his reward, nor was it without difficulty that he obtained leave to buy ore, and practise his invention at his own charge.

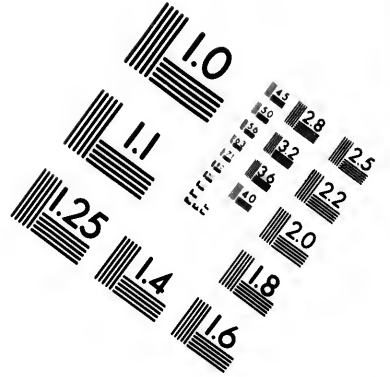
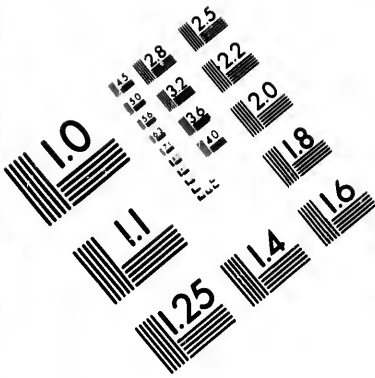
This mine, travellers tell us, in the last century, supplied the greatest part of Europe with copper; but at present it is worked so very deep, that it is become extremely expensive; and though the ore is uncommonly rich, the produce is considerably diminished.

Copper is a hard, ignoble metal, softer than iron, and, when polished, is of a shining reddish colour. It will melt in the fire, and is so ductile, that it may be beaten into exceeding thin leaves. It is more frequently found in its metallic form than iron, in various shapes, but its ore never distinguishes itself by any certain figure, for it is almost always irregular. But the finest colours of any kind, except the red and transparent, most commonly betray the presence of copper; for this reason there is hardly any copper ore that is not mixed with iron, in a larger quantity than the ores of other metals commonly are. However, there is not so much in some as in others; and those that contain the least iron, are naturally more easily melted than the rest. The vitreous copper ore is of a darkish violet sky colour, like that of a piece of steel that has touched a red-hot iron. It is very heavy, and of a moderate hardness, but commonly variegated with spots and grey veins. One hundred weight of this ore contains from 50 to 80 pounds of copper. The azure copper ore is of a most beautiful blue colour, not soft, but very heavy, and, when broken, shines like blue glass. This is most free from iron, arsenic, and sulphur; and a great quantity of excellent copper may be extracted out of it with ease. The green copper ore is like green crystal, and sometimes very prettily streaked; but in other things it has the properties of the former. The light dusky blue concretes, as well as the green, called by some copper okers, yield a great deal of very good copper when they are pure, which may be known from their colour and weight; but those that are more light are mixed with unmetallic earth, and those that are yellow contain iron oker; on which account they are the more difficult to be met with, and yield less copper of an inferior sort.

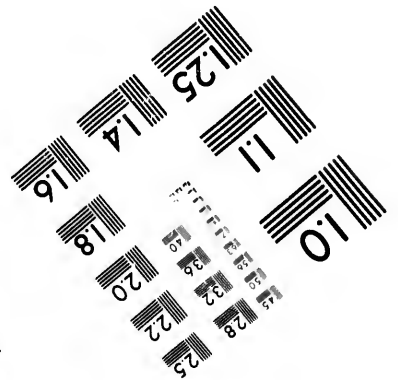
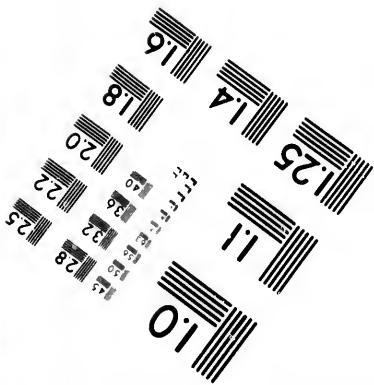
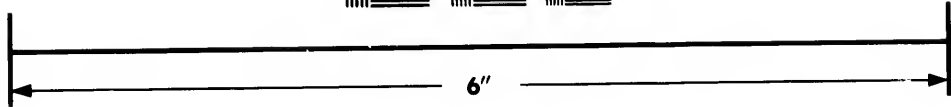
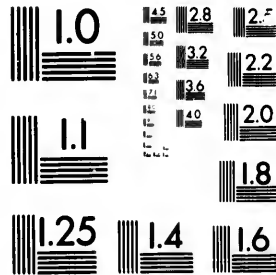
A Dutch officer has given the following extraordinary account of a descent into the copper mine of Falun in Sweden. "During the four hours that I wan-

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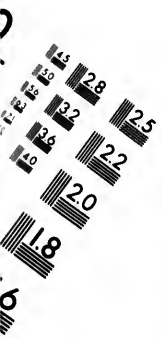


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dered into the bowels of Kopperberg, as I descended from gallery to gallery, sometimes by ladders, and sometimes by stairs, my astonishment increased at every step. At first I went down by zigzag stairs, tolerably commodious, into a large cavity, about 300 feet deep, and 2000 paces in circumference. At the extremity of the cave I saw, in a corner, a hut built of wood, six or seven feet in height, at the door of which stood two figures half naked, and as black as ink. I took them for the pages of Pluto. Each had a lighted torch in his hand. In this hut, is one of the entries into the subterraneous regions, and it is the most commodious of the four which communicated with the cave. I and my servant were immediately presented with a black dress, a precaution that is generally taken to preserve the clothes of the inquisitive from being spoiled in the narrow passages of the galleries. This mournful apparel, together with a prayer uttered by my guides, imploring the divine aid, that we might escape unhurt from these regions, intimidated my servant, who was a young Frieze, in such a manner, that he would scarcely submit to be dressed *en Scaramouche*, much less descend into the mine.

"Passing at one time through alleys propped up by timber, at another, under aults that supported themselves, we came to immense large halls, the height or extremities of which could not be reached by the feeble lights that we carried. In some of these are forges, where the different tools used in working the mines are made and repaired. It was here so excessively hot, that the workmen were entirely naked. Other halls served either for magazines of gunpowder, or cordage, and other utensils necessary for their operations. These communicate by means of the galleries, and these galleries communicate with each other by ladders or steps. There are also apertures made from the upper surface, in a perpendicular line to the lowest gallery, without any interruption. These serve at once to convey fresh air, and for the passage of any burdens, which, being placed in large vessels, are moved upward and downward by means of pulleys, that are in continual motion during the whole time of labour. The pulleys are kept in motion by horses on the top of the mountain. The vessels are attached to chains of iron, common ropes being subject to speedy erosion by the vitriolic vapours which ascend from the mines. The irons themselves will not endure for a long space of time, and therefore ropes of cows hair, or of hogs bristles, are often made to supply their place. The apertures are not only convenient for the purposes above mentioned, and give vent to a pestilential atmosphere; but co-operating with the heat proceeding from the forge, and other physical causes, they excite, even in the deepest parts, such excessive draughts of air, that they resemble the most violent hurricanes. The roofs that are not supported by art, afford, in many places, a very singular appearance. The vitriol distilling through the rocks, crystallizes on their surface, and forms prisms of different figures.

These are suspended from a thousand places, ten, twelve, twenty feet in length, and of a most beautiful green. The reflection of the light from their various surfaces, and from the minerals that surround the walls, produces an effect more easy to be conceived than described.

"In one of the passages, upwards of seven hundred feet below the surface of the earth, the vitriol is dissolved, and it is pumped out of the mine by means of a curious hydraulic machine. The water which springs up at this depth very copiously, is set in motion by horses, dissolves the vitriol, and conveys it into a reservoir, which contains a quantity of old iron. Twenty-four of these horses have stables in the gallery, their mangers being cut out of the rock. This work continues night and day, horses and men being relieved every six hours. These animals are hoisted up through the openings once in a year, to undergo a general review. Curiosity induced me to descend to about eleven hundred feet under the earth, to the lowest gallery, where the principal explosion is made. Notwithstanding the excessive cold of this place, the men who were occupied in cleaving the rock, were not only naked, but in profuse sweats. The obscurity of these regions, the distant fires spreading a visible gloom, naked men dark as the minerals which they work, surrounded by the sparks that fly from their hammers; the horrid noise of their labour, and of the wheels of the hydraulic machines, joined with the tremendous figures which we met, from time to time, with lighted torches in their hands, made me doubt whether I was not really in Tartarus.

"Having at length arrived at a kind of hall, the roofs of which were supported by pillars hewn out of the rock, and surrounded with seats of the same nature, my guides desired me to repose myself, and listen to some music that would amuse me. On my inquiring of what kind, they answered it was the noise which proceeded from blowing up the rocks, to facilitate their labour. I consented, on condition that they should remain with me. They readily agreed, as this was the only place totally free from danger. One of them went out for a moment to give the necessary directions, and returning, sat by my side. After waiting about a quarter of an hour, trembling with cold, and my patience exhausted, I threatened to renounce the music, if they were not more expeditious. While I was speaking, the explosion began. My ears had hitherto been strangers to the like. The whole extent of these subterraneous regions, as far as our sight could reach, was instantly illuminated, and we were immediately left in total darkness, for the pressure of the air had extinguished our torches. This obscurity was only interrupted by a new explosion on the right and left, accompanied with sudden flashes of light. Echoes redoubled the strokes with thundering noise. The vaults seemed to split over our heads, the ground trembled, and our seats rocked under us. The recollection that we were eleven hundred

and thirty feet below the surface of the earth, at every step, my astonishment increased at every step. At first I went down by zigzag stairs, tolerably commodious, into a large cavity, about 300 feet deep, and 2000 paces in circumference. At the extremity of the cave I saw, in a corner, a hut built of wood, six or seven feet in height, at the door of which stood two figures half naked, and as black as ink. I took them for the pages of Pluto. Each had a lighted torch in his hand. In this hut, is one of the entries into the subterraneous regions, and it is the most commodious of the four which communicated with the cave. I and my servant were immediately presented with a black dress, a precaution that is generally taken to preserve the clothes of the inquisitive from being spoiled in the narrow passages of the galleries. This mournful apparel, together with a prayer uttered by my guides, imploring the divine aid, that we might escape unhurt from these regions, intimidated my servant, who was a young Frieze, in such a manner, that he would scarcely submit to be dressed *en Scaramouche*, much less descend into the mine.

"Passing at one time through alleys propped up by timber, at another, under aults that supported themselves, we came to immense large halls, the height or extremities of which could not be reached by the feeble lights that we carried. In some of these are forges, where the different tools used in working the mines are made and repaired. It was here so excessively hot, that the workmen were entirely naked. Other halls served either for magazines of gunpowder, or cordage, and other utensils necessary for their operations. These communicate by means of the galleries, and these galleries communicate with each other by ladders or steps. There are also apertures made from the upper surface, in a perpendicular line to the lowest gallery, without any interruption. These serve at once to convey fresh air, and for the passage of any burdens, which, being placed in large vessels, are moved upward and downward by means of pulleys, that are in continual motion during the whole time of labour. The pulleys are kept in motion by horses on the top of the mountain. The vessels are attached to chains of iron, common ropes being subject to speedy erosion by the vitriolic vapours which ascend from the mines. The irons themselves will not endure for a long space of time, and therefore ropes of cows hair, or of hogs bristles, are often made to supply their place. The apertures are not only convenient for the purposes above mentioned, and give vent to a pestilential atmosphere; but co-operating with the heat proceeding from the forge, and other physical causes, they excite, even in the deepest parts, such excessive draughts of air, that they resemble the most violent hurricanes. The roofs that are not supported by art, afford, in many places, a very singular appearance. The vitriol distilling through the rocks, crystallizes on their surface, and forms prisms of different figures.

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and places, ten, twelve, or more, most beautiful green, their various surfaces, round the walls, produced, and conceived than de-

wards of seven hundred, the vitriol is dissolved in the mine by means of the water which springs, is set in motion by, conveys it into a reservoir of old iron. Twenty men in the gallery, their work continued. This work continued, men being relieved, are hoisted up through, undergo a general refreshment to about eleven, to the lowest gallery, made. Notwithstanding, the men who were, were not only naked, purity of these regions, sole gloom, naked men, work, surrounded by, mers; the horrid noise, of the hydraulic machines, figures which, lighted torches in their, I was not really in

at a kind of hall, the pillars hewn out of, of the same nature, myself, and listen to, e. On my inquiring, was the noise which, ecks, to facilitate their, n that they should re-, freed, as this was the, r. One of them went, necessary directions, and, waiting about a quar-, old, and my patience, nce the music, if they, le I was speaking, the, it herto been strangers, f these subterraneous, reach, was instantly, ediatey left in total, air had extinguished, only interrupted by a, ft, accompanied with, redoubled the strokes, s seemed to split over, and our seats rocked, we were eleven hun-

ded and thirty-six feet under the surface of the earth; the light, at every repeated flash, of our guides, and of myself, dressed in sable hue; the fall of the rocks that were detached by the explosion; and the smoke of the gunpowder, will plead my apology should I candidly confess that I felt all the *toupee* which I had, stood erect. This concert continued about half an hour, and suddenly ceasing, left us in profound silence; which, together with the obscurity of the place, and the suffocating steam of the gunpowder, rather increased than diminished the horror. This operation is repeated every day at noon."

Iron mines and forges are in great numbers, especially towards the mountainous parts, where they have the convenience of water-falls to turn their mills. From these, besides supplying the country, there is yearly exported, iron to the value of near 300,000l but of late years the number of these forges has been so much increased, that each endeavouring to undersell others, the price has been much lowered. Since the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange for which iron was plentifully taken off, it is grown so cheap, that it is found necessary to lessen the number of forges. Neither has that contrivance had the effect intended, but, on the contrary, many more are like to fall of themselves, because they cannot work but with loss; in which case, many thousands of poor people, whose livelihood depends upon those forges and mines, will be reduced to a starving condition.

Iron is an ignoble metal, remarkable for its hardness. It is of a whitish livid colour when polished, but before that it is blackish. When it is cleaned it is called steel. The ore of common iron is of no certain form, but most commonly of a rusty colour. There is also an ore which is very heavy, and of a red bluish colour when broken. It is very rich in the best kind of iron, and usually yields, at the first melting, from sixty to eighty pounds out of an hundred weight. There is also a singular kind of iron ore, of a yellowish colour, though sometimes grey, and sometimes of a kind of semi-transparent white. It will yield, when melted, about thirty pounds of iron out of an hundred weight.

When iron is melted, it is formed into large masses, which are long and thick, and commonly called pigs. These are melted over again, and stirred with an iron rod, in order to render them malleable. While they are yet red hot, they are placed under hammers, and by that means the heterogeneous particles are forced away by the repeated strokes. One sort of iron differs greatly from another, but that which is toughest is best, and that which is most brittle is worst of all. However, all sorts of iron are of the same nature, and they are only more or less tough, in proportion to the earthy, vitriolic, and sulphurous particles mixed therewith. Iron being often melted and cleansed, is turned into steel; though, in some cases, little labour is required for that purpose, and in others a great deal. When iron is very good, they melt it in a furnace, and throw in gradually

a mixture of equal parts of an alkalous salt, and filings of lead, with the rasings of oxes horns; then they stir the melted metal, and at length place it on the anvil, where they beat it into rods.

A late traveller gives the following remarkable description of his descent into the mines of Danmora.

"We lay, says he, at a pretty village, called Ostarby, and went about three miles the next morning to see the mines of Danmora. They are celebrated for producing the finest iron ore in Europe, the iron of which is exported into every country, and constitutes one of the most important sources of the national wealth and royal revenues of Sweden. The ore is not dug as in the mines of tin or coal which we have in England, but is torn up by powder. This operation is performed every day at noon, and is one of the most tremendous and awful it is possible to conceive. We arrived at the mouth of the great mine (which is near half an English mile in circumference) in time to be present at it. Soon after twelve the first explosion began; I cannot compare it to any thing so aptly as subterraneous thunder, or rather volleys of artillery discharged under ground. The stones are thrown up by the violence of the powder to a vast height above the surface of the earth; and the concussion is so great as to shake the surrounding earth, or rock, on every side. I felt a pleasure mixed with terror, as I hung over this vast and giddy hollow, to the bottom of which the eye in vain attempts to penetrate. As soon as the explosions were finished, I determined, however, to descend into the mine. There is no way to do this but in a large deep bucket, capable of containing three persons, and fastened to chains by a rope. The inspector, at whose house I had slept the preceding night, took no little pains to dissuade me from the resolution, and assured me that not only the rope, or chains, sometimes broke, but that the snow and ice, which lodged on the sides of the mines, frequently tumbled in, and destroyed the workmen; nor could he warrant my absolute security from one or both of these accidents. Finding, however, that I was deaf to all his remonstrances, he provided me a clean bucket, and put two men into it to accompany me. I wrapped myself, therefore, in my great coat, and stepped into the bucket. The two men followed, and we were let down. I am not ashamed to own, that when I found myself thus suspended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyss below me, to which I could see no termination, I shuddered with apprehension, and half repented my curiosity. This was, however, only a momentary sensation, as before I had descended an hundred feet, I looked round on the scene with very tolerable composure. I was near nine minutes before I reached the bottom, it being 80 fathoms, or 480 feet. The view of the mine, when I set my foot to the earth, was awful and sublime in the highest degree. Whether terror or pleasure formed the predominant feeling, as I looked at it, is hard to say. The light of the day was

very faintly admitted into these subterraneous caverns. In many places it was absolutely lost, and flambeaux supplied its place. I saw beams of wood across some parts, from one side of the rock to the other, where the miners fat employed in boring holes for the admission of powder, with as much unconcern as I could have felt in any ordinary place, though the least dizziness, or even a failure in preserving their equilibrium, must have made them lose their seat, and dash them to pieces against the rugged surface of the rock beneath. The fragments torn up by the explosion, previous to my descent, lay in vast heaps on all sides, and the whole scene was calculated to inspire a gloomy admiration in the beholder. A confinement for life in these horrible iron dungeons, must surely, of all punishments which human invention has devised, be one of the most terrible. I remained three quarters of an hour in these gloomy and frightful caverns, and traversed every part of them which was accessible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole surface of the ground, and I found myself surrounded with the colds of the most rigorous winter, amid darkness and caves of iron. In one of these, which runs a considerable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themselves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little scanty subsistence produced from their miserable occupation. They rose with surprise at seeing so unexpected a guest among them; and I was not a little pleased to dry my feet at their fire, which were wet with treading on the melted ice. There are no less than 1300 of these men constantly employed in the mines, and their pay is only a common dollar, of three-pence English, a day. They were first opened about 1580, under the reign of John the Third, but have been constantly worked only since the time of Christina. After having gratified my curiosity with a full view of these subterraneous apartments, I made the signal for being drawn up, and can most seriously affirm, I felt so little terror while re-ascending, compared with that of being let down, that I am convinced, in five or six times more, I should have been perfectly indifferent to it, and could have solved a problem in mathematics, or composed a sonnet to my mistress, in the bucket, without any degree of fright or apprehension. So strong is the effect of custom on the human mind, and so contemptible does danger or horror become, when familiarized by continual repetition!"

Speaking of the manner in which the peasants manufacture the iron, the same writer says, "I have visited six or seven forges on my journey, each of which constantly employs from four to fourteen hundred workmen, only in iron. Wherever there is a country seat, you may be certain to see one of these fabrics, and no Cyclops were ever more dextrous in working their materials. I have seen them stand close to, and hammer, in their coarse frock of linen, a bar of ore, the heat and resplendence of which were almost insupportable to me at 10 feet distance, and with the sparks of which

they are covered from head to foot. I had the pleasure of viewing the whole process used to reduce the ore into iron, and must own it is very curious. They first roast it in the open air for a considerable time; after which it is thrown into a furnace, and, when reduced to fusion, is poured into a mould of sand about three yards in length. These pigs, as they are then denominated, are next put into a forge heated to a prodigious degree. They break off a large piece with pickers when red hot, and this is beat to a lesser size with hammers. It is put again into the fire, and from thence entirely finished, by being laid under an immense engine resembling a hammer, which is turned by water and flattens the rude piece into a bar. Nothing can exceed the dexterity of the men who conduct this concluding part of the operation, as the eye is their guide, and it requires an exquisite nicety and precision. It is certainly a most happy circumstance that Sweden abounds with these employments for her peasants, since from the ungrateful soil and inclement latitude, they must otherwise perish by misery and famine."

The animals in Sweden are elks, bears, wolves, deer, hares, foxes, wild cats, squirrels, &c: and these are hunted either for their flesh, skins, or furs, the Swedish huntsmen using guns, and being in general excellent marksmen.

The Swedish squirrel is somewhat thicker than our weasel; but not quite so long. He is of a reddish colour on the upper part of the head and back, but on the belly is white. The tail is long and bushy, which being turned over his back, is sufficient to shade it, whence the Latin name *sciurus*, which signifies a shade.

This animal sits upon his backside when he seeks, laying hold of the provision with his fore feet, and putting it into his mouth. He lives upon nuts and acorns of all kinds, but is most fond of hazel nuts, which he gathers in the proper season, and hoards up against winter. Squirrels are generally to be met with upon trees, where they build their nests, and bring up their young. They can leap very readily from bough to bough, and sometimes from tree to tree, at which time they use their tails instead of wings, for it is of great help in keeping them from sinking.

Poultry of various kinds are reared in Sweden. Of game there is plenty, both of land and water-fowl, particularly partridges, and a bird called the *yerper*, which resembles a partridge.

The *orra* is a fowl of the size of a hen, and the leader is very near as big as a turkey. In winter the Swedish sportsmen are use themselves with killing black-birds, thrushes, and sydenswans, the latter being beautiful birds, sumptuously arrayed in gorgeous plumes, which are finely tipped with scarlet: they are about the size of fieldfares, and their flesh is of a most exquisite flavour. Pigeons are scarce, on account of the great number of voracious birds which destroy them.

The eagle is the most remarkable bird of prey. This bird is of a large size, very strong, and can never be

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... vulture.

The eagle principally inhabits inaccessible moun-
tains, and roolls on the loftiest trees, being fond of
such places as are least frequented by mankind. How-
ever, as birds, as well as other animals, are found in
greater plenty round the habitations of men, the eagle
is sometimes induced to frequent those places for the
convenience of its prey. They live much on fish,
crabs, tortoises, wild ducks, poultry, pigeons, and the
like. They have been known not to spare even their
own species, when pressed with hunger. They
attack not only lambs and young goats, but sometimes
deer, sheep, and even horned cattle. They build their
nests on the most inaccessible parts of rocks, and the
highest trees, some of which have been found near
six feet in diameter. They are usually lined with
the hair of foxes, wool, or the fur of hares and rab-
bits, to keep the eggs warm, of which the female ge-
nerally lays two, or sometimes three at a time, and
hatches them in thirty days, during which time the
male supplies her with food. As soon as the young
ones are produced, the old become remarkably mit-
chievous, and destroy lambs and poultry for several
miles round them. They often bring hares and par-
tridges alive to their young, to regale them with the
breath of warm blood. The country folks sometimes
avail themselves of these provisions, by taking it from
the eagles in the absence of the old ones, and carry-
ing it home for their own use.

The vulture differs from the eagle in not having its
beak turned immediately crooked from the root, it
continuing straight to the length of two inches. It
is much more lazy than the eagle, and fond of carrion,
which the eagle will not touch. However, they prey
upon live birds, hares, kids, fawns, &c. if they can
get them; and if not, eat any filth that comes in
their way.

The hawk has wings so long as to reach to the end
of the tail, which resembles that of a sparrow-hawk.
The beak is partly blue and partly yellow; the feet
are of a pale green; the toes are slender; the talons
large, sharp, and darkish; the breast, belly, and thighs,
white, streaked with black; the neck, back, wings,
and head are brown, and the latter is flattish at the
top; the tail is of a light brown, with black lines
running across it; and the legs and feet are of a
yellow colour. Some years ago a hawk was killed in
Finland, which had a plate of gold on one leg, and a
plate of silver on the other. On the former was this
French inscription: "Je suis au Roi;" which, in
English, implies, "I belong to the King;" and, on
the latter, were these words in the same language:
"Le Duc de Chevreuse me garde;" which may be
thus translated: "The Duke of Chevreuse keeps
me."

The kite is distinguished from all other rapacious

birds by having a forked tail. It is usually about 28
inches long, from the head to the tip of the tail, when
the neck is straight; but when the wings are ex-
tended, it measures, from extremity to extremity, 64
inches, or better. The head is of an ash-colour, the
neck red, the back brown, and the wings are diversifi-
ed with red, black, and white. The beak is black,
the tongue thick, the legs and feet yellow, and the
talons of a sable hue. It has always been famous for
its rapacity, and is often mentioned by the ancients.

— " Thus the spreading kite,
That smells the slaughter'd victim from on high,
Flies at a distance, if the priests are nigh,
And sails around, and keeps it in her eye."

} OVID.

The seas of Sweden; as well as the rivers, abound
with a great variety of fish, particularly salmon, perch,
pike, streamling, trout, tench, eels, seals, &c.

Pikes are so abundant that vast quantities are salted
and dried for sale; and great numbers of streamlings
(which is a delicious fish, smaller than a pilchard,
or pilchard) are pickled and barrelled, both for home
consumption and exportation. The train-oil, ex-
tracted from the seals, is a valuable article of traffic in
their exports.

The Swedes, in their persons, are in general of
a large stature, with white or yellow hair. There is
a great diversity with respect to their characters; and
what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they are
known to have had different characters in different
ages. At present the nobility are brave, hospitable,
fond of glory, and strictly attached to the rules and
punctilios of honour: but as a foil to these excellen-
cies, they are proud, ostentatious, jealous, and vindic-
tive. The lower class of people are religious, sober,
loyal, industrious, and quiet; except when intoxicated
with liquor, at which time they are furious and un-
governable; and some accuse them of being over-
reaching, rapacious, envious, and exceedingly averse
to foreigners. In their persons they are usually strong
and hardy; whereby they are capable of bearing great
labour and fatigue, which are excellent qualifications
towards the performance of the duties of a military
life, and the Swedes have been supposed the best sol-
diers in Christendom. They have no great genius,
but they are indefatigable in executing whatever they
undertake. Their great poverty obliges them to prac-
tise several mechanical arts, which necessity teaches
them to exercise, and the peasants make their own
clothes, shoes, and implements of husbandry; but the
trading part of the nation continue in the paths trodden
by their ancestors, without ingenuity to discover, or
spirit to pursue, new branches of commerce.

The Swedish women are fair, well shaped, exceed-
ingly fruitful, and more eminent for chastity before

than

than after marriage. From the highest to the lowest they are subservient to the will of their husbands, even to a degree of slavery. As to the meaner sort, besides the offices peculiar to their sex, they perform all kinds of drudgery, such as plowing the fields, threshing the corn, rowing the boats, and carrying burdens.

Persons of quality dress after the fashion of France; but the peasants, &c. wear clothes made of coarse stuff, and lined with sheep-kin, to defend them from the extreme cold of winter.

The marriages in Sweden generally take their rise from the mercenary views of parents, and not from the least degree of affection in the young couple, whose inclinations have perhaps never been once consulted in the whole course of the affair. It is seldom that the children of noble families marry before the age of thirty, their parents having little to spare in their lifetime. The wedding, as well as the funeral entertainments of this country, are performed with great pomp, and both are commonly attended with riot and excess.

The reformed religion, according to the tenets of Luther, is professed with the utmost strictness in Sweden; and owes its establishment there to Gustavus Vasa, about the year 1523. An attempt having been once made to re-establish Popery, to the great disturbance of the kingdom, they have ever since had such an aversion to that religion, that castration is the fate of every Roman Catholic priest discovered in their country. The common people are surprisingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters, never inquiring into, or disputing about controverted points of faith and doctrine, but submitting themselves entirely to the directions of their clergy, who by their morals, and the sanctity of their lives, endear themselves so much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their revenues are very moderate, that of the archbishop of Upsal, the primate, not exceeding 400*l.* a year: he has under him 13 suffragans, besides superintendents, with moderate stipends. The church is governed by a body of ecclesiastical laws and canons, revised by a committee chosen from the different states that compose the diet, and approved by the sovereign. The clergy are not intrusted with the execution of their own laws, nor can they transact affairs of importance without the concurrence of the civil power. A conversion to Popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which are punished by imprisonment or exile, cannot pass without the king's permission, since in either case he would be deprived of a subject. Christianity was introduced into Sweden by Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, in the year 829.

The language spoken in Sweden bears a near affinity to that of Denmark, being a dialect of the ancient Gothic, or Teutonic. This country has produced many persons of learning, at the head of which class may justly be placed the celebrated Puffendorf,

who was at once an historian, civilian, and philosopher, and a native of Sweden. The name of Linnæus will be perpetuated to the latest posterity, for having carried most of the branches of natural philosophy, particularly botany, to the greatest height; he was one of the greatest ornaments to learning Europe could boast in his time.

The Swedish nobility and gentry shewed their attention to the improvement of literature, by sending Haselquist, that excellent and candid natural philosopher, into the eastern countries, in order to make discoveries, and where, unhappily for the learned world, he died. But, as this noble spirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family, his labours were not entirely lost, the queen of Sweden having purchased his collection of curiosities at a great expence. The fine arts, particularly drawing, sculpture, and architecture, are at this time known, and encouraged in that kingdom; and, since the decline of their iron manufactory, many of the people have applied themselves to agriculture, which is carried to a great degree of perfection, and must be of infinite advantage to the nation. From the above instances it appears, that it has been chiefly owing to the Swedes not having had an opportunity to exert their talents, that they have been represented by some writers as a dull, heavy people, fit only for bodily labour.

Their principal university is that of Upsal, instituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by several successive monarchs, particularly the great Augustus Adolphus, and his daughter Christina, whose passion for literature is well known to the public, and who may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. This university has a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, a rector, and twenty professors, all provided with comfortable salaries, the largest of which is 1000*l.* per ann. There are near 1500 students here; but, in the most part, they are extremely indigent, and live five or six together in poor hovels. At Abo in Finland there is a second university, which is neither flourishing, nor so well endowed as that of Upsal; and at Lunden in Schonen there was a third, which is now entirely fallen to decay.

An academy of arts and sciences was some years since established at Stockholm, and is now in a flourishing condition. They have published several volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

Every diocese in Sweden is provided with a school, wherein boys are qualified for the university, and there are also inferior schools, where children are taught to read, write, and instructed in the principles of the Christian religion.

The common people in Sweden subsist principally by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic and exportation consist principally of bulky and useful commodities, such as beams, deal-boards, and other sorts of timber

ships; tar, pitch, hides, flax, copper, cordage, commodities, silk, and English. The manufactory in Sweden is late, they sold their and brought it b... of copper... Sweden; the... forges for fire-a... mitting mills; a... and stamping; a... for sale. About... the assistance of... some manufactory... soap, leather-dre... that time unkn... head sugar-baking... wares of sail-clo... of linen, alum, powder-mills. About the year... created their exp... most part of wh... ships; the Swede... like that of... necessities of the... becoming appear... Among their c... rowing: A few le... recede, down... such impetuosity... casts and other b... rated, disappear... much longer, bes... great fathoms of... to find the bott... been discovered... sound, of a yel... of white, which... tion of gold and... alum, vitriol, and... Gothland is a rer... common prop... brown into it... The Swedes hav... ut they pretend... ppy of the transla... work of a bishop... Upsal, and the... ven pieces of cur... news the remark... with all festivals, t... Many changes... Sweden. At the... rned as an abso

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sils, hides, flax, hemp, poultry, furs, lead, iron, brads,
copper, cordage, and fish. In exchange for these
commodities, they import corn, sugars, wines, spices,
silk, and English cloths.

The manufacturing of iron was introduced into
Sweden so late as the 16th century; for till that time
they sold their old crude ore to the Hanse-Towns,
and brought it back again; but at present vast quan-
tities of copper, brads, steel, and iron, are wrought
in Sweden; they have also founderies for cannon,
forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and
knitting mills; also mills for piling, and for boring
and stamping; and of late they have built many ships
for sale. About the middle of the 17th century, by
the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up
some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk,
soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills: bookselling was
at that time unknown in Sweden. They have since
had sugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufac-
tures of sail-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs;
of linen, alum, and brimstone; paper-mills and gun-
powder-mills.

About the year 1752 the Swedes had greatly in-
creased their exports, and diminished their imports,
most part of which arrive, or are sent off in Swedish
ships; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation-
skill, like that of the English; but the madnes and
zealousness of the Swedish government have blasted these
promising appearances.

Among their curiosities and antiquities are the fol-
lowing: A few leagues from Gottenburg is a hideous
precipice, down which a dreadful cataract runs with
such impetuosity into a deep bed of water, that large
trunks and other bodies of timber, which are precipi-
tated, disappear, some being half an hour, and others
much longer, before they are recovered. Several hun-
dred fathoms of line have been used in endeavouring
to find the bottom of this bed, but it has never yet
been discovered. In various parts of Sweden a stone
is found, of a yellow-colour, intermixed with streaks
of white, which give it the appearance of a composi-
tion of gold and silver. This stone yields sulphur,
alum, vitriol, and minium. In the southern parts of
Gothland is a remarkable slimy lake, which has the
inconmon property of singeing every thing that is
thrown into it.

The Swedes have no artificial curiosities to boast of;
but they pretend to be in possession of a manuscript
copy of the translation of the Gospel into Gothic, the
work of a bishop 1300 years ago. Two clocks, one
at Upsal, and the other at Lunden, are esteemed by
them pieces of curious workmanship: that at Lunden
shews the remarkable motions of the heavenly bodies,
with all festivals, both fixed and moveable.

Many changes have happened in the government of
Sweden. At the decease of Charles XII. who go-
vern'd as an absolute prince in Sweden, his sister,

Ulrica Eleonora, ascended the throne, and, knowing
how unweary the despotism of Charles had rendered
his subjects, the first action of her reign was, to issue
a proclamation, declaring her intention of abolishing
and renouncing, for herself and successors, all absolute
power and dominion, and of re-establishing the old form
of government. The states of Sweden being assem-
bled, in the year 1719, she made a declaration that she
would accept the crown on no other condition than
that of election; which resolution was so agreeable to
the states, that they immediately exerted the power she
had given them, by unanimously choosing her for their
sovereign; and soon after her husband, the handgrave
of Hesse-Cassel, was associated with her in the gov-
ernment. This condescension of the queen has been
justly blamed for the unbounded length to which she
carried it; for the states now acquired more ample
privileges than they had ever before enjoyed; and at
the same time the power of the king of Sweden was
so limited, that he could scarcely be called by that
name, being cramped in every exercise of govern-
ment, and even in the education of his own children.
The great officers of the kingdom were appointed by
the diet of the states; and all employments of any
value, ecclesiastical, civil, or military, were conferred
by the king only; with the approbation of the senate.
The estates were formed of deputies from the four or-
ders, nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants. The
representatives of the nobility, which included the
gentry, amounted to above 1000, those of the clergy,
to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peasants
to 250. Each order sat in its own house, and had its
own speaker; and each chose a secret committee for
the dispatch of business. The fixed time for convok-
ing the states was once in three years, in the month
of January, and the session was appointed to continue
three months; but it might break up sooner, if all the
orders consented to the separation. The immediate
business of the states was, to regulate every thing of
importance relating to the constitution, and to take
cognizance of every circumstance in which the
welfare and advantage of the community was in-
terested.

The affairs of the public, when the states were not
sitting, were managed by the king and senate, which,
in fact, was a committee of the states, but chosen in
a particular manner; the nobility, or upper house,
appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers
12; these chose three persons, to be presented to the
king, that he might fill the vacant seat with one of
the three. The peasants had no vote in electing a
senator. Almost all the executive power was lodged
in the senate, which consisted of 14 members, be-
sides the chief governors of the provinces, the pre-
sident of the chancery, and the grand marshal. Dur-
ing the recess of the states, those senators formed the
king's privy-council; but he had no more than a
casting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to

them from courts of judicature, but each senator was accountable to the states for his conduct.

Upon the whole, in consequence of this arrangement, the government of Sweden might be called republican, for the king's power was inferior to that of a stadtholder. The senate had even authority to impose on the king a sub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his person, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, to the very management of his family. Appeals were to be made to them from the different courts of judicature; and one half of the senate was constantly employed in the revision of sentences, the administration of justice, and the regulation of foreign affairs; while the other half was occupied with matters of less importance. Each senator, however, was responsible to the diet for his conduct relative to every affair in which his advice or vote was given. We shall only add, that though nothing could be more plausible than the whole plan of their distributive powers, yet nothing was less practicable; inasmuch as their officers and ministers, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and by the tedious forms through which the business of government must necessarily pass, it was greatly retarded, if not rendered altogether ineffectual. But another extraordinary change has lately taken place, which we shall here give some account of.

By the new form of government, established in 1772, the king is empowered to assemble and separate the states whenever he pleases; he is also to have the whole disposal of the army, navy, finances, and all civil and military employments; and though by this new form the king does not openly claim an authority to impose taxes on all occasions, yet such as already subsist are to be perpetual; and in cases of urgent necessity, he may impose some, till the states can be convened: but even these circumstances depend wholly on his will and pleasure, as likewise the subject of their deliberations when assembled; so that it may be plainly perceived that such a government as this very nearly resembles the most absolute monarchy. The Swedes, however, notwithstanding the great power vested in the sovereign, are still amused with some slight appearances of a legal and limited government: for in the new system, which consists of 57 articles, a senate is appointed, consisting of 17 members, including the great officers of the crown, and the governor of Pomerania, who are required to give their advice in all affairs of state, when required by the king. On this occasion, if the questions agitated are of great importance, and their unanimous opinions should be contrary to that of the king, he is required to follow their advice; though it cannot be easily imagined that so many great officers of the crown should decide against the king; but in every other case the sovereign is to hear their opinions, and afterwards act as he pleases. There are some other restraints on

the regal power in the present new form, but these are inconsiderable, and overbalanced by the king's authority and influence.

In Sweden, the common method of execution is beheading and hanging. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes; such as treason, murder, adultery, house-breaking, highway robbery, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in some countries are considered as capital, are chiefly punished by whipping, condemnation to live without bread and water, imprisonment and hard labour, either for life, or for a stated time, according to the nature of the offence. For murder, the hand of the criminal is first chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after being beheaded, instead of being quartered, are burned. Criminals of the nobility or gentry are usually shot to death. No capital punishment is inflicted before the king confirms 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 reversal of the sentence; or else prays for pardon, or mitigation of punishment. Till the reign of the present king, criminals were tortured to extort confession; but in 1773 his Swedish Majesty abolished this cruel and absurd practice. Debtors are punished with the utmost rigour; for if a person receives an affront, he is to complain to his national court, when the recantation of the offending party, and begging pardon in public, are generally awarded as a sufficient reparation of honour.

Titles of estates in Sweden are rendered perfectly secure by the registers of sales, mortgages, and alienations, kept by every tribunal. Estates descend by inheritance in equal portions to the children, of which portions a son inherits two, and a daughter one. It is not in the power of a parent to alter this disposition, unless a child proves vicious or disobedient, and even in such cases, he must first obtain a judicial sentence; but he may bequeath one-tenth of his acquired estate to his favourite child, whenever he pleases. If a man dies, whose estate is incumbered with debts, the heir is allowed three months to inquire into the circumstances of the deceased; at the expiration of which, if he declines accepting the inheritance, the law becomes next heir, and always administers.

The cities and principal towns in Sweden, most worthy of notice, are as follow:

Stockholm, the capital of this kingdom, stands 280 miles north-east from Copenhagen, 224 from Gottsburg, 342 from Wyburg, 387 west from Petersburg, 465 from Warsaw, 660 north from Vienna, 830 from Paris, and 790 north-east from London: it is situated on a cluster of small islands; the houses being built upon piles. If we include the two suburbs, one of which stands on the peninsula of Toren, and the other in Athundria, the town is as large and as populous as Bristol. The island on which the greatest part of the

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city stands, is surrounded by two branches of a river,
that runs with great rapidity out of the lake Macler;
and over each of these arms there is a wooden bridge.
The prospect from the city is very beautiful, owing
to the lake being in view on one hand, and the sea on
the other.

The castle or palace is a spacious building, but de-
stitute both of taste and magnificence. It is not only
the residence of the royal family, but likewise of the
greater part of the officers belonging to the house-
hold. It also contains the national or supreme court
of justice, the colleges of war, chancery, treasury, and
commerce; a chapel, armory, library, and office for the
public records. This, together with all other public
buildings in the kingdom, are roofed with copper.
The palace of the nobility in which this order sits,
during the session of the diet, is an elegant building,
adorned on the outside with marble statues and col-
umns, and on the inside with paintings and sculp-
ture. This, together with three other palaces, stand
on the banks of the lake, and are built on the same
model, so as to compose one uniform piece of archi-
tecture. The bank, erected at the expence of the
city, is a noble edifice; and, with several other sump-
tuous buildings belonging to the nobility, exhibits a
very splendid appearance. The houses of the burghers
are generally built of brick in the city; but in the
suburbs they are commonly of timber, and therefore
very subject to conflagrations. These houses are fre-
quently framed in Finland, according to the plan and
dimensions prescribed; they are then conveyed in
pieces to Stockholm by water, and erected on the in-
tended spot by the carpenters. These houses, if kept
in proper repair, will last about thirty years, and are
 esteemed warmer and more healthy than those of
stone or brick. The number of house-keepers, who
pay taxes, are 60,000.

The city is divided into twelve wards, to prevent a
general desolation by fire; to each of these there is a
master and four assistants, who immediately repair to
the place where the fire breaks out; and all porters
and labourers are obliged to range themselves under
the master of the ward to which they belong. A cen-
inel is maintained in the steeple of every church, to
 toll the bell on the first appearance of fire, and a watch
patrols the streets during night, to alarm and give assist-
ance to the inhabitants.

The government of this city is in the hands of the
great stadtholder, who is also a privy councillor. He
 sits once a week in the town-house, and presides in the
college of execution, assisted by an under stadtholder,
 and a bailiff of the castle. Next to him are the four
burgomasters; one for justice, another for trade, the
 third for the polity of the city, and the fourth has
 the inspection over all public and private buildings, and
 determines such cases as arise on that account. With
 them the counsellors of the city always sit, and give
 their votes, the majority of which decides. Their

number is uncertain, but usually about twenty, mostly
merchants and shop-keepers, or such as have served the
king in some inferior employment. Besides their sa-
lary, they have an immunity from such impositions as
are laid on the inhabitants to support the government
of the city; which exempts all its officers and servants,
maintains a guard of 600 men, and defrays the charge
of all public buildings and repairs. To support this
expence, besides a duty belonging to the city, of goods
imported and exported (which is about four per cent.
of the customs paid to the king, and amounts to about
5000*l.* per ann.) the magistrates impose a yearly tax
upon the burghers, in which they are assisted by a com-
mon-council of forty-eight, which chuses its own mem-
bers, and meet every spring, to proportion the payments
for the ensuing year. On the traders they usually im-
pose forty, fifty, or sixty pounds sterling; upon others
of a meaner condition, as shoe-makers, taylors, &c. five
or six pounds; and on no housekeeper less than fifteen
shillings; besides quartering the guards, inferior of-
ficers, and servants of the court, with other lesser
charges; which, all together, would be thought a great
burden, even in richer countries: neither is it oth-
erwise esteemed by the inhabitants of this city, who can
scarce be kept in heart by the privileges they enjoy, as
well in customs, as in the trade of the place, which
most needs pass through their hands; for the natives of
other parts of the kingdom, as all foreigners are obliged
to deal only with the burghers (except those of the
gentry, who make iron) have not the privilege to sell
it immediately to strangers.

This city is, in a manner, the staple of Sweden; to
which most of the goods of their own growth, as iron,
copper, wire, pitch, tar, masts, deals, &c. are brought
to be exported. The greatest part of the commodities
imported from abroad come to this port, where there
is a haven capable to receive 1000 sail of ships, and a
bridge or quay near an English mile long, to which the
greatest vessels may lie with their broadsides. The only
inconvenience is, that it is ten miles from the sea, the
river very crooked, and no tides. It opens into the
Baltic, but is of dangerous access, by reason of the
rocks. Within it is one of the most commodious har-
bours in Europe; for ships of the largest size lie close
to the quay, where they are so secure from the wind,
that they need neither anchors or cables to hold them.
Its entrance is defended by two forts.

Upsal stands on the banks of the river Sal, or Sala,
which falls into the lake of Ekolen, and is forty-two
miles distant from Stockholm towards the north-west.
It is a very ancient city, formerly the capital of the
north, and the seat of the king. It is divided into
two parts by the river, which is here pretty large, and
so hard frozen up in February, that a fair is yearly kept
there upon the ice in that month. The town is large,
but without any considerable fortifications. Here is to
be seen the finest church in the whole kingdom, namely,
the cathedral. It is covered with copper, and adorned
with

with several tombs, especially those of the kings. In the chapel, behind the altar, stands the monument of King Gustavus in marble, between the statues of his two wives, who lie also buried here. In another chapel is the tomb of king John's wife, who was mother to Sigismund III. king of Poland; it is of white marble. Above the city, on a steep hill, there is a beautiful castle, which is fortified. It is very large, built after the Italian manner, and has a noble prospect over the city, which it commands, and over the whole country.

Upsal was, at first, a bishop's see, but afterwards converted into an archbishopric by pope Alexander III. at the request of King Charles, successor to St. Erick. Stephen, who died in the year 1158, was the first archbishop of this see; and John Magnus, who, at the reformation, refused to admit the Lutheran confession, and removed to Rome, was the fifty-sixth. Since his time, there have been only Protestant archbishops, who do not live with the same pomp and magnificence as the Roman Catholic prelates used to do; for the latter never appeared in public without a retinue of 4 or 500 people on horseback.

The university of Upsal consists of a chancellor, who is always a great minister of state; a vice-chancellor, always the archbishop; and a rector, chosen out of the professors, of which there are about twenty, that have each 120*l.* a year salary. The ordinary number of students is about 7 or 800, fifty of which are maintained by the king, and some few others were formerly by persons of quality: the rest, that cannot subsist of themselves, spend the vacation in gathering the charities of the diocese they belong to, which is commonly given them in corn, butter, dried fish, or flesh, &c. upon which they subsist at the university the rest of the year. They do not live collegiately, but in private houses; wear no gowns, nor observe any other discipline than their own necessity or dispositions lead them to.

The city of Upsal boasts the residence of the celebrated Linnæus, who was the head of the university, and whose fame in natural history is as great as that of Charles XII. for his victories. This great man, who was of a social communicative disposition, always received strangers with the greatest politeness, and was happy in solving any questions in the line of his botanical profession, which they might propound. To him we are indebted for an account of the Swedish turnip, a root of inestimable value in this country. He says, the farmers had it originally from Lapland. It spread by degrees through the northern parts of the kingdom, and was found of more use than all the other winter plants put together. The great property of it is resisting the sharpest and most continual frosts known in the country. Besides this, cattle are remarkably fond of them, and will thrive on them better than on any other winter plant. One of the greatest advantages of the culture of this root, is its being as good a preparation for corn as

a fallow of mere ploughing, which is an object of infinite importance.

Gottenburg was erected in the year 1607, during the reign of Charles IX. whose successors indulged it with many extraordinary privileges, in consequence of which it is become a place of considerable commerce. The Danes, in the year 1641, exerted their utmost endeavours for the destruction of this city, but they proved ineffectual; and it is at present one of the strongest maritime towns in the kingdom. At Skaren, about eighty miles to the north-west of Gottenburg, was the seat of the ancient kings of Sweden. The ruins of the palace are still to be seen; and, if any judgment may be formed from the walls and other remains of the structure, it appears to have been a very stately edifice. Near this palace, stands the mountain Kendaculle, remarkable for its height and fertility; for it is covered with a great variety of trees, shrubs, herbs, and plants, affording at once a beautiful prospect, and food and shelter to a vast number of birds that frequent it in summer.

Norkoberg, the chief town of East Gothland Proper, stands about seventy-five miles to the southward of Stockholm, on the bank of a stream which runs from the lake Velter to the gulf of Brawiken. The town is large, populous, and hath considerable commerce.

Calmar, capital of the district of Smaland, is a very considerable city. It is situated 160 miles to the southward of Stockholm, and built upon a strait of the Baltic, called Calmar Sund, which is situated opposite to the isle of Oeland. It is divided into the Old and New Town. Old Calmar is famous by a deed executed there in the year 1393, by which the three northern crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were settled on the head of Queen Margaret. This is called in history the union of Calmar. Eric, Margaret's successor, founded thirteen prebends here, and gave a decree, by which he put the church of Calmar among the collegiate ones. After the division of the crowns, which the fatal union of Calmar had united, this city became a frontier town, with regard to the Danes, who were in possession of Schonen. It was often taken, retaken, and plundered; and, to complete its ruin, it was burnt down to the ground in the year 1547; nothing escaped the fire but the church, and about three-score houses. Soon after this misfortune, the new city was built at a musquet shot's distance from the old town, in a little island called Ovarnholm. This new city is large, the streets are broad and straight, and the houses well built, but the town is not populous. The new fortifications consist only of thick walls built with large pebble stones taken out of the sea, and a few ramparts built only with sand, and therefore supported by another wall, which the sea surrounds almost on all sides, except the gate. The situation of this city renders it very strong, all the avenues to it being full of marshes, or cut off by water from the sea, which abounds here with rocks, between which there are, as it were, so many abysses, that it is impossible to approach the

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place either in the sea-side there which boats are defended by a fort from it, where a garrison Town stands the having on one full of water. a superintendent is honoured with kingdom. This from Sweden in. Also, the capital of the Baltic gulf at the isle capital of a barbed all of wood, and of no better however, an un- dowed by the ce Wilby, or W Gothia Insula, island. It is built on the sea shore, is defended by a probability, where the This was formerly much decayed.

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place either in boats, on horseback, or on foot. On the sea-side there is a long mole built with stone, along which boats and ships ride secure. This mole is defended by a fortress called Grimkar, built at about fifty paces from it, on a rock surrounded by the sea, and where a garrison is constantly kept. Behind the Old Town stands the castle, which is of very difficult access, having on one side the sea, which is full of rocks, and, on the other, good ramparts, large bastions, and ditches full of water. This city is at present the residence of a superintendent for the government of the clergy, who is honoured with a place in the public consistory of the kingdom. This is a town of good trade, and the passage from Sweden into Germany.

Abo, the capital of Finland Proper, is situated on the Bothnic gulf at the mouth of the river Aurojoki, opposite to the isle of Aland. This is said to be a wretched capital of a barbarous province. The houses are almost all of wood, and the archiepiscopal palace is composed of no better materials, and is painted red. Here is, however, an university, which was founded and endowed by the celebrated queen Christina.

Wibby, or Wisburg, the chief place of Gothland, or Gothia Insula, is situated on the western coast of the island. It is built on the declivity of a rock near the sea shore, is surrounded with a strong wall, and defended by a pretty strong castle, erected near the harbour, where the governor of the island usually resides. This was formerly a considerable city, but is now very much decayed.

Carlsrona, the capital of the province of Blekingen, and the residence of the governor, is situated on the shore of the Baltic, and built on a large rock, which forms an island. Charles XI. by whom it was founded, honoured it with his name, and gave it the privilege of being a staple town, that is, a town having a magazine, or repository for goods. To arrive at it, one must pass two other islands, which are joined to the continent by large bridges. On these two islands there are two suburbs, which are pretty extensive, but as they are inhabited only by the lower classes of people, they are ill-built and dirty. This, however, is not the case with the town itself, which is well built, though the greater part of the houses are of wood. Several of them consist of three stories, ornamented with sculpture and colonades, and so neatly painted, that they exhibit a very handsome appearance. Great pains are bestowed upon the embellishment of this place, and no expence is spared to render it in time one of the prettiest towns in Sweden. A church, built at one of its extremities, towards the dock-yard, will contribute much to ornament it, as well as the square, in the centre of which it is erected. This square is very extensive, and, according to the plan laid down, will be bordered by several beautiful edifices. "Whilst I was at Carlsrona (says a late traveller) workmen were still employed in levelling it, and during my stay there, I often heard explosions, occasioned by their blowing up the rocks, which rendered it rugged and uneven. The

same operation was performed in different streets, where the rock rose in many places into points disagreeable to the sight, which were inconvenient for foot travellers, and prevented the use of carriages. Few of the streets are paved, and as you tread upon the bare rock, walking here is extremely fatiguing. The inhabitants of Carlsrona pretend that Blekingen is the most beautiful province in the whole kingdom. I am not, however, entirely of the same opinion; for towards Smoland it appears to be very mountainous, but towards Scandia the country becomes level, exhibits every mark of fertility, and is covered with beautiful trees, and among others the oak. I saw also several flourishing estates belonging to different proprietors, ornamented with mansions, which at a distance seem to be so many castles. These houses for the most part are built of wood, and have a magnificent aspect. This province maintains no land soldiers, but is obliged to furnish a regiment of marines.

"The marine militia, dispersed throughout different parts of Sweden, amount to about 13,000 men, of whom no more than a thousand are employed in the time of peace, or when they are not exercised. The garrison of Carlsrona consists of about sixteen hundred men, divided into three companies. As I was furnished with two letters of recommendation, one to Mr. Pylgardt, a rich merchant, who was honoured with the title of patron of the mines; and the other to rear-admiral Chapman, director of the dock-yard, I was received by both these gentlemen in the politest manner. Having signified to the latter, that I had come to Carlsrona partly with a view to see the works at the dock-yard, and the new dock, which I had heard so much celebrated, he promised to procure me admission to them next morning, and in the mean time permitted me to examine the plans of them drawn by himself. Rear-admiral Chapman is a gentleman as much valued for his personal qualities as for his abilities, which raised him to his present station. He is much respected, and the Swedes entertain a high opinion of him, and particularly with regard to his skill in constructing ships. He has invented a new form for the hulls, and it is asserted, that all vessels built after his model, are infinitely better sailers than others. He has written a treatise on naval affairs, which is held in great estimation.

"Next day he was so obliging as to send an officer to me, who had served in Holland under Mr. Dodel, and who bestowed the highest praises on his old captain, whose character and abilities he greatly extolled. The officer who, by admiral Nort-Aiker's permission, conducted me to the dock, and the port of Stockholm, had also been in the Dutch service, and had sailed in the Zephyr, under the command of Mr. Van Oyen. It shewed a very polite attention in these two admirals, to procure me guides, who had served an apprenticeship in our republic, and who spoke Dutch.

"They conducted me to the port, which is capacious, very commodious, and surrounded by docks. Vessels

out of commission are moored here close to a long bridge, which affords one the pleasure of walking across the whole fleet. I counted here twenty vessels, comprehending ships of the line and frigates, among which I saw one of 100 guns, one of 96, one of 84, two of 74, and several from 50 to 60. I saw nine vessels which had been constructed in the course of four years. Five of these nine were entirely finished, and sitting out; the other four were launched, but not rigged. There were several others on the stocks, either begun or having their inside timbers put together. One in particular was pointed out to me, all the parts of which having been prepared beforehand, was constructed in the space of six weeks. The plan for renewing the Swedish navy was formed several years ago; part of 1782 was employed in procuring and preparing the materials, and in 1783 vessels began to be built. It is intended to continue to construct four ships annually, until the navy shall be put on a respectable footing. To defray the expence incurred by the execution of this plan, the king has suspended the half of the works at the new dock, until the navy shall be in that state which is desired. I saw every thing relating to the docks, and my conductor was so polite as to point out to me what was principally worthy of notice. The most perfect order seems to prevail here. After this we went to see the new dock, of which I formed a very high idea, from what I had heard; but I confess that what I saw far surpassed my expectation. This is a work worthy of the ancient Romans: workmen have been employed on it for twenty-nine years, and a considerable length of time will still be necessary before it can be finished. At the entrance of the dock there is a bafon cut out in the solid rock, about 50 feet in depth, and so large that four men of war may be loaded or unloaded together along its quays, which are built of cut stone. From this bafon each vessel may enter its lodge by means of large sluices, and canals of communication. Twenty of these lodges are destined for ships of the line, and ten for frigates.

One of these lodges, with its canal and sluice, is entirely finished. The bottom of it is cut out in the rock, and the sides are built of cut stone, joined together with Pozzolane, which is a kind of cement, brought from Italy at a very great expence. The bottom of it is shaped like the keel of a vessel. Along each side of the lodge there are two rows of steps, which serve for supporting beams and scaffolding when the vessel is dry, and has need of being repaired. The walls which support the roof are of cut stone, joined with the same kind of cement as before. These walls, which are at least twenty feet in thickness to the top, where they must be on a level with the upper deck of the vessel, separate the different lodges. At that height they are converted into platforms, which communicate with the interior part of the lodge, by means of large arched windows. These platforms are in-

tended to receive the guns of each vessel, which may be conveyed in or taken out through these windows, constructed in such a manner as to be opened or shut according to circumstances. The roof is of wood, covered on the outside with large plates of iron, and formed so as to serve as a fulcrum or prop to different levers, employed in loading or unloading the vessel. The sluice of communication is made with so much art, that the small force of two feet of water raises it, and makes it turn. When the canal and lodge have received the requisite quantity of water, the vessel enters; and when it may be necessary to leave it dry, a communication at the bottom of the lodge is opened by a machine made expressly for that purpose, and the water runs into a bafon much lower than the lodge, and cut out also in the rock, from which it is conveyed into the bafon before mentioned by means of a windmill. Whilst I was here, workmen were employed in constructing a second lodge. The first may serve as a specimen of the magnificence of the whole work. When finished, these lodges will form a vast semicircle, but, according to every appearance, they never will be brought to perfection. The immense sums which government is obliged to expend, will perhaps induce them, instead of finishing this, to complete rather the old dock, which will be of as much utility as the new, though ships cannot be laid up there under cover, and in lodges.

It is very doubtful, whether vessels preserved in this manner last longer than others. Even supposing that ships sheltered from the inclemencies of the weather, are less subject to rot than those which remain in the open air, it is to be inquired, whether the millions expended in constructing these lodges, sluices, canals, &c. and the repairs, which all these require, can be compensated by the savings gained by keeping vessels in this manner.

The person who suggested the first idea of this new dock, which was begun in the reign of Gustavus III. is a very old man, of the name of Thunberg. He has a son, who is reckoned to be equally expert as his father. This Thunberg has the direction of the works and sluices, which have been constructed along the Gotha. The old dock was begun in 1715, after the plan of Polheim the engineer, and finished in 1724. It is a kind of canal, 350 feet in length, and nearly 30 in depth, dug entirely out of the rock. It is situated between the port and the new dock, and communicates on the one side with the dock-yard and the port, and the other with the sea, by two canals, sufficiently large for a first-rate man of war to enter or go out. These canals are shut by large sluices. Before that which opens a communication to the sea, there is a piece of machinery, very ingeniously constructed, which defends it from the efforts of a high tide. When a ship is brought in here, and when it is necessary to leave her dry, in order to be hove down, the sluices are shut, and, by means of an immense

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pump, put in motion by several men or some horses,
the dock is rendered perfectly dry in the space of
twelve hours. The dykes, sluices, canals, and mills,
which the Dutch industry has executed, are justly ad-
mired, yet, when we consider that all this is cut out
of the solid rock, we are obliged to confess, that our
works are nothing in comparison of these, which, per-
haps, are not equalled by any in Europe.

The entrance of the port of Carlscrona is easy on
account of its great depth, and it is so large as to be
capable of containing an hundred ships of the line.
It is defended by two very strong forts, well mounted
with artillery, which are so planted, that when fired,
their shot crosses each other. These forts, the one
called *Kongsholm*, or the King's Island, and the other
Drininghiar, or the Queen's Rock, are situated upon
rocks in the sea, and could sink any ship which might
attempt to pass without their permission.

I saw in the harbour a small Squadron of six ships,
amounting from 60 to 70 guns each, and three frigates,
all ready to sail. This Squadron afforded exercise for
the conjectures of the politicians. Some believed that
it was destined for the service of the Empress of
Russia, whilst others pretended that it would be em-
ployed by the Dutch. All these conjectures were,
however, proved to be false, for it afterwards appeared
that this fleet was intended only for a naval review,
which took place in the presence of his majesty, in
1783.

The sailors belonging to the garrison of Carlscrona
are employed in different works in the dock-yard,
when they are not obliged to be on board their vessels.
The greater part of the officers are men of great ex-
perience, and must naturally be so, since, if they wish
for promotion, or to be held in any estimation, they
must travel, and serve for some time in foreign coun-
tries, and particularly in those states which are carry-
ing on war. This, doubtless, is an excellent regu-
lation, and must tend greatly to procure good naval
officers to Sweden. I quitted Carlscrona, delighted
with the town, and its inhabitants, as well as with
all the works, which I greatly admired.

Three miles thence I stopped at a large village called
Runneby, situated in Blekingen, half way between Carl-
scrona and Carlham, which is celebrated for its mar-
ket, and which appeared to me to be in a very flourish-
ing condition. At the distance of half a league from
this place, the little river of Aune forms a very singu-
lar cataract through rocks, which exhibit nothing but
ruination and ruin. The water precipitates itself be-
tween two enormous fragments of rock, which appear
to have once formed only one mass, and which at
present are at the distance of twenty or thirty feet
from each other. They stand exactly parallel, and
seem to be 40 or 50 feet in height. The one is as
convex in the interior part as the other is concave,
and a third of less size lies upon the top of them,
which forms a most singular bridge. The road passes

over it, and appears truly awful, on account of its
situation, and the horrible noise occasioned by the
efforts of the river, which throws itself with great
violence through the vacancy formed by these three
masses. Below the cataract are found immense shelves
of rock, around which the water in some places is up-
wards of forty feet in depth. Here I was in great
danger of losing my life, for as I was descending
with much difficulty and danger, and jumping from
one stone to another, in order to find a proper point of
view for taking a sketch of this picturesque scene,
I had the misfortune to fall, and had not my guide,
by laying hold of me, given me an opportunity of
clinging to the point of a rock, I should have tumbled
down the precipice, and been either drowned, or
dashed to pieces on the rocks by the force of the cur-
rent. This place, so remarkable for the different parts
of the rock, which are concave on the one side, and
convex on the other, evidently announces that an
earthquake or some other convulsion must have oc-
casioned here the most dreadful ravage. This river,
which is not large, throws itself into the Baltic, near
Runneby."

There are 24 towns in Sweden, called staple-towns,
where the merchants are allowed to import and ex-
port commodities in their own ships. Those towns
which have no foreign commerce, though lying near
the sea, are called land-towns. A third kind are
termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine-districts.

The revenues of Sweden formerly amounted to a
million sterling per annum, arising from crown-lands,
poll-money, tythes, silver, copper, and iron-mines;
but since the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and
that which was afterwards engaged in with Russia,
they have been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen,
Verdun, and other places this kingdom was stripped
of, contained about 78,000 square miles. Her gold
and silver specie, in a former reign, arose chiefly from
the king's German dominions. The payments that
are made in copper, which is here the chief medium
of commerce, is extremely inconvenient, some of those
pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheel-
barrow is often required to carry home a moderate sum.

The current coin of Sweden consists of gold ducats,
and eight-mark pieces of silver, valued at 5s. 2d. each;
but these are very scarce, and the inhabitants of Swe-
den have now very little specie, almost their only cir-
culating money consists of copper stamped, and small
bank-notes.

The standing army of Sweden, which, before the
loss of Livonia, was 60,000, may now amount to
about 40,000 men, horse and foot, and is properly
nothing more than a well regulated militia, under the
immediate command of freeholders, whose interest is
intimately connected with the liberty of their fellow-
subjects. The cavalry is raised and maintained by the
nobility and gentry, in proportion to the value of
their estates; and are under such regulations, that nei-
ther

the man nor horse, after having been once listed in the service, can be put to any other employment than what are specified in those regulations, both being required to be kept, with proper arms and equipage, in continual readiness for service. The infantry is maintained by the peasants: every farm of 60l. per annum or upwards, being charged with the support of one foot soldier, finding him in diet, lodging, ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or, in lieu of all these, a little wooden hut is built for him by the farmer, who allows him hay, and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, the army is subject to the military law; but at other times to the civil law of the country. Each company is exercised once in a month, and every regiment reviewed twice or thrice a year; on which occasions only they wear their uniforms, which, when the service is over, are carefully deposited in the churches.

The navy of Sweden formerly consisted of 40 sail of the line; and, till of late years, their ships, together with the docks, were suffered to run greatly to decay.

With respect to the political disposition of the Swedes, and the nature of their constitution, the following observations naturally present themselves:

It clearly appears, that these people have, at some periods, discovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have seemed fitted only for slavery: and when they were labouring to render themselves free, they have wanted that sound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the surest methods for securing their proper freedom. The most capital defect of the Swedish constitution was the total want of a proper balance of its parts: and the division of the Swedish nation into three distinct classes, of nobles, burghers, and peasants, whose interests were perpetually clashing, has been a circumstance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much restrained; but no sufficient regulations were adopted for securing the personal freedom of the subject. These defects in the Swedish constitution paved the way for the late revolution; but it is, notwithstanding, a just subject of surprise, that a bold and hardy people, who had so cautiously limited the power of their prince, should at once, without a struggle, suffer him to proceed to so great an extension of his authority, so as at length to alter and subvert that constitution which their fathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles XII. as a bulwark against any attempts their future monarchs might make to deprive them of their privileges.

A COMPENDIOUS HISTORY OF SWEDEN,

From the earliest Accounts to the late Revolution.

THE history of this country, for many years after the establishment of Christianity, is very obscure and

uninteresting, unless a recital of murders, massacres, and ravages, deserve attention; nor is there any consistency in the accounts of historians till about the middle of the 14th century, when it assumes a more regular aspect, and affords wherewith to recompense the attention of those who choose to make it an object of their studies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly ascertained, or uniformly administered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether disregarded.

The whole wealth and lands of the kingdom were divided between the nobles and clergy. The peasants toiled to support a few worthless mortals in pomp and luxury. Agriculture was little known and less practised; and commerce was in its cradle, and the arts and sciences banished from the kingdom. To complete the misery of Sweden, there existed the most deadly dissensions between the clergy and nobility, and the blood of the people was spilt in quarrels not their own. Sometimes the king joined one party, and sometimes the other; but whether the ecclesiastical or civil power prevailed, the people equally suffered, and their chains were as galling under the spiritual, as under the civil power. In this state of debility and distraction, Sweden was in no condition to resist the power of a foreign enemy. The Danes knew this, and, ever watchful to promote their own interests, and enlarge their territories, took advantage of the civil dissensions in Sweden, and subdued the kingdom.

Sweden continued in this deplorable situation for more than two centuries, sometimes under the nominal subjection of its own princes, sometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either case equally oppressed and insulted. Magnus Zadulus, who ascended the throne in 1276, seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority; and to succeed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ablest princes who had ever sat on the Swedish throne; by his art and address he prevailed upon the convention of estates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the support of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increase of the regal power; and Magnus, by the steady and vigorous exertion of this power, not only humbled the haughty spirit of his nobles, and created in the rest of the nation a respect for the royal dignity, with which they appear to have been but little acquainted; but at the same time, by employing his authority in many respects for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power, which, when exercised by former monarchs, they would have opposed with the utmost violence. The successors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; so that the government was for a considerable time in the most unsettled state, and

the nation thrown by the several conquests subjected to.

Margaret, daughter of Denmark, and the wife of the Swedish king, by her industry and the ambition of her husband, the penetration and industry of her husband, the arduous conquests of Calmar, so far from diminishing the power of this remarkable Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, united under one crown, in its turn, and equally among the three kingdoms of

Christian II. who, by his unbounded ambition, the northern nation, he disdained the compact, and determined to know that his arbitrary measures, and therefore determined to render his designs successful, and resigning, he formed a new constitution, the Swedish nobility, not so completely young prince, defeated Sweden, made his capital Christiania. Christian, who was greatly beloved, method in his power, immense price upon Vasa found means of suffering a series of mounting a thousand, savage but warlike, the despotic power, attempt succeeded; the throne of his ancestor Vasa from those principles long prevented the present in Sweden: a clergy still subject, which then began to, with the credit the Swedes, gave the changing the religion, accordingly established regular monarchical the ruins of a Gothic tyrannical. The non visible; arts are improved; letters introduced; navigation

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The augmentation as naturally followe the regal power; as pious exertion of the haughty spirit of the nation a respect they appear to have at the same time, by any respects for the ts to acts of pious mer monarchs, they most violence. The maintain their author government was les unfetted state, and

the nation thrown into great disorder and confusion, by the several commotions and revolutions it became subject to.

Margaret, daughter and heiress of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, conveyed the sceptre of these united kingdoms in 1387, while Sweden was rent with faction. Possessed of all the ambition natural to her sex, and blessed with a penetration and vigour of mind necessary in conducting arduous enterprizes, she projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North. By the articles of this remarkable treaty, the three kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were to remain united under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence equally among them. This union continued till the reign of

Christian II. who, filled with the lawless ideas of unbounded ambition, was not contented to reign over the northern nations in the manner of his predecessors; he disdain'd the thought of being confined by any compact, and determined to become absolute. He well knew that the nobility of Sweden would oppose his arbitrary measures with firmness and intrepidity; and therefore determined to put it out of their power to render his design abortive. Deaf to the dictates of conscience, and regardless of all laws both human and divine, he formed the horrid scheme of massacring all the Swedish nobility. The design was executed, but not so completely as he intended; Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended from the ancient kings of Sweden, made his escape to the mountains of Dalecarlia. Christian, dreading the return of this exile, who was greatly beloved by the people, took every method in his power to destroy him, and even set an immense price upon his head.

Vasa found means to elude every attempt; and after suffering a series of unparalleled hardships, and surmounting a thousand obstacles, prevailed upon the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to oppose the despotic proceedings of the tyrant. The attempt succeeded; and Gustavus was seated on the throne of his ancestors. The late massacre had freed Vasa from those proud and haughty nobles, who had so long prevented the establishing any regular government in Sweden: and though the dangerous power of the clergy still subsisted, yet the opinions of Luther, which then began to prevail in the North, together with the credit they had already acquired among the Swedes, gave the young king an opportunity of changing the religion of his country; and he accordingly established the Reformation in 1544. A regular monarchical government was thus founded on the ruins of a Gothic aristocracy, blended with a religious tyranny. The advantages of the change were soon visible; arts and manufactures were established and improved; letters and polite learning were introduced; navigation was studied, and commerce be-

gan to flourish. These advantages soon gave Sweden considerable weight in the political scale of Europe; and its friendship was courted by foreign princes. Gustavus paid the debt of nature in the year 1559, and was succeeded by his son

Eric, who fell far short of his father in abilities either for peace or war. He introduced the titles of count and baron, and made them hereditary; but his imprudent and causeless jealousy of his brothers soon put a period to his reign. The innocent princes were obliged to have recourse to arms, and the senate joining them, the forces of Eric were defeated, and himself deposed in 1566. The throne being thus vacant, it was given to

John, the brother of Eric. That prince, instead of studying to promote the happiness of his country, and cultivating the arts of peace, engaged in a ruinous war with Russia. Disappointed in executing his schemes of ambition, he turned his thoughts towards the church; and, by the advice of his queen, attempted to re-establish the Romish religion in Sweden. His first step was to reconcile himself to the Pope, which being accomplished, he made several efforts to establish his favourite religion. He had however soon the mortification to find that all his attempts were ineffectual, and that it was necessary to desist from his purpose. He notwithstanding found means to place his son Sigismund on the throne of Poland in 1587. This event filled him with hopes of his being able to complete his former scheme; but he found so many difficulties to encounter, that he died before it was accomplished, in 1592. On the death of John, his brother

Charles, who was a zealous Protestant, was chosen administrator of Sweden. Sigismund could not behold this advancement of Charles without envy; and endeavoured to deprive him of the honours conferred upon him, but without effect. Exasperated at the practices of Sigismund, the states of Sweden excluded him and his family from the throne, and placed the crown upon the head of Charles. Sigismund, who was not only a powerful prince himself, but also at the head of a strong party both in Sweden and Russia, rendered the reign of Charles very troublesome and uneasy. The Danes, hoping to profit by these disorders, invaded Sweden; but their progress was soon checked by Gustavus Adolphus, heir apparent to the crown, then only a youth. Confounded at meeting with a very different reception from what they expected, the Danes returned to their own country, leaving behind them sufficient marks of their cruelty. But this defeat did not restore peace to Sweden: Sigismund continued his practices; and Charles, after a troublesome reign of eighteen years, expired, leaving the crown to his son, who had given such early proofs of his abilities.

Gustavus Adolphus, though only in his 18th year when he ascended the throne in 1611, was declared of

age by the senate, and immediately applied himself to free his country from the troubles with which it was surrounded. He found himself, at this early period of life, engaged in a war with all his neighbours; his finances low, and his army undisciplined. But all these discouraging circumstances did not intimidate Gustavus; he surmounted every difficulty, and would have made himself master of the Russian empire, had not the love of independency, the ruling passion of that people, rendered his scheme abortive. A peace was concluded between the Swedes and the Russians in 1617, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which Gustavus recovered Livonia, with four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, and received a large sum of money for reimbursing the charges of the war.

The princes of the house of Austria, jealous of the rising genius of Gustavus, supported Sigismund, his sworn enemy. The Swedish prince had now surmounted most of the difficulties which attended him at his accession to the throne. His finances were in a more flourishing condition; his army consisted of warlike and the best disciplined troops in Europe; he had himself seen a great deal of military service, and was assisted by the counsel and advice of La Gardie, one of the best generals, and wisest statesmen in Europe. With all these advantages Adolphus was not to be intimidated by the power of Sigismund, though assisted by the forces of Austria. He attacked and defeated the Polish army, and formed the siege of Dantzic, which must have fallen into his hands, had not a sudden rise of the Vistula obliged him to abandon the enterprise.

The Protestants of Germany had for some time formed a confederacy in support of their religion; but their army, under the command of Christian IV. king of Denmark, had been hitherto unsuccessful. The fame of Gustavus pointed him out as the most proper person to command the confederate forces; and experience soon convinced the protestant princes, that they had not made an improper choice: the most rapid series of victories attended the standard of Gustavus. He took Riga, over-ran all Livonia, was victorious in Poland, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated and killed the famous count Tilly, the Austrian general, till then thought invincible, and over-ran all Franconia.

The house of Austria now trembled for its greatness. Wallenstein, another general of great reputation, was sent to command the Austrian army, and a dreadful battle ensued at Lutzen, where Gustavus was again victorious; but he received a mortal wound in the contest, and died on the field of battle, soon after the defeat of the enemy, in the year 1633. The death of Gustavus saved the house of Austria; but he left behind him a set of generals, trained by himself, who nobly supported the protestant cause, and maintained the glory of the Swedish arms with astonishing valour

and success. Their military actions will always shine with distinguished lustre in the annals of Europe.

Gustavus was fiery and impetuous, very severe, but nevertheless just and equitable. The following anecdote is related concerning him: One day, as his army was filing off before him, he grew angry with colonel Scato, who, endeavouring to excuse himself for his mistake, received a violent blow on the face from the hand of Gustavus. This correction was the more cruel and dishonourable, since, being given in public, it deprived the colonel of all hopes of retaliation. Scato, thus disgracefully humbled, immediately demanded his discharge, which was granted; and he retired. Gustavus, on his return to the palace, coolly reflecting on what had passed, soon perceived his error in thus dishonouring an useful subject, and ordered the colonel immediately into his presence; but Scato was gone, as supposed, to enter into the Danish service. Gustavus instantly quitted the palace, mounted his horse, and, attended only by a few domestics, went towards the frontiers which separated Sweden from Denmark. Gustavus, overtaking the colonel on the Danish borders, went up to him: "Colonel," said he, "you have been injured, and I was the cause of it; I am sorry for it, because I esteemed you: I am come here to give you satisfaction, being now out of my own dominions: here Scato and Gustavus are equal; here are a brace of pistols, and two swords; revenge the insult if you can." Scato, astonished at such noble condescension, threw himself at the feet of Gustavus, thanked him heartily for the satisfaction he had condescended to give him, and swore an eternal fidelity to his service. Gustavus embraced him, and they returned together to Stockholm, where the king himself, in the presence of all his courtiers, related what had passed between him and Scato.

This prince, like Scipio, pursued study and the arts amidst his military fatigues. He would sometimes pleasantly say, "I will shew Grotius the difference between theory and practice, and how easy it is to prescribe rules, but how difficult to bring them into practice." As he exposed himself to great danger during the siege of Riga, he was advised to be more careful of himself: "Kings (answered he, smiling) seldom die in battles or sieges."

While he was besieging Ingoldstat, his horse was shot under him by a cannon ball: an officer having fled to his assistance, the king said very coolly, "I have nicely escaped, but it is plain the pear is not yet ripe." On another occasion, his chancellor beseeching him not to expose his life to such danger, the king answered him a little hastily, "You are always too cold in affairs, and stop me in my career." "It is true, Sire, (replied the chancellor) I am cold; but were I not sometimes to temper your fire with my ice, you would have long since been consumed."

The allies of Gustavus lamented his death; but the mean joy of his enemies, and particularly of the

Spaniards, cast this hero: this present at a tragical death. The Death of Gustavus. Christina, the daughter of Gustavus, was only six years old when she succeeded to the throne; but the great influence of her education, her prudence and discretion, which established her manner dictated Oxenstiern neglected his care; she rendered sufficient proofs of her wisdom. She married Charles X. who was a weak prince; she expressed an excellent judgment in her choice. She was a patroness of the sciences, and indeed a saint in religion, and suffered any performance on the throne of Sweden. Charles X. was killed in the year 1659, on the 1st of November. He was successful in his wars, and received from them a great booty. He soon left their country, and retired to France. Charles X. was succeeded by his son, Charles XI. who was a weak prince; he was intrusted with the government of the European powers, and the island of Bornholm, which were ceded to him. He was however in a great measure through the guard of the prudent to carry on the great weight in the young prince came to a treaty with Louis XIV. that the French universal monarch should be joined in an alliance, or rendering the alliance abortive. Happy was the day when he called his engager

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Spaniards, cast an additional lustre on the ashes of this hero: Philip IV. had even the meanness to be present at a tragedy, or rather a burlesque farce, called "The Death of the King of Sweden," the representations of which lasted twelve days.

Christina, the daughter and successor of Gustavus, was only six years of age when her father was killed; but the great chancellor Oxenstiern, at once a consummate politician and general, who had the care of her education, held the reins of government with such prudence and discretion, that the peace of Westphalia, which established a new system in Europe, was in a manner dictated by the queen of Sweden. Nor did Oxenstiern neglect the young princefs committed to his care; she received a noble education, and gave sufficient proofs of her ability to govern a powerful kingdom. She was fond of learning, and invited Des Cartes, Salmasius, and other celebrated persons to her court; expressed a great regard for Grotius; and was an excellent judge of the polite arts, but not a liberal patroness. She had not sat long on the Swedish throne, before her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed a fantastical turn; she embraced the Romish religion, and knowing that her subjects would not suffer any person of that persuasion to sit quietly on the throne of Sweden, she resigned her crown to her cousin, Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, and retired to Rome, where she died.

Charles X. who ascended the Swedish throne in the year 1659, on the resignation of Christina, was very successful in his wars against the Poles; he even received from them an oath of allegiance, but had no sooner left their country, than they renounced it, unwilling, perhaps, to forfeit their character of independence. We have already mentioned the success of this monarch in his war against the Danes, and of his marching his army over the ice to besiege Copenhagen. He died of a fever in the year 1660, leaving his crown to his son,

Charles XI. who was only in his fifth year when his father died; which rendered it necessary for those who were intrusted with the government of the kingdom during his minority, to conclude a peace with all the European powers, though attended with the loss of the island of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway, which were ceded to the Danes. The Swedish forces were however in a very respectable condition, so that, though the guardians of Charles did not think it prudent to carry on expensive wars, the kingdom had great weight in the affairs of Europe. When the young prince came of age, he concluded a subsidiary treaty with Louis XIV. but soon after perceiving that the French monarch had formed a scheme of universal monarchy, he abandoned his connections, and joined in an alliance with England and Holland, for rendering the ambitious intentions of that prince abortive. Happy had it been for him, had he fulfilled his engagements with the maritime powers;

but he afterwards joined with France, was totally defeated at Felim-Bellin, and a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of Swedish Pomerania, the bishop of Munster over-ran the duchies of Bremen and Verdun, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonen. Charles was however afterward victorious, and recovered by the treaty of St. Germain's all he had lost, a few places in Germany only excepted. Determined to render his army still more formidable, and himself despotic, instead of cultivating the arts of peace for the good of his country, he impoverished and enslaved his people: the states lost all their power, and Sweden was reduced to the same condition as Denmark. But this was not effected without great injustice, and the most arbitrary stretch of power.

The inhabitants of Livonia presented a petition to the king, in which they pointed out, in the strongest colours, the unjust proceedings of the parliament. This was, however, so far from procuring them the redress they expected, that they were considered as traitors to their country. The celebrated Patkul, whose great talents enabled him to place the impoverished state of his country, and the unjust proceedings of the government, in the most forcible point of light, was marked out for a sacrifice to despotic vengeance; but he fortunately made his escape. Charles however was not to be diverted from his purpose by petitions: he saw, unmoved, the miseries of his people, and determined to persevere in his arbitrary measures, though founded on cruelty and injustice. He succeeded; and became one of the most powerful princes in Europe. He did not indeed long enjoy his arbitrary government: he died in 1697, a few years after he had trampled on the liberties of his country, and was succeeded by

Charles XII. his son, who was a minor when he ascended the Swedish throne. His age of majority had been fixed by the will of his father to eighteen; but by the intrigues of count Piper, it was set aside for a more early date. The youth of Charles, on his ascending to the throne, encouraged the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, to form a powerful confederacy against him; but he nobly opposed all their efforts, and landing in Zealand laid siege to Copenhagen. Reduced to extremity, the king of Denmark was obliged to sign the peace of Travendahl, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions.

In the mean time Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, was ravaging Ingria at the head of 100,000 men, and had formed the siege of Narva. The Swedish army did not exceed 20,000 men, and lay at a great distance from Narva; but the impatience of Charles was so great, that he marched directly, at the head of four thousand horse, and an equal number of foot, to attack the Russian army. Peter had posted 40,000 men

men at a league's distance from the town, in the road through which it was necessary for Charles to pass; and at double that distance 30,000 more, and before them an advanced guard of five thousand. Charles was obliged to force his way through these three detachments before he could assault the grand army, lying in a camp before Riga, fortified with a rampart and double ditch.

The intrepidity of Charles surmounted all these difficulties: without giving the Russians time to know the number of his forces, he attacked all their posts successively. The advanced guard, imagining that the whole Swedish army was advancing, fled immediately at his approach. Terrified at the sight of their countrymen, the troops occupying the second post fled also in confusion; and those of the third followed their example. Charles lost no time, but pursuing the fugitives as close as possible, attacked and routed the grand Russian army, leaving near 20,000 of the enemy dead on the field of battle. Terrified at the name of a prince, who, at the head of such a handful of men, was able to defeat so numerous an army, the Russians ascribed his success to magic; and accordingly addressed their prayers to St. Nicolas, to protect them against the horrid crew of forcerers, combined together to destroy their country. After defeating the czar's army, Charles marched into Saxony, where he performed actions equal at least to those of the great Gustavus Adolphus; he dethroned Augustus, king of Poland, and placed the crown on the head of Stanislaus. His prodigious success rendered his name terrible to all the princes of Europe, and his friendship was courted by the most respectable powers. His conduct however was often so imprudent, and his stubbornness and implacable disposition so destructive of all peace, that he can only be considered in the light of an illustrious madman. The cruel and ignominious death to which he put the brave count Patkul, will be an eternal stain on his memory, which all his victories can never obliterate.

After his success in Poland, he formed the romantic design of dethroning Peter the Great, and accordingly marched his army into Russia, and besieged the town of Pultowa. The czar's army had now seen a great deal of service, were inured to discipline and hardships, and commanded by able and intrepid generals: it is therefore no wonder that Charles here suffered a reverse of fortune; his brave army was totally ruined, and he himself, with a few followers, obliged to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. Here he resided till the Mahometans found it necessary for their affairs for him to withdraw. He however refused to comply with repeated requests for that purpose, and even attempted to defend himself with three hundred men, against an army of 30,000 Turks, an action which proves him to have been worse than frantic. Even this reverse of fortune could not cure him of his

military frenzy; for after his return to his own dominions he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark with the utmost fury, till he was killed in the trenches at the siege of Frederichshall, in Norway. This event happened in 1718, when he was only thirty-six years of age. On the death of Charles XII. his sister

Ulrica Eleonora ascended the Swedish throne. We have already seen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberty, and given the substance of the capitulation signed by the queen and her husband, when they entered on the exercise of the government. She immediately made a peace with all the belligerent powers combined against Sweden; though this could not be effected without considerable sacrifices made by Ulrica.

But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in consequence of their subsidies and intrigues, had occasioned considerable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a most powerful party appeared in the diet in favour of French measures. The persons who composed it, went under the denomination of *Hats*. The object they held out to the nation, was, the recovery of some of the dominions yielded to Russia; and consequently the system they were to proceed upon, was, to break with that power, and connect themselves with France. The party directly opposed to them was headed by count Horn, and those who contributed to establish the new form of government, which was settled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and promoting the domestic welfare of the nation: the system, therefore, which they adopted, was, to maintain a close correspondence and friendship with Russia, and to avoid all further connection with France: these were styled the *Caps*. There was besides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, composed of persons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themselves. These parties long continued; but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real interest of the kingdom: during the last war, for instance, with the king of Prussia, the crown of Sweden, for the sake of a small subsidy from France, was forced to contract a debt of 2,500,000, which has since been considerably augmented, so that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some efforts were employed by the English court to lessen or destroy the French influence in Sweden, and for some time they were successful: but the Hat party again acquired the ascendancy. These parties, however, are now abolished, in consequence of the late king of Sweden having made that total change in the government, which we shall presently give an ample account of.

At the death of Ulrica, who left no issue, the Swedes elected the prince of Holstein Eutin, bishop of Lubbeck, who ascended the throne in 1751. But he sufficiently felt the weight of the Swedish crown, and after a troublesome reign of twenty years, occasioned by the per-

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 in February 1771, and was succeeded by his son
 Guilavus III. of Holstein Gottorp, who was about
 twenty-five years of age when he was proclaimed
 king of Sweden: with an understanding much cul-
 tivated, he had a graceful and commanding elo-
 quation, and an insinuating address. At the time of
 his father's death, he was at Paris, from whence he
 returned in the most gracious terms to the senate, re-
 assuredly assuring them, that he designed to govern
 according to the laws. Not long after which, an
 extraordinary diet was convened to regulate the affairs
 of the government, and to settle the form of the
 coronation-oath.

On the 28th of March 1772, being some time after
 his arrival in Sweden, his majesty solemnly signed and
 swore to observe twenty-four articles, relative to his
 future administration of government; among which
 were the following: "The king promises, before
 God, to support the government of the kingdom as
 then established; to maintain the rights and liberties
 of the states, the liberties and security of all his sub-
 jects, to reign with gentleness and equity according to
 the laws of the kingdom, and to preserve the form of
 the regency as was established in the year 1720, and
 conformable to the present act of capitulation.—In
 consequence of the declaration of the states, the king
 shall regard every person, who shall openly or secretly
 attempt to introduce absolute sovereignty, as a traitor
 to his country, and an enemy of the kingdom; and
 that before any person can take possession of an
 employment, he shall be required to take an oath
 respecting this matter.—The king promises to follow
 the regulations of the year 1720, with regard to the
 affairs of the cabinet and senate, which were always
 to be directed by a majority of votes; and that he will
 never do any thing therein without, and much less
 contrary to their advice.—And in order that the coun-
 cil of state may be satisfactorily convinced of the
 uprightnefs of his majesty's designs, and of his sincere
 love for the good of his people, he declares them to
 be entirely disengaged from their oath of fidelity,
 in case he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation
 oath, and to the capitulation.—And lastly, the king
 threatens any person with his highest displeasure,
 who shall be so inconsiderate as to propose to him a
 greater degree of power and splendor than is herein
 marked out, as his majesty desires only to be the
 powerful defender of his subjects against any en-
 croachments which may be made upon their lawful
 liberties, and to gain the affection of his faithful and
 loyal subjects."

Notwithstanding the king had taken these solemn
 oaths, to rule according to the then established form
 of government, and accepted the crown upon these
 conditions, it was not long before he formed a plan
 to govern as he thought proper, regarding these oaths
 only as matters of ceremony; and he made use of every

art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost
 dexterity and address, in order to render this hazard-
 ous enterprise successful.

At his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every
 method which might increase his popularity. He gave
 regular audience three times in the week, to all that
 presented themselves. He became easy of access to
 all his subjects of whatever rank, listened to them
 with courtesy, and entered into the minutest details
 of their complaints; and by appearing, in various re-
 spects, to interest himself in their welfare and hap-
 piness, was regarded and beloved as the common
 father of his people, who, in the warmth of their
 gratitude, did not consider that such an extraordinary
 conduct in their prince, tempered with so much con-
 descension, might possibly flow from sinister motives,
 or ambitious views, instead of principles of the purest
 benevolence.

While the king laboured, by these means, to render
 himself generally popular, he also endeavoured to per-
 suade the leading men, that he was inviolably attached
 to the constitution, that he was perfectly satisfied with
 the share of power allotted to him, and declared, on
 every occasion, that he considered it as his greatest
 glory to be the first citizen of a free people. He
 seemed intent only on banishing corruption, and pro-
 moting union: disclaimed being of any party but that
 of the nation at large, and engaged to pay the most
 implicit obedience to whatever should be enacted by
 the diet. Though these professions charmed great
 numbers into security, they at the same time caused
 suspicions in the breasts of a few, who, rather, thought
 his majesty promised too much to be in earnest. In
 the mean time there happened some contentions be-
 tween the different orders of the people; and no
 methods were left untried to foment their jealousies.

On the 19th of August 1772, when Gustavus found
 his scheme ripe for execution, having taken proper
 measures for bringing a considerable number of officers
 and soldiers over to his interest, all the military force
 of Stockholm being at his devotion, he planted gren-
 adiers, with fixed bayonets, at the door of the council-
 chamber, in which the senate were assembled, and
 made all the members of it prisoners: and that no
 intelligence of the transaction, in which the king
 was engaged, might be conveyed to any other part
 of the kingdom till the scheme was completed, cannon
 were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the
 palace, the bridges, and at all the avenues leading to
 the town. All communication with the country was
 cut off, no one being allowed to leave the city with-
 out a passport from the king. Some of the senators
 were then confined in separate apartments in the
 palace. The remainder of this day was employed
 by the king in visiting different quarters of the town,
 in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the
 magistrates, colleges, and city militia.

The next day, oaths were tendered to the people in
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general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring that his only intention was to restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness, overturning the aristocratic form of government, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," said he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred absolute power, or what is called *sovereignty*, esteeming it still, as heretofore, my greatest glory to be the first citizen among a truly free people." After these assurances on the part of his majesty, heralds were sent into the different quarters of the town, to proclaim orders for an assembly of the states the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the state should without just cause absent himself, he should be considered and treated as a traitor.

On the 21st of August, in the morning, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take possession of the square where the house of nobles stands. Troops were also ordered to invest the palace on all sides, and cannon were planted in the court opposite the hall where the states were to meet. By the king's command, the several orders of the state were here compelled to assemble, and these military preparations were declared to be made in order to assist their deliberations.

The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, caused the plan of a new form of government to be read by a secretary, and offered it to the states for their acceptance, who thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, then signed the form of government, and the states took the oath which the king had dictated to them. This transaction, which had been planned with great sagacity and judgment, conducted with secrecy, and effected by eloquence, concluded in a manner no less extraordinary: the king drew a book of psalms from his pocket, and, taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which the whole assembly joined: the senate took a new oath of allegiance to the prince, who gave them to understand that he intended in six years time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus this great revolution was completed, and tranquillity restored, without any bloodshed; very few persons were imprisoned, and that only for a short time; nor did any of them experience, in the smallest degree, a diminution of the royal favour, on account of their opposition. And this remarkable event, which had produced an almost total change in the Swedish constitution, did not appear to have any influence on the conduct of Gustavus III. who continued to exercise with moderation the power he had thus assumed.

The circumstances of perfidy with which the revolution of 1772 was accompanied, were not likely to leave a favourable impression, with respect to the character of the king, on the minds of the people, and

particularly of the nobility. While he externally courted popularity, he was aiming to destroy whatever was popular in the state. While he made professions the most flattering, disclaimed the title of king, and affected to call himself only the first citizen of the republic, he was meditating the downfall of all that wore even the guise of freedom. While with his lips he pronounced the solemn oath by which he bound himself to maintain inviolate the constitution of 1720, his heart most have been internally conscious of the intended perjury. The revolution left many discontented spirits among persons of the first rank and character in the nation; and baron Pechlin, a nobleman of great worth and popularity, was among the most strenuous of its opponents.

It frequently happens that despotic power is not less difficult to maintain than to acquire. A standing army was the only instrument by which Gustavus could preserve his usurped authority; and yet to levy exorbitant taxes would not, in such a situation, have been a prudent measure. The intrigues of France were, therefore, triumphant on this occasion; he became of necessity the pensioner of that court, and the connexion was not dissolved till the finances of France became unable to support the detail of the public expences, and till the wise and upright administration of Necker directed the attention of the late monarch from foreign projects to internal economy and improvement.

It is generally believed that the necessitous king, when bereft of this resource, looked anxiously round for a source to supply his pressing wants, and it is as generally believed that his exertions in favour of the Ottoman cause in the late war were very amply rewarded. Of the nature of the connexion which afterwards took place between Gustavus and the court of Petersburg, but little is known. It is probable that he was the dupe of that insatiable power, whose views might be faintly directed to the possession of Sweden, when he had sufficiently exhausted his force in the absurd crusade in which, under her influence, he was about to engage.

The Swedish nation in the mean time had beheld the blood and treasure of the country squandered away in quarrels, in which they could not possibly have the most distant interest. They beheld something still more alarming. They beheld their king, under the influence of an insidious court, upon the point of raising his standard in the public defence of the cause of despotism, and saw him degraded to be a captain of banditti, marching to plunder the treasures, and crush the rising liberties of France.

The high spirit of the Swedish nobility was particularly manifested in the diets, and the very first of these which met after the revolution plainly evinced that the seeds of dissension had taken deep root in the minds even of those who swayed the highest offices of the state. In this diet, which met in 1778, the king attempted

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tempted to re-establish the ancient classes among the
Swerdth nobles, viz. the high nobility, the equestrian
order, and the gentry. Each class was to vote separately,
and as every question was to be decided by the majority
of the classes, that is, by the union of any two, the king
flattered himself that a majority in the superior classes
would be easily obtained, and that in this manner the
people would be abused with the shew of representation,
while the substantial power remained in his own hands.
In this expectation, however, the views of the sovereign
were disappointed. The higher orders, who felt more and
more their own consequence, proved untractable; and the
lower house, who saw themselves degraded by this ar-
rangement, entered into a state of implacable opposition.

A motion by Mr. Hummelkein to ascertain and li-
mit the royal prerogative put a sudden termination to
the diet. The registers, &c. were sealed up, and have
ever since remained unopened in the royal closet. Nei-
ther was the diet which assembled in 1786 more satis-
factory to the views of Gustavus. Most of the measures
propofed by the king (the main object of which, it
must be confessed, was to replenish his exhausted trea-
sury) were rejected; and to obtain one point, the esta-
blishment of granaries under his inspection, he was ob-
liged to relinquish a prerogative which was attached to
the crown by the old constitution from the reign of
Gustavus Adolphus, that when the orders of the diet
should be divided on any question, the determination
should be referred to the king. This diet broke up with
unequivocal symptoms of dissatisfaction, and with mu-
tual recriminations between the king and its leading
members.

After such experience of their refractory conduct, it
is surprising the king should have been averse to the as-
sembling of the states at the commencement of the late
war. The revolt of the army at Frederickstadt, and the
urgent want of supplies, compelled him however to as-
semble a diet again in 1789. The discontents which
had prevailed in the former sessions seemed to increase
in this. Some popular laws were notwithstanding pas-
sed; in particular, the privileges which the nobility
had before exclusively enjoyed, were by a law of this
diet extended to all settled inhabitants of the kingdom.
This circumstance, and the attention which was paid
by the king to the inferior orders of citizens, probably
enabled him, with the concurrence of the people, when
the disputes increased, to imprison the leaders of the
dissatisfied nobles, among whom were the barons De-
geer, Maclean, Stiernhold, counts Horn, Ferfen, and
Brahe, &c.

The vice-marshal colonel Liljehorn observed a very
guarded conduct, but was generally considered as ill
affected to the measures of the court. Several young
gentlemen of spirit, among whom were counts Rib-
bing, Delagardie, and Stenbock, resigned their places;
the ladies deserted the drawing-rooms and assemblies;
the places of public amusement were closed for want
of a resort of company. In the end, a kind of compro-

mise took place. The prisoners were set at liberty, and
the king obtained his object with respect to supplies,
&c. and concluded the diet by abolishing the power of
the senate, which was a further step to arbitrary power,
and extremely obnoxious to the nobility.

Though Gustavus must necessarily have been ren-
dered averse to these assemblies, his necessities in the
beginning of 1792 compelled him once more to sum-
mon a diet, but every precaution was employed to ren-
der it as little injurious as possible to his usurped autho-
rity. The proclamation for assembling the diet was
issued only three weeks previous to its meeting, so that
the elections were made in haste, and the patriotic
party had no time to make any arrangements with re-
spect to their choice of representatives. Instead of
assembling in the capital, the states were ordered to meet
at Gessle, a solitary situation on the Bothnic Gulf, and
70 miles from Stockholm. The diet during the whole
of its deliberations was surrounded by mercenary
troops. Thus the expectations of the public were com-
pletely frustrated. No reform was effected, nor was
there any censure passed upon the king for the manifest
infraction of both the old and new constitutions, in
entering into war without the consent of the states.
In his great object, however, Gustavus found himself
in some measure disappointed; the diet were still too
parsimonious to satisfy either his necessities or his
wishes, and he was obliged to rest contented with only
a part of his demand. The diet was dissolved on the
24th of February 1792.

Notwithstanding the dissatisfaction which the con-
duct of Gustavus had excited was thus prevented from
bursting into an open flame, still the evil was not era-
dicated, and the sword of faction impended over his
devoted head. Not only the nobles, but the people
were averse to the crusade against France. The coun-
try was already sufficiently exhausted of its population
and its industry; the finances were miserably deranged;
immense loans had been negotiated; and the people
suffered equally from oppressive taxes, and a depreciated
paper currency. Perhaps private and personal offences
might co-operate with public grievances, to arm against
Gustavus that formidable conspiracy which was planned
even under his roof, and might hasten the catastrophe
which we have now to record.

Immediately on the dissolution of the diet at Gessle,
his majesty returned to Stockholm, where he probably
flattered himself that his address and affability would
dissipate the chagrin which his conduct at Gessle had
produced. On the 16th of March, as he was preparing
to attend a masquerade at the opera-house, he received
the following anonymous letter:

“ SIRE,

“ Deign to listen to the advice of a man, who, nei-
ther being attached to your service, nor desirous of your
favour,

favour, flatters not your crimes, but is desirous of averting the danger with which your life is menaced.

"Be assured, that a plot is formed to assassinate you. Those who have entered into it, are furious at being foiled last week, by the balls being countermanded. They have resolved to execute their scheme this day. Remain at home; avoid balls during the present year; thus the fanaticism of criminality will be suffered to evaporate. Avoid the road to Haga (the king's country residence); in fine, be upon your guard for at least a month.

"Do not endeavour to discover the author of this letter; the damnable project against your life is come to his knowledge by accident; be assured, however, that he has not any interest whatever in forewarning you of your intended fate.

"If your mercenary troops had made use of any violence against the citizens at Gessle, the author of this letter would have fought against you sword in hand; but detests assassination."

On reading the note, the king, it is said, was observed to turn pale. He affected, however, to hear it with contempt, and to consider it as an insult to his courage, to attempt to deter him from enjoying his evening's entertainment. It was further remarked, that it was late before he entered the ball room; but after some time he sat down in a box with the comte D'Essen, and observed that he was not deceived in his contempt for the letter, since had there been any design against his life, no time could be more favourable than that moment. He then mingled, without apprehension, among the crowd; and just as he was preparing to retire, in company with the Prussian ambassador, he was surrounded by several persons in masks, one of whom fired a pistol at the back of the king, and lodged the contents in his body. A scene of dreadful confusion immediately ensued. The conspirators, amidst the general tumult and alarm, had time to retire to other parts of the room, but one of them had previously dropped his pistols and a dagger close by the wounded king. A general order was given to all the company to unmask, and the doors were immediately closed, but no person appeared with any particular distinguishing marks of guilt. The king was immediately conveyed to his apartment, and the surgeon, after extracting a ball and some slugs, gave favourable hopes of his majesty's recovery.

The 17th was a day of apprehension and terror. The Swedish guards were all under arms; patrols and pickets were ordered to traverse the streets of Stockholm both night and day; and the houses of the citizens were to be shut alter eight in the evening. Suspicions immediately fell upon such of the nobles as had been notorious for their opposition to the measures of the court. The anonymous letter was traced up to colonel Liljehorn, major in the king's guards, and he was immediately apprehended. But the most successful clue

that seemed to offer was, in consequence of the weapons which had fallen from the assassin. An order was issued, directing all the armourers, gunsmiths, and cutlers in Stockholm, to give every information in their power to the officers of justice concerning the weapons. A gunsmith, who had repaired the pistols, readily recognised them to be the same, which he had repaired some time since for a nobleman of the name of Ankarstrom, a captain in the army; and the cutler, who had made the dagger, referred at once to the same person.

No sooner was Ankarstrom apprehended, than he confessed with an air of manifest triumph, that he was the person "who had endeavoured to liberate his country from a monster and a tyrant." Suspicions at that same time fell on the counts Horn and Ribbing, baron Pechlin, baron Ehrensvard, baron Hartsmundorf, Van Engerstrom the royal secretary, and others. Baron Beilke, the king's private secretary, being also apprehended on suspicion, declared without hesitation that he was privy to the plot, but added, that he had provided against the punishment which he knew awaited him, and against the risk of being compelled by torture to betray those who were associated with him. He had in fact swallowed poison, and expired shortly after this declaration. His body was afterwards drawn on a hurdle, and exposed to public view at the common place of execution.

It appeared from the confession of Ankarstrom, that he had been himself a principal in the conspiracy from the beginning. That in consequence of an intimacy which existed between him and count Horn, they had often been led to converse upon political subjects, on which they were perfectly agreed. They deplored the annihilation of their country's liberty and constitution, and resented the recent calamities which the false ambition of Gustavus had brought upon the nation, and concluded, that the only means of redressing the grievances under which it laboured, and of rescuing it from others which were still more to be apprehended, would be to assassinate the king, or at least remove him from the government. In consequence of this determination, they concerted a plan for carrying him off by night from his villa at Haga, where he usually slept; and in the beginning of January they walked round through the park and woods of Haga, but found every avenue too securely guarded.

Count Ribbing was informed of the conspiracy through count Horn, and readily acceded to it. Ankarstrom undertook to be the immediate agent for the assassination; and with this intention, in company with count Horn, he attended the theatre on the 10th of January, and sat in the next box to the king's, but his majesty did not appear at the theatre that evening. With the same purpose in view they went to the masquerade, which was given by the king on the 11th of the same month; but as the concourse of people did not appear sufficient to afford them any hopes of concealment, the design was deferred.

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The king was accompanied to the diet at Gessle by Ankerstrom and Ribbing, who returned with him to Stockholm. They determined to effect their purpose by a masquerade on the 2d of March, but that enter-ainment was put off. Count Ribbing informed Liljeborn and baron Pechlin of the plot, which both of them approved, and promised their assistance. On the 16th of March, when Ankerstrom had fired his pistol, not seeing the king fall immediately, he drew his dagger in order to effect his purpose, but was seized with a tremor, and dropped both the dagger and the pistol on the floor. He, however, had presence of mind to mingle immediately with the crowd, and to join in a cry of fire, which probably arose at first from the appearance of that confusion which it afterwards contributed to increase.

The king languished from the 17th to the 29th of March. At first the reports of his medical attendants were favourable; but on the 28th a mortification was found to have taken place, which terminated his existence in a few hours. On opening his body, a square piece of lead, and two rusty nails, were found unex-pected within the ribs.

Thus fell, by the hand of treason, Gustavus III. in his forty-sixth year.

Ankerstrom, in a subsequent examination, apologized for having so far exposed the secrets of his friends, by observing that no torture should have wrested this confession from him, had he not been informed that Liljeborn, who wrote the anonymous letter, and count Horn, were both in custody, and that his letters to the water had been seized by the government. He mentioned, slightly, that his private misfortunes, by which he probably alluded to some slights which he suffered from the king, had contributed to render him despe-rate. After a very fair and ample trial, Ankerstrom was condemned to be publicly and severely whipped on three successive days, his right hand and his head to be cut off, and his body impaled, which sentence he suffered not till the 17th of May, long after the death of the king. His property was given to his children, who, however, were compelled to change their name.

Counts Horn and Ribbing were condemned to lose their right hands, and to be decapitated. Colonel Liljeborn, and lieutenant Ehrenjwerd were also to be be-headed. All these conspirators were degraded from the rank of nobles, and their property declared to be confiscated. Major Hartmansdorf was to forfeit his rank in the army, and to be imprisoned for one year. Ankerstrom was to suffer perpetual imprisonment, and baron Pechlin and secretary Lillestrahle to be imprisoned during pleasure. Four others, accused of being concerned in the conspiracy, were pardoned, and some were acquitted.

During the king's illness, and particularly after he was made acquainted with the certainty of his approaching dissolution, Gustavus continued to display that unshaken courage which he had manifested on

every occasion during his life. A few hours before his decease he made some alterations in the arrangement of public affairs. He had before, by his will, appointed a council of regency; but convinced, by recent experience, how little he could depend on the attachment of his nobles, and being also aware of the necessity of a strong government in difficult times, he appointed his brother, the duke of Sudermania, sole regent, till his son, who was then about fourteen, shall have attained the age of eighteen years. Immediately on the death of the king, the young prince was proclaimed by the title of Gustavus IV.

The late Gustavus was a prince of high ambition, but rather a man of address than of ability. His manners were popular and insinuating, his eloquence fluent and bold. His conduct was, however, seldom tempered with judgment, or his speeches replete with solid information. He was too desirous of being great, to permit himself or his people to be happy; and the unfortunate predilection which he had imbibed for arbitrary power, made him, in reality, a slave and a dependent during the greater part of his reign. A passion for war in a sovereign is the greatest curse that can afflict a state; and if a revolutionary power could be established consistently with the safety of a limited monarchy, the great disqualification should be, the love of war. If in private life a turbulent disposition unfits a man for society, surely the evil is increased in an infinite proportion, where the lives of millions and the treasures of nations are wantonly squandered. By the imprudence of Gustavus in this respect, Sweden was exhausted of its resources, and reduced in its population; and had he proceeded on his wild enterprize against France, his country would, in all probability, at the termination of the crusade, have fallen an unresisting prey to the insatiable ambition of Russia.

As the king of Sweden was desirous of emulating, in every instance, the character of his uncle, the late king of Prussia, he was not superior to the vanity of appearing as an author. Some dramatic compositions, which were acted at the national theatre, we have heard well spoken of; but we must confess that none of his writings, that have fallen under our notice, deserve much commendation; and his orations, at the opening of the Swedish academy in particular, are turgid and yet feeble, poor in matter, and abounding only in words. It is but just, however, to add, that, except his love of war, which certainly always indicates a want of feeling and humanity in a character, the errors of Gustavus appear to have been rather errors of the understanding than of the heart. Even in desiring arbitrary power, he does not seem to have been prompted by any inclination to abuse it, for he was not practically a tyrant. The last scene of his life was such indeed as ought to blot from remembrance a long catalogue of crimes. His last words were a declaration of pardon to the conspirators against his life. The actual murderer alone was excepted, and he was excepted only at the

strong instance of the regent, and those who surrounded his majesty in his dying moments.

As a man, Gustavus had a mixture of character, in which the good seems almost to be predominant, inasmuch that it cannot be doubted that he was a bad king. His perfidy, his usurpation, his military spirit, all conspired against the good of his country; and, much as human nature shudders at the crime of assassination, still it cannot be dissembled that the death of Gustavus III. was a happy event for Sweden. The mild and equal conduct of the regent has preserved the country from the horrors of internal war, while the wisdom, spirit, and patriotism of his council, will probably save it from the insidious attacks of a restless and dangerous neighbour. Wisely averse to hostility, the duke of Sudermania has cultivated successfully the friendship of all the belligerent powers, except Russia. In the mean time, his attention has been laudably directed to excite the dormant spirit of industry in the nation; to the encouragement of their domestic manufactures, and to the enforcing of rigid economy among all the dependents of government, in order that the example of the court, co-operating with his own, may exert a salutary influence over the people in opposing the increase of luxury, gambling, and dissipation. It is a pleasure to contemplate such dispositions in so elevated a station; and while the regent perseveres in this conduct, he will undoubtedly merit the enviable title of the father of his country.

In the mean time, it is somewhat painful to reflect upon what a tottering balance, upon what trivial causes, the prosperity and happiness of nations is frequently found to depend. The attention of the public has been frequently called to the alarming increase of power which the great monarchs of Europe have lately achieved. In the case of Russia, that increase has been gradual, but it is the effect of system, and of a system, which, if pursued through the course of another protracted reign, must inevitably be attended with the most fatal consequences to the independence and liberties of Europe and of mankind. To Great-Britain herself, though the danger may appear remote, from the remoteness of the source, perhaps no more is reserved than the melancholy privilege of being the last devoured. The spirit of humanity rises indignantly at such unprovoked and unprincipled attacks upon the independence and the freedom of a nation. In the subjugation and dismemberment of Poland, the spirit of that nefarious band of conspirators, who signed the treaty of Pilnitz, is sufficiently manifested; and that man who does not feel himself actuated by the strongest resentment at such violations of every thing that is laudable and right, must necessarily be deficient either in sense or in honesty.

Against a combination so hostile to the felicity of mankind, we are persuaded that nothing will act as a counterpoise, but a firm union among the weaker states; such a measure, whatever be their form of go-

vernment, or their political principles, it will be the undoubted interest to adopt. The alarm which has been raised against the extension of democratic principles, and the ill conduct of the French, which it is a part of our will either to dissemble or extenuate, has caused a considerable portion of the people of Europe to lose sight, for a moment, of the real danger which befalls them; but we have sanguine hopes of the speedy return of common sense and reflection; and trust, that in fighting for a shadow, the nations of Europe will not expose themselves to the imminent danger of losing the substance.

The late sovereign Gustavus III. king of Sweden was born the 24th of January 1746, and succeeded his father Adolphus in 1771. He married Sophia-Magdalena, the princess-royal of Denmark in 1766, by whom he has issue a prince, Gustavus-Adolphus, born November 1, 1778, now the reigning monarch. His brothers and sister are Charles, born in 1748; Frederic-Adolphus, in 1750; and Sophia-Albertina, in 1750.

The royal style is, King of the Goths and Vandals, Great Prince of Finland, Duke of Schonen, Pomerania, &c. Here are three orders of knighthood, viz. the order of the Polar star, the order of Vasa, and the order of the sword; the latter of these was created in the memorable year 1772.

C H A P. VII.

THE EMPIRE OF GREAT RUSSIA, OR MUSCOVY.

Situation, Extent, Provinces, Climate, Soil, Produce, Forests, Rivers, Fish, Population, Inhabitants, Customs, Laws, Government, &c.

RUSSIA is situated between the 47th and 72d deg. of north lat. and between the 29d and 69th deg. of east long. It is supposed to be about 1530 miles from west to east, and 1200 from north to south: these limits, however, are not to be entirely depended upon, as the eastern part is a mere desert, being entirely abandoned on account of the incursions of the Tartars, and the northern parts are rendered almost inaccessible by cold. We know, however, that the whole comprehends the northern parts of Europe and Asia, stretching from the Baltic and Sweden, on the west, to Kamtschatka and the eastern ocean; and on the north, from the Frozen Ocean to the 47th degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caspian Seas, Great Tartary, Chinese Tartary, and other unknown regions in Asia.

This mighty empire, according to the most authentic accounts, consists of 15 provinces or governments, besides part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden;

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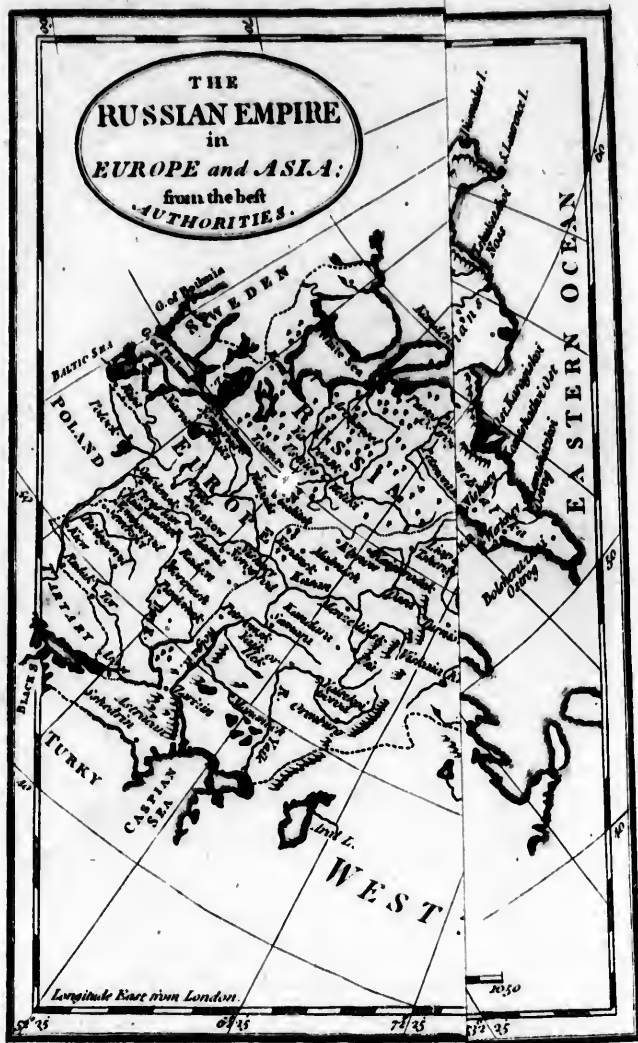
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7. Permian.
8. Rubeninski.
9. Belacfoda.

MIDDLE PR

10. Rezan; or
11. Belozero.
12. Wologda.
13. Jerazlaf.
14. Twer.
15. Moscow.
16. Belgorod.

the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Chersonesus, a peninsula in the Euxine Sea, formerly subject to the Turks, but added in the year 1783 to the Russian empire, with the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban; by the cession of which last the Russians are said to have gained above a million of subjects; also the duchy of Courland in Poland, of which the empress of Russia has now the entire disposal.
The Russian empire, in its most extensive sense, in-

cluding all the acquisitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia, with the provinces above specified, is nearly equal in its dimensions to all the rest of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander, or both put together. The proper divisions of Russia in Europe, with its acquisitions from Sweden in the present century, will be found in the following table:

Places.	Length	Breadth	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	
RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.					
Greek Church	Russia, or Musc.	1,160	1,050	784,650	Moscow.
	Belgorod	375	285	72,900	Waronetz.
	Don Cossacs	400	280	57,000	Panchina.
	Ukraine Cossacs	330	205	45,000	Kiow.
Conquer. from Sweden since 1700.	Espland	405	270	72,000	Kala.
	Ruf. Finland	320	180	41,310	Wyburg.
Seized from the Turks in 1783	Livonia	218	145	21,525	Riga.
	Ingria	175	90	9,100	PETERSBURGH.
	Crim. Tart.	160	115	8,200	Kassa.
RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.					
Muscovy, Tartary, and Siberia	3,450	1,500	2,200,000	Tobolsky.	
Kalmuc Tartary	2,100	750	850,000	Astrachan.	
Total			4,161,685		

The Subdivision of Russia into Provinces is as follows:

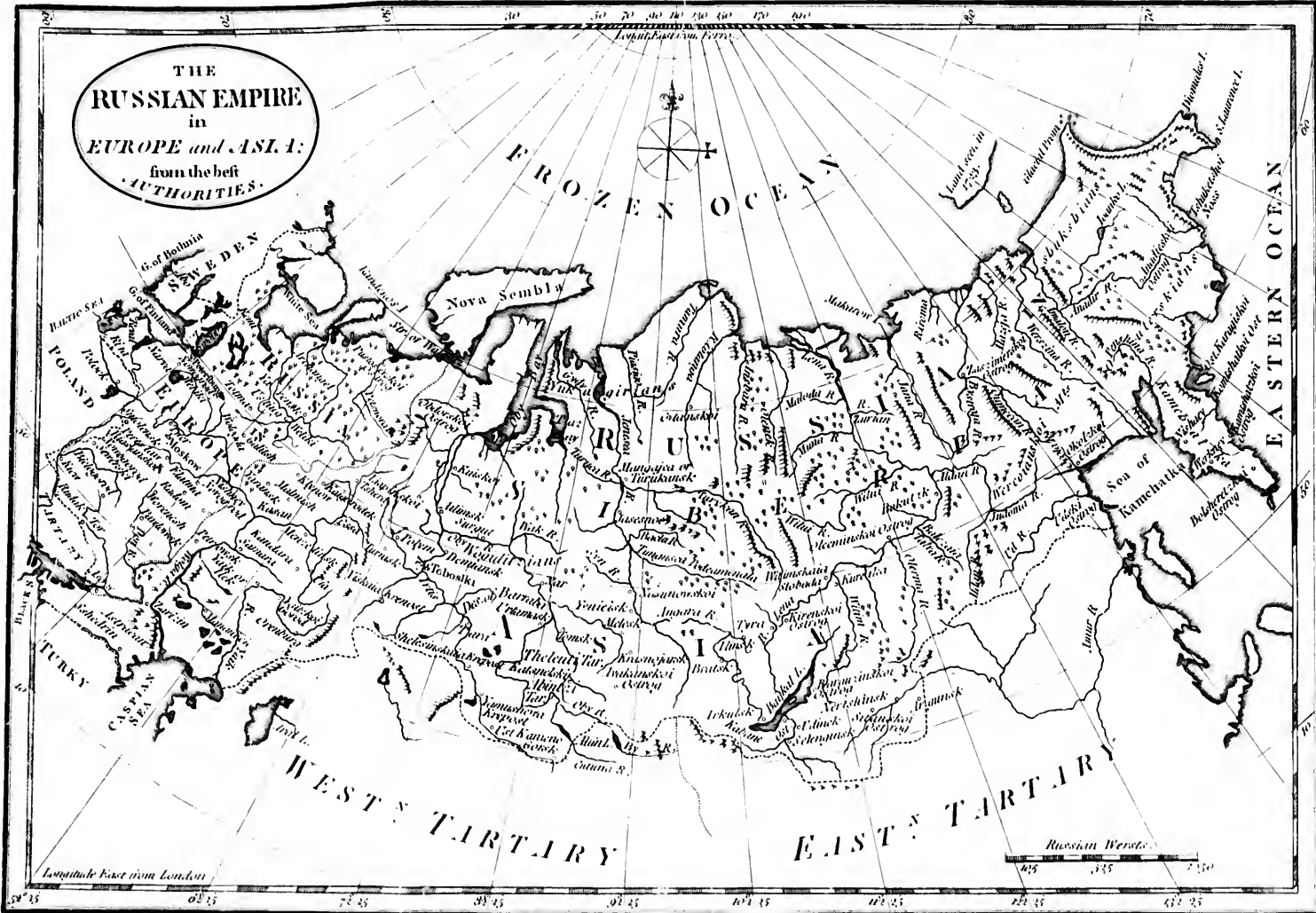
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| NORTHERN PROVINCES. | EASTERN PROVINCES. |
| 1. Lapland. | 17. Bulgar. |
| 2. Samoieda. | 18. Kafan. |
| 3. Bellamanensky. | 19. Tscheremiffi. |
| 4. Meseen. | 20. Little Novogrod. |
| 5. Divina. | 21. Don Cossacks. |
| 6. Syrianes. | WESTERN PROVINCES. |
| 7. Permia. | 22. Great Novogrod. |
| 8. Rubetiniski. | 23. Russian Finland. |
| 9. Belacfula. | 24. Kexholm. |
| MIDDLE PROVINCES. | 25. Kaleria. |
| 10. Rezan, or Poreffiaf. | 26. Ineria. |
| 11. Belozero. | SOUTHERN PROVINCES. |
| 12. Wologda. | 27. Livonia. |
| 13. Jerazlaf. | 28. Smolensko. |
| 14. Twer. | 29. Zernigof. |
| 15. Moscow. | 30. Seeffk. |
| 16. Belgorod. | 31. Ukranic, or country of the Old Cossacs. |

The following nations, as comprehended in this vast empire, have been enumerated by Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the British factory at Petersburg, who has lately published an account of Russia, viz.

The Mongols, Kalmucs, Tartars, Samoiedes, Ostiaks, Buzattians, Jakutans, Tungusians, Voguls, Laplanders, Finns, Lettonians, Estonians, Lieffs, Ingrians, Ischerimiffes, Tschouwasches, Mordvines, Voriaks, Terptyalreis, Tartars of Kasan and Ofenbury, Tartars of Tobolsk, Tartars of Tomsk, Nogayan Tartars, Tartars of the Ob, Ischoulym Tartars, Katschintz Tartars, Teleutes, Abinzes, Biryouffes, Kurilians, Kistim and Toulbert Tartars, Vergho Tomskoi Tartars, Sayan Tartars, Touralinzes, Bougharians, Baschkirians, Meltscheraiks, Barabinzes, Kirkguifions, Belitirians, Yakoutes, and Kamtschedales, amounting, all together, to thirty-three nations, besides various others; but some of these are not considerable enough to be ranked as nations, but should rather be denominated distinct tribes.

The names of Russia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, are probably owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Rusli or Borulli, and the river Mosca,

**THE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
in
EUROPE and ASIA:
from the best
AUTHORITIES.**



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In the province of Voglezi is a ridge, or chain, called Zimmopoiias, or the Girdle of the Earth, and supposed to be the Montes Riphæi of the ancients. On the western side of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains; and between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Mount Caucasus borders a range of vast plains extending to the sea of Oral. From Petersburg to the north part of France, by the road of Danzick, Hamburg, and Amsterdam, we scarcely can perceive the smallest hill; and from Petersburg to Pekin, there is hardly a mountain to be seen on the road through Independent Tartary.

Forests and woods abound in this empire, and produce fir trees of various kinds, oak, beech, alder, juniper, and many other sorts of inferior woods and shrubs; whereby the inhabitants are enabled to build very comfortable houses, and at the same time are supplied with fuel at a very easy rate, which, in so cold a climate, may justly be esteemed an infinite blessing. Their fir-trees are of the utmost advantage; it being from these they extract the tar and pitch; the process is as follows: a circular floor of clay is prepared, declining a little towards the centre, from whence a pipe of wood is laid; the upper part of this pipe is even with the floor, and extends ten feet beyond the circumference: under the end of this pipe the earth is dug away, and barrels placed to receive the tar as it runs upon the floor, upon which is placed a large pile of fir-wood, boughs, and branches, surrounded with a wall of earth. The whole is covered with earth and turf, except a small opening at the top, where the fire is first kindled; and when that begins to burn fiercely, this hole is likewise closed with earth, to prevent any flame. By means of this violent heat, which is tempered at pleasure, by thrusting sticks through the earthen walls, and letting in the air, the tar is forced down upon the floor, and runs through the wooden pipe into the barrels. Pitch is nothing more than tar boiled to a proper consistency. From the yellow mountain pine is extracted the common turpentine, and from that the oil of turpentine is extracted by distillation; the first running of which, being finer and more volatile, is usually called spirits of turpentine. The sediment left in the still is the common rosin, which, if taken out before it is drawn so high, is termed the yellow rosin, but, if left to evaporate to a greater degree, becomes black rosin. The Russians likewise extract frankincense from a species of fir and pine.

The rivers in Russia are very considerable, and among the first of them is placed the Wolga, which, after traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and winding a course of above two thousand English miles, falls into the Caspian Sea. The source of this famous river is the lake of Uranow, near the city of Rzewa Wodimerski, on the frontiers of Lithuania. The Wolga begins to be navigable about six miles below its source. Along its banks are found truffles and wild

asparagus, of a most delicious flavour, and the only oaks which are produced in Muscovy.

The Oby, formed by the junction of the Tobal and the Irtyis, in the sixty-fifth degree of northern latitude, runs northward into the Frozen Ocean, opposite to Nova Zembla, and is the boundary between Europe and Asia.

The Don, or Tanais, divides the most eastern parts of this empire from Asia. It has its source in the Rezan, and in its course towards the east approaches so near the Wolga, that the czar, Peter I. attempted to cut a communication between them. The river then runs towards the south-west, receives a great number of other rivers; waters several cities, forms many beautiful islands, and at last discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis, at the fortrefs of Asoph, about four hundred miles from its rise.

The Dwina rises in the province of Wologda, and, after running a northerly course, falls into the White Sea below Archangel.

The Nieper, formerly known by the name of the Boristhenes, rises in the province of Moscovy, runs through Poland, re-enters Muscovy, passes Kiof, waters the Ukraine, and, after a southerly course through Tartary, falls into the Euxine Sea at Oczakow.

The other rivers of Russia are the Mologaw, Mosco, Kiomo, Ocka, Samar, Dwina, and several less remarkable.

Some of the lakes in Russia extend above forty leagues in length. The lake Ladoga, on the borders of Finland, is formed by four rivers, the principal of which are the Vöxen, or Corela, the Fair, which flows into it from the lake of Onega, and the Volchova, which falls into it from the south. It has a communication by a channel with the Gulf of Finland. The lake Onega is likewise situated on the borders of Finland, and filled by a considerable number of rivers. This lake is forty leagues in length, and eighteen in breadth. The other considerable lakes are Brela-Ozera, Iwa-Noferocargapol, both which give their names to two different provinces; and Honnet, in the neighbourhood of the Great Novogorod.

The wild beasts in this country are much the same as those already described in Lapland, Norway, Sweden, &c. such as rein-deer, foxes, martins, hares, bears, ermines, fables, and squirrels. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes a prey of every creature it can master, and is said to be produced chiefly in the fir-wood forests. In the southern provinces are bred black cattle, camels, small horses, goats, sheep, &c. Their cows and sheep, as well as their horses, are small: the czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horses for war, and carriages.

The whole empire abounds with poultry, wild fowl, game, birds of prey, &c. most of which have been already described.

The different parts of this vast country are plentifully

fully supplied with various kinds of fish, by means of the Northern Ocean, Baltic, Gulf of Finland, White Sea, Black Sea, Caspian Sea, and innumerable lakes, rivers, rivulets, &c. These produce immense quantities of salmon, trout, pike, sturgeon, and beluga: the latter resembles a sturgeon, and is often called the large sturgeon; it is from 12 to 15 feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the sturgeon and the beluga the Russians make the famous caviare, so much esteemed for its richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads.

In cutting up the beluga's, they often find a sort of stone, which is concealed in that mass of glandular flesh which covers the posterior part of the dorsal spine, supplying the place of a kidney in fish. The instant it is taken from the fish, it is soft and moist, but quickly hardens in the air. Its size is that of a hen's egg, shape sometimes oval and sometimes flattened, and commonly sells for a ruble: it holds a considerable rank, though with little merit, among the domestic remedies of the Russians, who scrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diseases of children, and in other disorders. This stone is supposed by Professor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fish.

The summer's heat hatches innumerable insects in the sand, morasses, forests, &c. and they are indeed very troublesome throughout the whole empire. Some are like those before described in the northern countries of Europe which we have already considered; and others are so imperfect as not to have received a name, or at least not to have been assigned to any particular species.

In Russia, mines and minerals are as plentiful as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in some places, most of which produce the load-stone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich silver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia. Here is also lead ore, which contains a small quantity of silver. The green lead-ore is very rare; but, when found, it is variegated with a yellowish green colour, and is semi-transparent.

The population of this vast empire has been greatly miscalculated by several authors; since nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than those accounts which make the whole of it not to exceed, at most, seven millions. It is not a little surprising that writers should remain so long under this mistake, when we consider the very numerous armies the sovereigns of Russia have brought into the field, and the long and bloody wars they have maintained in Europe and Asia. But the public has been at length undeceived in this matter, by a list, taken in 1747, by Mr. Voltaire, of all the males who paid the capitation or poll-tax, and which amount to 6,646,490. Boys and old men are included in this number; but girls and women are

not reckoned, nor boys born between the making of one register of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads subject to taxation, including women and girls, we shall find near twenty millions of souls. There may be added to this account 350,000 soldiers, and 200,000 nobility and clergy; as also (the same writer observes) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Cossacs, the Kalmucs, and the other Tartars. The Samoiedes, the Laplanders, the Ostiaks, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this list: the new register in 1764 contains 8,500,000 subject to the poll-tax.

A late ingenious writer, resident some time in Russia, has favoured us with the following estimate, which sets the matter in a clear point of view. He there informs us, that

Of the lower class of people paying the capitation tax, the whole number amounts to.....	18,000,000
Conquered provinces	1,200,000
Noble families.....	60,000
Clergy.....	100,000
Military.....	360,000
Civil.....	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Cossacs, &c.....	350,000
	20,100,000

To this calculation, we may reasonably suppose that the acquisitions of the Crimea and part of Cuban Tattary must have added near a million more, so that the subjects of this extensive empire may be estimated at 21,000,000.

When we consider that her Imperial Majesty now possesses many of the countries formerly inhabited by those prodigious swarms of barbarians who overwhelmed the Roman empire, there will be sufficient reason to believe, not only that her dominions must have been formerly better peopled than at present, but that even twenty-four millions are a thin population for the immense tract of country under her government. The like decrease in the inhabitants of some other parts of the globe may probably arise from the same natural causes; and it is highly probable that the vast quantities of strong and spirituous liquors, consumed by the inhabitants of the North, which are universally allowed to be unfriendly to health and generation, together with the introduction of the small-pox and venereal disease among them, must have greatly contributed to the depopulation of those countries.

The inhabitants of Russia are in general well-made, hardy, vigorous, and impatient of labour, especially in the field: the common soldiers, from a principle of superstition, are taught to despise life, and by this

means are brought their ranks, perhaps. The complexion of the English is generally fair, and the addition of red to the face seems to be the snow, which of the year.

The Russians, were the most addicted to drunkenness in Moscow. The boys or nobles in insolence and into the most shocking presented themselves. Moscow exceeded The czar and great Asiatic manner, received of modern stones were furnished by Italians.

When the czar of his subjects of burden destined court. Struck with worms in these regions aside their long robes other Europeans, their beards, befitting learning and the heretofore.

The Russians, had hardly a ship-veniences for travel no public places of contempt for all present a French comfortably and parts of Europe. Their politeness, their polite regulations, prevail. But notwithstanding the prudences of various usages and ex-

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means are brought to stand their ground, and keep their ranks, perhaps equal to any troops in the world. The complexions of the people differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women, who are generally fair, comely, and well-shaped, think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which is before their eyes for a long time of the year.

The Russians, before the days of Peter the Great, were the most part uncivilized, despicable, and much addicted to drunkenness: 4000 brandy-shops have been seen in Moscow. The common people, and also the boyars or nobles, had contracted a constant habit of indolence and intoxication; in consequence of which, the most shocking objects of misery and barbarity presented themselves in the streets, while the court of Moscow exceeded all others in splendour and pomp. The czar and grandees, dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner, exceeded every idea that can be conceived of modern grandeur; nothing but gold and precious stones were to be seen in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. These, and all other luxuries, were furnished by Italians, Germans, and all other foreign-ers.

When the czar Peter ascended the throne, the bulk of his subjects appeared to him little better than beasts of burden destined to support the magnificence of the court. Struck with the impropriety of the ancient customs in these respects, he obliged his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in a plainer mode, like other Europeans, and even ordered the laity to cut off their beards, besides making other improvements in learning and the arts, which we shall take notice of hereafter.

The Russians, before the time above mentioned, had hardly a ship upon their coasts: they had no conveniences for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no public places of diversion, and entertained a sovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind; but at present a French or English gentleman may live as comfortably and agreeably in Russia, as in most other parts of Europe. Since the accession of the present emperors, their polite assemblies have been put under proper regulations, and few of the ancient irregularities prevail. But notwithstanding the severity of Peter, and the prudence of succeeding governments, many barbarous usages and excesses are not yet suppressed.

The nuptial ceremonies of the Russians are peculiar to themselves, and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is examined stark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defect they find in her person. After the priest has tied the nuptial knot, the bride is led home, with abundance of coarse, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are wearing off even

amongst the lowest ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which extended even to scourging or even broiling them to death, is either guarded against by the laws of the country, or by particular stipulations in the marriage contract. But, notwithstanding the rigorous treatment which married women are still subject to; they are said to be in general loose in their behaviour, and far from shy of their favours, and will even bear their husbands company in their drunken debauches, which may in some measure justify these for the brutish jealousy they are commonly addicted to: and so little gallantry, or even decency, is used towards the fair sex in this whole country, that no respect is paid to them, though they are even of quality. The only chance they have in wedlock is, from the kindness of their parents, who take care to bind the husband under some sort of penalty, to use them well and kindly, to feed them with wholesome food, and to forbear all unreasonable correction and ill treatment. But all these precautions often prove ineffectual, so that it is not without reason that they crown the bride, on her wedding day, with a garland of wormwood, to put her in mind of the bitterness that attends the marriage-state, and the bridegroom with one of hops, to intimate to him the fruitfulness of it; which is there paid so much regard to, that he may divorce her, and shut her up, for the very fault of her not bearing him any children.

A very ingenious writer has left upon record a whimsical and entertaining account of the same ceremony. "In 1713 the princess Natalia, only sister to the reigning czar, by the same mother, ordered preparations to be made for a grand wedding, for two of her dwarfs, who were to be married. On this occasion several small coaches were made, and little Shetland horses provided to draw them. All the dwarfs in the kingdom were summoned to celebrate the nuptials, to the number of ninety-three. They went in grand procession through all the streets of Moscow. Before them went a large open waggon, drawn by six horses, with kettle-drums, french-horns, and hautboys. Then followed the marshal and his attendants, two and two, on horseback. Then the bridegroom and bride, in a coach and six, attended by the bride-man and maid, who sat before them in the coach. They were followed by fifteen small coaches, each drawn by six Shetland horses, and each containing four dwarfs.

"It was surprising to see such a number of little creatures in one company together, especially as they were furnished with an equipage conformable to their stature. Two troops of dragoons attended the procession, to keep off the mob, and many persons of fashion were invited to the wedding, who attended in their coaches to the church where the small couple were married. From thence the procession returned in order to the princess's palace, where a grand entertainment was provided for the company. Two long tables were covered on each side of a long hall, where the company

of

of dwarfs dined together. The princess, with her two nieces, were at the trouble themselves to see them all seated, and well attended, before they sat down to their own table. At night the princesses, attended by the nobility, conducted the married couple to bed in grand state; after which ceremony the dwarf company had a large room allotted them to make merry among themselves. The entertainment concluded with a grand ball."

It may not be improper to add, in this place, an account of the courtships and marriages of the natives of Kamtschatka, a part of the Russian dominions, as given by a person who resided among them.—When a Kamtschadale inclines to marry, he looks about for a bride in some of the neighbouring villages, seldom in his own; and when he finds one to his mind, he discovers his inclination to the parents, desiring that he may have the liberty of serving them for some time: this permission he easily obtains, and during his service he shews an uncommon zeal, in order to satisfy them of what he can do. After having thus served, he desires liberty to seize his bride; and if he happens to please the parents, his bride, and her relations, this is presently granted; but if they disapprove of it, they give him some small reward for his services, and he departs. It sometimes happens that these bridegrooms, without discovering any thing of their intentions, engage themselves in service in some strange village; and though every one suspects their design, yet no notice is taken of them till either he or his friends declare it.

When a bridegroom obtains the liberty of seizing his bride, he seeks every opportunity of finding her alone, or in the company of a few people; for during this time all the women in the village are obliged to protect her: besides, she has two or three different coats, and is swaddled round with fish-nets and straps, so that she has little more motion than a statue. If the bridegroom happens to find her alone, or in company with but few, he throws himself upon her, and begins to tear off her cloaths, nets, and straps; for to strip the bride naked, seems to constitute the ceremony of marriage. This is not always an easy task; for though she herself makes small resistance (and indeed she can make but little) yet, if there happen to be many women near, they all fall upon the bridegroom without any mercy, beating him, dragging him by the hair, scratching his face, and using every other method they can think of, to prevent him from accomplishing his design. If the bridegroom is so happy as to obtain his wish, he immediately runs from her; and the bride, as a proof of her being conquered, calls him back with a tender voice: thus the marriage is concluded. This victory is seldom obtained at once; and after every attempt the bridegroom is obliged to take some time to recover his strength, and to cure the wounds he has received. There was an instance of one, who, after having persevered for seven years, instead of obtaining a bride, was rendered quite a cripple, the women having used him so barbarously.

After the above ceremony is over, he has liberty next night to go to her bed, and the day following, without any ceremony, carries her off to his own village. Some time after the bride and bridegroom return to the bride's relations, where the marriage is celebrated in the following manner, of which the relator was an eye-witness in 1739.

The bridegroom, his friends, and his wife, visited his father-in-law in three boats; and the men, being naked, pushed them along with poles. About one hundred paces from the village to which they were going, they landed, began to sing, and used conjurations with tow fastened upon a rod, muttering something over the head of a dried fish, which they wrapped in the tow, and gave to an old woman to hold. The conjuration being over, they put upon the bride a coat of sheep's skin, and tied four images about her: thus loaded, she had difficulty to move. They went again into their boats, and came up to the village, where they landed a second time; at this landing-place a boy of the village met them, and led the bride by the hand, all the women following.

When the bride came to the hut, they tied a strap round her, by which she was let down the stairs, the old woman who carried the head of the fish going before her: she laid down the head of the fish at the foot of the stairs, where it was trodden upon by the bride and bridegroom, and all the people present, and then thrown into the fire.

All the strangers took their places, having first stripped the bride of her superfluous ornaments. The bridegroom heated the beef, and dressed the victuals which they had brought with them, and entertained the inhabitants of the village. The next day the landlord entertained the strangers with great superfluity, who on the third day departed, the bride and bridegroom only remaining to work some time with their father. The superfluous dress which was taken from the bride was distributed among the relations, who were obliged to return them presents of far greater value.

Many fantastic notions are entertained by the Russians, respecting the state of departed souls. When a person dies, the servants, acquaintance, and relations of the deceased, being ranged round the room, take their leave, some by kissing the hand, others the face, speaking to the corpse, asking pardon of it for any crime committed, and all making the most terrible noise imaginable, rather howling than crying. After the dead body is dressed, they hire a priest to pray for the departed soul, to purify it with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water, while it remains above-ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, the company return to the deceased's

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deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow by intoxication; which lasts, among those of higher rank, for forty days, with little intermission. During that time, a priest is appointed to say prayers every day over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, they suppose that their departed friend may be assisted, in his long journey to the place of his destination after this life, by the prayers of the survivors.

Many of the punishments in Russia are terribly severe, and are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. In the reign of Peter I. the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts, were fixed to gibbets by iron hooks, fastened to their ribs, by hundreds, nay thousands at a time, and there left to writhe themselves to death. The single and double knout is likewise used in this empire on the nobility of both sexes; the latter is the most excruciating, and is performed in the following manner: the criminal's hands are bound behind his back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, to which he is again violently let down, with the dislocation of both his shoulders; after which, the executioner scarifies his back with a hard thong made out of a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking him upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes, moderately inflicted.

A particular account of the manner in which this punishment was inflicted upon a Russian lady, is given in Mons. L'Abbé Chappé d'Auteroche's journey into Siberia. Madam Lapouchin was one of the finest women belonging to the court of the empress Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign ambassador, when engaged in a conspiracy. This lady, therefore, being suspected to be concerned in the conspiracy, was condemned, by the empress Elizabeth, to undergo the punishment of the knout. She appeared at the place of execution in a genteel undress, which contributed still to heighten her beauty. The sweetness of her countenance, and her vivacity, were such as might indicate indiscretion, but not even the shadow of guilt, although several persons, of whom inquiry was made, affirmed that she was really guilty. Young, lovely, admired, and sought for at the court, of which she was the life and spirit; instead of the number of admirers her beauty drew after her, she then saw herself surrounded only by executioners. She looked on them with astonishment, seeming to doubt whether such preparations were intended for her. One of the executioners then pulled off a kind of cloak which covered her bosom; her modesty taking the alarm,

made her start back a few steps; she also turned pale, and burst into tears. Her clothes were soon after stripped off, and in a few moments she was quite naked to the waist, exposed to the eager looks of a vast concourse of people profoundly silent. One of the executioners then seized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, so as to raise her a few inches from the ground; the other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs, with his rough hands hardened at the plough, and, without any remorse, adjusted her on the back of his companion, in the properest posture for receiving the punishment. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down; sometimes, like a butcher going to slay a lamb, he seemed to soothe her, as soon as he had fixed her in the most favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip called knout, made of a long strap of leather prepared for this purpose; he then retreated a few steps, measuring the requisite distance with a steady eye; and leaping backwards, gave a stroke with the end of the whip, so as to carry away a slip of skin from the neck to the bottom of the back; then striking his feet against the ground, he took his aim for applying a second blow parallel to the former; so that in a few moments all the skin of her back was cut away in small slips, most of which remained hanging to the shirt. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and she was directly banished into Siberia. Peter III. in 1762, recalled her from banishment.

A late traveller writes, that he saw three women buried alive for drowning their husbands. They had, it seems, crossed the Mosco in a boat, all three together, in search of their husbands, whom they found all drunk in a public-house, and endeavouring to persuade them to go home, were severely beaten by them. However, by the assistance of some other people, they got them at last into the boat, where they fell asleep. The wives, to be revenged on the husbands for beating them, when the boat had reached the middle of the river, threw them in one after another; and, after drowning them, came on shore very unconcerned. The matter immediately came to light. They were seized, tried, condemned, and ordered to be put alive into the ground up to their necks, and there to remain till they died. Two of them lived ten, and the other eleven days. They spoke the first three days, complaining of great pain, but not after that. They certainly must have got some sustenance in the night time, or they could not have existed so long. The eldest was not above twenty years of age.

The traveller last cited, gives the following account of the whimsical manner in which libellers are punished in Russia: "While I resided at Moscow, there was a gentleman who thought fit to publish a quarto volume, in vindication of the liberties of the subject, grossly reflecting upon the unlimited power of the czar, and

ensuring the legislature of that empire. The offender was immediately seized by virtue of a warrant, signed by one of the principal officers of the state. He was tried in a summary way; his book determined to be a libel; and the author condemned to eat his own words. This sentence was literally carried into execution on the following day. A scaffold was erected in the most populous part of the town: the imperial provost was the executioner; and all the magistrates attended at the ceremony. The book was severed from the binding, the margins cut off, and every leaf rolled up, as near as I can recollect, in the form of a lottery ticket, when it is taken out of the wheel at Guild-Hall by the bluecoat-boy. The author of the libel was then served with them separately by the provost, who put them into his mouth, to the no small diversion of the spectators. The offender had received a complete mouthful before he began to chew; but he was obliged, upon pain of the severest bastinado, to swallow as many of the leaves as the czar's serjeant-surgeon and physician thought possible for him to do without immediate hazard of his life. As soon as they were pleased to determine that it would be dangerous to proceed, the remainder of the sentence was suspended for that time, and resumed again the next day, at the same place and hour, and strictly conformable to the same ceremony. I remember it was three days before this execution was over; but I attended it constantly, and was convinced that he had actually swallowed every leaf of the book. Thus I think he may be very justly said to have eaten his own words."

Traitors, after having undergone a variety of tortures, are banished to Siberia; but sometimes not till they have been deprived of their eyes or ears. Coiners are obliged to swallow the melted metal of the coin which they counterfeited. Those who are hanged are obliged to put the noose about their own necks, and to sing themselves off the ladder, when commanded by the executioner.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vithnei, Voloshok, and the mines in Siberia, at which last place there are from 1600 to 2000 convicts, some of whom have been previously deprived of their eyes or ears.

The punishment for robbery is scourging; and every lord or master has a right to inflict the betags on his servant: this punishment consists in stretching the offender naked on the ground, and causing him to be beaten with sticks by two of his fellow-servants, or slaves.

Should a wife, exasperated by cruel treatment, kill her husband, the unhappy victim is immediately fixed alive in the earth up to her neck, where she is left to perish, in a manner shocking to human nature, no person being suffered to afford her any relief.

Though there are no capital punishments in Russia,

except in the case of high-treason, and no person can be convicted of a capital crime but by his own confession; nevertheless, to extort that confession, the most inhuman tortures are used, as the prisoner is obliged to undergo the scourge, the strappado, and the knout; and as many felons die under the knout, and others of fatigue in their journies to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines, there is herefore reason to believe there is much less humanity exercised in Russia, respecting punishments for capital offences than is commonly supposed, and that no fewer criminals suffer death here than in those countries where the laws seem more severe.

The method of travelling, of late introduced into Russia, is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. The facility with which the Russians perform the largest and most uncomfortable journies, must appear equally surprising either to a reader or a stranger. Like the Danes and Norwegians, they travel in sledges, made of the bark of the Linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the interior parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way, towards February, becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of couch upon the sledges, in which they may lie at full length, and sleep and travel night and day, wrapt up in warm furs; thus they perform a journey of 400 miles, such as that between Petersburg and Moscow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majesty, in her journies, is drawn in a house, containing a bed, table, and chairs, with other conveniencies for four persons, and the whole drawn by twenty-four post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge in the winter time.

Inland navigation has for some time past been promoted in Russia: Peter the Great well knew the use of it, and employed a prodigious number of men in works of that kind. The canal extending from Moscow to Petersburg, is one of the most stupendous works of that great prince. It begins at Niewa, and is continued from lake to lake, and from river to river, for near 100 leagues. What is properly considered as the artificial canal, begins at the city of Novogorod, and is carried on with incredible labour and expence through the territories of Bragnitz, Chrillitz, Chilolova, Wittschora, Voloscha, Fortschok, the province of Twere, and the district of Kilia. Another prodigious work of this kind is at the city of Veronis, in the province of Rezan, where the river of the same name is made navigable for ships of eighty guns, from that city to the Don. A navigable canal is also cut between the Wolga and the Don, in order to convey provisions and materials to Azoph. The distance of this communication is about 140 Russian miles, by way of two small rivers, one called the Lassa, which falls into the Don; and the other the Camilinka, which falls into the Wolga.

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These two rivers are made navigable by means of locks and sluices, and a canal of near four Russian miles is cut through the neck of land between these two small streams. Peter employed two artists at different times to perform this work; but they having failed in the execution, it has been since completed by another.

The religion established in Russia is that of the Greek church mingled with several superstitious rites of their own. They deny the pope's supremacy, and will not worship images; but their churches abound in pictures of saints, whom they look upon as mediators between them and God. They observe a number of fasts and lents, living half the year very abstemiously — an institution extremely convenient for their soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacrament of the Trinity. They administer baptism by plunging the child three times into the water, and give it the sacrament of the Lord's supper in one species, from the time of its birth till it attains the age of seven years, after which it receives it in both kinds. If a person on his death-bed does not receive the eucharist and extreme unction, the body is denied Christian burial; and when a body is deposited in its coffin, they always place with it a luncheon of bread, a pair of shoes, a few pieces of money, together with a certificate, signed by the parish priest, directed to St. Nicholas, who is one of their great patrons. Their priests, who depend for subsistence upon the benevolence of their flocks, are distinguished by the name of papa, or father, and each priest is allowed to marry one woman; but if she dies, he must pass the remainder of his life in celibacy. The bishops are not allowed to marry at all.

Before the reign of Peter the Great, every person in Russia, convicted of being a heretic, was burnt; but now all sects are tolerated throughout the country.

This prince declared himself head of the church; and preserved the subordinations of metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops: after establishing this great reformation, he left his clergy in full possession of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic act was reserved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe.

The conquered provinces retain the use of their own religion; and, so great is the extent of this empire, many of its subjects are Mahometans: but in Siberia and the uncultivated provinces they are chiefly Pagans.

The language chiefly spoken in Russia, is a mixture of the Polish and Slavonian; but the clergy make use of modern Greek. The Russian alphabet bears a great affinity to the Greek, and consists of thirty-six letters.

With respect to learning and learned men, it is but very lately that the Russians have emerged from the grossest ignorance; for so far was learning from being known among them, that the nobility themselves were entirely illiterate, and it was with difficulty some of the clergy read the prayers. The efforts to civilize

them, began by a small glimmering, like the first day-break, under czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conspicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz. But in all probability this darkness would have continued much longer, for they had neither university nor school for the instruction of youth, if that great genius Peter I. had not appeared amongst them, and, by his indefatigable endeavours, in some degree dispelled those clouds of ignorance and error in which they were still involved. For this purpose he invited foreigners into his dominions, encouraged the liberal arts and sciences, obliged the nobility to send their sons to more civilized countries for their improvement, and instituted academies and seminaries in Moscow and Petersburg. The effect of these excellent measures are now visible to the whole world, by the daily progress the Russians make in literature; the papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings, particularly those relative to astronomy, the mathematics, and natural philosophy, have been received with applause by the literati of Europe; and, at the late opening of the commission for a new code of laws, the speeches pronounced by the bishop of Turess, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice chancellor, and the marshal, are nervous, elegant, and classical: so that in all probability the arts and sciences will make as great a figure in Russia as in any other part of Europe.

An university has, within these few years, been founded in Moscow by M. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empress Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great. In the same city are three colleges founded by Peter: the first for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. There are also two academies in Petersburg, one on the plan of the Royal Society, and the other for instructing youth in navigation, astronomy, &c.

The government of Russia is entirely despotic; and here, as in all other arbitrary monarchies, the laws, as well as the lives and properties of the subjects, depend wholly on the will of the sovereign. These, if males, were called czars; if females, czarinas; but at present the imperial title is assumed. The people are no less slaves than formerly, but much of the power of the nobility is swallowed up in the great importance and authority of the crown. The sovereign appoints vaivods, or governors of provinces, and bestows all offices of consequence, whether ecclesiastical, civil, or military. The czar Peter introduced the titles of count and prince of the empire, and instituted an order of knighthood in honour of St. Andrew, the patron of Russia, distinguished by a blue ribbon and a star.

Here state prisoners are, in general, privately seized, partially adjudged, and secretly dispatched, or sent into banishment to Siberia, of which the following is a singular incident, as related by a character of eminence,

nence, who resided many years in Russia. "I was not long in Riga (says that person) when I received the following intelligence from good authority. One Dr. Fonderholt, a German, was, a few years before my arrival, physician to the army. He was said to be a man of learning, but of no great foresight. Happening to receive an affront from one of the great men of the court, who was in favour with the empress, the doctor retorted severely, and rendered him very ridiculous. The courtier had the address to get the doctor sent to Siberia in the following manner: One day, as the doctor was attending the field-marshal, who was sick, a captain of the guards arrived with express from St. Petersburg, and demanded immediate audience. He was introduced, and whispered something in the field-marshal's ear, who desired the doctor to amuse himself in the great hall till he had finished some business with the officer. When that was done, the doctor was again called upon; and when he had given the field-marshal his advice about some disorder which he at that time laboured under, and was going to retire, the count desired him to come to dinner, as he might need his further assistance; and, at the same time, advised the captain of the guards to dine, telling him he was not able to sit at the table himself, but the vice-governor, prince Dolgoruki, who was present, would bear him company. This was agreed to. At dinner the captain told the vice-governor, that a relation of his, in his way to the army, was suddenly taken ill, and obliged to remain in a house distant three or four versts from the city; and that therefore he desired him to appoint an able physician to attend him, for which he would be amply rewarded. The deputy-governor pointed to Dr. Fonderholt, as physician to the army, and one of the ablest professors in Riga; and, at the same time, politely desired him to visit the officer. The doctor agreed, and was giving directions to his servants to get his coach ready, when the prince told him that was needless, as his coach was large enough to carry them all to such an inconsiderable distance. After dinner, when they had arrived at the house where they pretended the patient was, and had taken a few glasses of wine, the doctor desired to see him, but was answered, that he was a state prisoner by order of the cabinet; and therefore they advised him to make no resistance, but get into a travelling waggon ready at the door; telling him, at the same time, that if he offered the least resistance, he would be bound fast with ropes, and might be very cruelly treated, on the way, by the soldiers who were appointed to convey him to his place of destination. Thus this man was conveyed to Siberia, and there long immured, or kept in a hole in the wall, with only a small slit through which he received his provisions. It seems he had some money about him when he was arrested; but the captain took nothing from him except his sword. The soldiers, on the way, robbed him of his watch; but he concealed from them what little mo-

ney he had. Foreseeing that his money could not maintain him long, and persuaded that he could not long subsist upon the poor provisions allowed to such prisoners, he affected to be a fortune-teller; and apprised the soldiers, who kept guard upon him, of his design, offering them the half of what he got by his art. The soldiers, being acquainted with many of the superstitious inhabitants, told the doctor every thing concerning them before they came to him, which he repeated to them, whereby his fame, as a wife man, spread far, and he acquired the means of support. Having neither books or company to amuse him in this miserable situation, he got a few hens, and diverted himself with feeding them. He gave their eggs a black colour; and wrote upon them with a pin, *Dem ungelucklick Doctor Fonderholt's*. *Ungelucklick* signifies *unfortunate*. These eggs he sold to the inhabitants as charms. They knew not the meaning of the writings, but thought it rendered the eggs more valuable. After he had been many months thus confined, it happened that the governor's lady put up in this village, in her way from Russia to Siberia, and wanted eggs, among other things, for dinner. The hostess told her that there was, in the place, a prisoner, a very wife man, who sold extraordinary eggs. She desired to see them; and, as she understood the German language, was surprised to see written upon them the name of the very physician who, a few years before, had recovered her from a very dangerous fever. She went to the hole, spoke to the doctor; then applied to her husband, and caused his situation to be made much easier; and, as she was a great favourite with the empress, wrote to her majesty, and represented his undeserved misfortune so pathetically, that the governor received orders to liberate him, and send him, at her expence, to Moscow."

A gentleman who travelled over the greatest part of this empire, has given us the following new and concise description of the Russians, and the arbitrary government under which they live:

"The valour and prowess, which the Russians have discovered in the late war with the Turks, have rendered them the object of universal attention. It will therefore be no disagreeable amusement for the public to see their civil and military character briefly displayed.

"In Turkey the sultan puts out the eyes of his relations, because he cannot bear any brother near the throne. In Russia the sovereign is supposed to have no relations. No person is allowed to keep any coin stamped with the image of a deposed prince; nor must any one pass the palace without pulling off his hat, or letting down the glasses, if he is in a carriage. If you write the sovereign's name in small characters in a letter, you are liable to severe punishment. In a room upwards of thirty feet square, in which there were but three Frenchmen, one of them asked whether the prince Iwan was, or was not, still alive. The

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 posed prince; nor
 hout pulling off his
 he is in a carriage.
 e in small characters
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 ure, in which there
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answer was, that in Russia nobody talked of that
 prince. When the empress Elizabeth was at the eve
 of death, none durst make the least inquiry con-
 cerning her health: and, when her death was univer-
 sally known, all thought it dangerous to make it the
 subject of conversation. Every Russian has a right to
 cry in public *flow drelov*, or, I declare you are guilty
 of treason in words and actions; and then every by-
 stander is obliged to assist in apprehending the ac-
 cused.

"The father arrests the son, and the son the father,
 and nature suffers in silence. Both parties are first
 conveyed to prison, and then to Petersburg, where they
 are tried by the court of Chancery; a tribunal much
 more odious and oppressive than our ancient court of
 star-chamber, or high commission; for if the accuser
 submits to the punishment of the knout without flinch-
 ing, the culprit is condemned, though no proof of
 guilt can be produced. Hence universal distrust pre-
 vails throughout the empire, and no such thing as
 society can be said to exist. This jurisdiction is al-
 lowed to subsist for the sake of cutting off with the
 greater ease any person that happens to be the object
 of court jealousy. For this purpose the false accuser
 is never punished with death, and the knout is seldom
 exercised upon him with severity. The nobility, having
 bowed to this dreadful slavery, do not fail to retaliate
 upon the people, who are absolute slaves to them, to
 the sovereign, and to the governors of the provinces.
 The slaves of the sovereign pay tribute only to the
 crown; the slaves of the nobles pay tribute to the
 crown and their lords, who sell them as cattle are
 sold in other parts of the world. They are not, in-
 deed, allowed the power of life and death; but as they
 may punish them with the battogen, the difference is
 not considerable. Slaves, that is, the body of the
 people, have no property, as in Poland:

"Hence the difference between the two nations;
 the latter being ignorant, but industrious and honest;
 and the former ignorant, brutal, lazy, and knavish.
 The vulgar make haste by drinking to place all their
 acquisitions beyond the reach of their masters. Big-
 gotted even to fanaticism in favour of the Greek faith,
 they make religion consist in ceremony, and are, in
 fact, less moral than their neighbours, the Pagans.
 A murderer being asked in the course of his trial,
 whether he had kept the lent-falls, appeared as much
 surprised as the most upright man, if his honesty had
 been called in question, and declared with warmth,
 that he was incapable of neglecting the duties of re-
 ligion. Yet this religionist, who had been at the head
 of the band of robbers, made no scruple of undressing
 travellers, without any regard to sex, and tying them
 up naked to trees, of opening their breasts near the
 heart, of drinking their blood, and sealing his eyes
 with the dreadful contortions and convulsions of his
 unfortunate victims. If this fact be thought incre-
 dible, what will become of the story of Procrustes,

and the American cannibals? Except at Petersburg
 and Moscow, married women are seldom to be seen;
 and jealousy is as prevalent among them as among
 the Mahometans. Instead of a ring, they are married
 with a whip and a bundle of rods. Hence another
 obstacle to social commerce.

"Unmarried women are but little watched; so
 that their jealousy begins too late; and the fair sex
 cannot properly be said to possess any virtue. A ma-
 gician, and three or four ancient matrons, wait at
 every wedding, in order to determine, after consum-
 mation, whether the bride has the true signs of vir-
 ginity. When they are satisfied, the men sit down,
 get drunk, and throughout the whole entertainment
 occasion ten times more embarrassment and confusion,
 by drinking one another's health, than we see in some
 families in London when the first glass, after the re-
 moval of the cloth, goes round. The Russians, be-
 ing slaves, are far from being naturally warlike and
 courageous; but, as they are strong, hardy, and inured
 to every indifferent food, they have, according to the
 constitution of modern armies, all the stamina of sol-
 diers. Besides, the troops of other countries are made
 up of the very dregs of the people: here, the re-
 cruiting parties have a *congé d'élire*, or a right to
 pitch upon whom they please; so that the Russian
 forces may with propriety be, after the example of
 the Romans, called legions. A foreigner travelling
 through Russia found a father chained to a post in the
 middle of his family. By his cries, and the little re-
 gard paid to him by his children, he took him to be
 mad: but this by no means was the case. One of
 the recruiting parties, who here enter the villages to
 pitch upon soldiers, as butchers in other countries go
 into the folds to mark the sheep, had selected this
 man's son for the service. The son had made his
 escape without the father's knowledge; and the father
 was made a prisoner in his own house, his children
 being appointed his jailors. He was in daily expecta-
 tion of receiving his sentence. How dreadful is the
 situation of human nature under this detestable des-
 potism! It extinguishes every tender affection, every
 principle of humanity. In any country, where the
 least degree of freedom prevails, men would sooner die
 than be guilty of such an unnatural action as the chil-
 dren of this Russian."

The executive part of the government of Russia is
 vested in the sovereign council of chancery, which is
 chiefly composed of the third class of the nobility, and
 divided into six departments, in which are separately
 considered, foreign affairs, war, finances, public ac-
 counts, civil processes brought by appeal, and criminal
 causes brought by appeal.

The determination of the two last mentioned, for-
 merly depended upon the equity of the judge. In
 1647 a code, or body of laws, was ordered to be
 compiled by the wisest men in the empire, which was
 accordingly done, in one volume in folio, entitled, Sa-

brona Ulofenia, that is to say, Universal and General Right; and by this the judges were to regulate their sentences. There is this great and singular advantage in the courts of judicature of this country, that they are neither expensive or tedious; for a law-suit is begun and determined in the space of six or seven weeks; nevertheless they are extremely venal.

All the peasants and husbandmen are slaves, either directly to the sovereign, to the boyars or lords, to monasteries, or to some of the gentry; and the greater number any of them hath, the richer he is esteemed. These are employed by them in whatever work or business they think fit; and this is one reason why they affect to appear more dull and untractable than they, perhaps, naturally are; because, if any of them betrays a greater vivacity or dexterity than the rest, he is sure to have more business and trouble upon his hands, without any proportionable reward or encouragement. It is usual for the sovereigns to reward some of the services done to them by any nobles or officers, with a number of those villains; and as there is an account of their number in all provinces, in forty days two or three hundred thousand of them may be raised, by summoning each master to furnish such a quota.

At present, the system of civil laws established in Russia is very imperfect, and, in many respects, barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from those of most states in Europe, ill-digested, and, in many instances, not at all adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. But the present empress has, indeed, made a noble attempt to give her subjects a new code of laws. In order to this, she assembled the states of the kingdom in the year 1768, and presented them with instructions for their proceedings, according to her ideas of distributive justice. These instructions do the highest honour to her great capacity, and place both her political and personal virtues in the fairest point of light. The code has since been drawn up, but was not then published. Very pleasing ideas, have, however, been formed with regard to the rectitude of its precepts; and it has accordingly been for some time expected with impatience.

The constitution of Russia differs little from that of other arbitrary empires. There is, indeed, a senate, composed of the most respectable persons in the kingdom; and the czarina treats the institution with the highest regard and deference, submits the greatest concerns of her empire to their deliberations, but at the same time this parliament can be considered in no other light than the privy-council. They never presume to canvass any of the measures of government, or even to give their sovereign advice, unless it be commanded.

The ancient nobility of Russia consisted of three degrees, knezes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns in their own estates, till their exorbitant power was reduced by the czars. The boyars were the second degree of nobility; and the vaivods

were the governors of provinces. Peter the Great suffered these distinctions to continue; but the late empresses, perceiving that these titles too often revived the ideas of their ancient and destructive power, thought it prudent to introduce the titles of counts and princes, in conformity to the custom of other European nations.

The Russian coin at present consists of gold ducats, rubles, half rubles, quarter rubles, griveners, or 10 copecks, copecks of silver, five copecks, two copecks, half and quarter ditto. The ducat is worth two rubles; and the ruble is, in value, about 4s. 6d. sterling. The half and quarter rubles are expressive of their own value. A grivener is the tenth part of a ruble, and a copeck is an hundredth part of the same.

The pound weight in Russia is exactly the same as our pound apothecaries weight: 40 pounds make a pood; 40 poods a berkowitz; 63 poods a tort.

The liquid measures are as follows: 8 cruiskas make 1 vedro, 2 half vedro 1 stackan; 2 stackans make 6 anchors 1 hog, which is exactly the same as an English hoghead.

The principal measure of extension is the verst, which is 3500 feet, and 104 versts make a degree; and the Russians reckon distances by versts, as the English do by miles.

It is impossible to ascertain the revenue of a kingdom where the monarch has the disposal of the fortunes of all his subjects, which is the case in Russia. It has, however, been computed at about three millions sterling annually, but then it must be observed, that the intrinsic value of money is at least three times greater in the empire than in England. If we add to the above calculation the vast exertions for promoting industry, made by the successors of Peter the Great, especially her present Imperial Majesty, the revenue must have considerably increased, and can scarcely be reckoned at less than 30,000,000 of rubles, or near six millions sterling annually. The sovereign monopolizes all the best furs, the mines, minerals, and trade by land to the East-Indies: as, the tobacco, brandy, wine, mead, beer, and other liquors, together with the taverns, inns, public houses, baths, and sweating-houses, are farmed out by him; besides which, the customs upon merchandize, the imposts upon corn, and the toll exacted from cities, towns, and villages, are very considerable. He possesses demesnes to a very great value; inherits the effects of all those who die intestate, or under accusation of capital crimes, and claims a duty from all law-suits. In short, according to the increase of commerce, or the will of the czar, the revenues of Russia are more or less considerable. Peter the Great even seized the church lands, but they were afterwards restored.

We apprehend that the following is the nearest computation that can be given of the different levies which constitute the revenue of Russia; viz. capitation tax, 8,500,000 rubles; other taxes and duties, 7,000,000;

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the empress's own estates, with other dominions taken from the clergy by Peter the Great, 6,000,000; produce of the mines, 1,500,000; monopoly of distilled liquors, 4,000,000; monopoly of salt, 1,800,000; amounting, in the whole, to 28,800 millions of rubles. The deficiency of the sum total here set down, with respect to that above mentioned, may be easily supplied by the profit arising from stamp-paper, patents, postage, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, besides one per cent. exacted on the yearly capital of every Russian merchant. The pecuniary revenues of the crown arise from taxes upon estates, baggins, bees, mills, fisheries, and other particulars; some monies also arise from monopolies, which are often necessary in the infancy of commerce; and some from the clergy, who are taxed in Russia.

The revenue of this empire, as here estimated, may be reckoned very great, when we consider the vast armies maintained and paid by the late and present emperors in Germany, Poland, and elsewhere, when no part of the money returned to Russia; nor does it appear that they received any considerable supply from France or Austria, who indeed were in no condition to grant them any.

We are told by Mr. Voltaire, that in 1735, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the sum total amounted to 13,000,000 of rubles, each ruble amounting to about 4s. 6d. sterling. This income was at that time sufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and sea-service. The other expences are very considerable, besides the payment of the army and navy of her present majesty, the number and discipline of which are at least equal to those of her greatest predecessors. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants splendid; and, exclusive of her ordinary expences of state, the encouragement she gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and useful discoveries, cost her vast sums. It is, however, a favourable circumstance, that the Russian armies are raised at little or no expence; and, while in their own country, subsist chiefly on provisions furnished them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. The pay of a soldier scarcely amounts to thirty shillings yearly; in garrison he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a sailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and, when ashore, they are bound with provisions by the inhabitants of the place where they reside.

The chief cities and towns in Russia are the following:

The czar, Peter the Great, being desirous of opening a communication between Archangel and the Baltic, by means of the gulf of Finland, in order to improve the commerce of his dominions, determined to make himself master of Ingria, which he accordingly did in the beginning of this century. To render it an European maritime power, he determined on one of

the most stupendous undertakings that ever was entered upon by human resolution, the building the city of PETERSBURG, which he designed to make not only the capital of Ingria, but of the whole Russian empire, the centre of trade, and the principal seat of the imperial residence. It is situated between Ingria and Finland, in a fenny island, surrounded by the river Nieva, in 60 deg. north lat. and 31 deg. 34 min. east long.

A late traveller, who calls this city a creation of the present century, says further of it, "I am struck with a pleasing astonishment while I wander among havens, streets, and public buildings, which have risen, as by enchantment, within the memory of men still alive; and have converted the marshy islands of the Nieva into one of the most magnificent cities on the earth. The imagination, aided by so many visible objects, rises to the wondrous fonder, and beholds, in idea, the titulary genius of Peter yet hovering over the child of his own production, and viewing, with a parent's fondness, its rising palaces and temples. The names on which ancient story dwells with so much fondness, sink on a comparison with this immortal man; and the fabulous legislators of Greece and Egypt never presumed to attempt the mighty transformation which the czar completed. The followers of Cadmus, of Theseus, and of Romulus, were animated with the same ardor as their leader; but the Muscovites (Russians) wrapt in the most profound barbarism, secluded by their illiberal prejudices from an intercourse with European nations, and equally the slaves of superstition and long prescription, were forcibly torn from this night of ignorance, and compelled to accept of refinement and civilization.

The island on which this fine city has been so wonderfully raised, was nothing but a heap of mud in the short summer of these climates, and a frozen pool in winter, not to be approached by land but by passing over wild forests and deep morasses, and had been till then the habitation of bears and wolves, when it was, in 1703, inhabited by above 300,000 Russian, Tartar, Cossack, &c. peasants, whom the czar called together from all corners of his vast empire, some near 1200 miles; and these made a beginning of this work. He was obliged to break through forests, open ways, dry up moors, and raise banks, before he could lay the foundation. The whole was a force upon nature. At first the workmen had neither sufficient provisions, or even pickaxes, spades, wheelbarrows, planks, or huts to shelter in; yet the work went on so expeditiously, that, in five months, the fortress was raised; though earth thereabouts was so scarce, that the greatest part of the labourers carried it in the skirts of their clothes, or in bags made of old rags and mats, barrows being then unknown to them. It is computed full 100,000 perished at the place; for the country had been desolated by war, and supplies by Ladoga lake were often retarded by contrary winds. The czar himself drew

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the main plan. While the fortress was going on, the city began gradually to be built. He obliged many of the nobility, merchants, and tradesmen, to go and live there, and trade in such commodities as they were ordered. Provisions being scarce, and conveniences wanting, the place, at first, was not at all agreeable to persons of distinction; who had in Moscow large buildings, and seats in the country, with fish-ponds, gardens, and other rural elegancies: however, he little regarded the complaints of those who only considered their own ease. The boyars (nobility) brought great retinues with them; and merchants and shopkeepers soon found their account in settling here. Many Swedes, Finlanders, and Livonians, from towns nearly depopulated by the wars, continued here. Artificers, mechanics, and seamen, were invited hither, to encourage shipping; who, having worked out the time agreed on for the czar, were hired by the boyars; and also built for themselves, and settled; each man being allowed to pitch on the spot he liked. In one year 30,000 houses were erected, and, in two or three more, double the number, which doubtless are very much increased since. Some, indeed, but chiefly in the *slabodas*, or suburbs, are mean, and may be taken to pieces in two or three hours, and set up elsewhere. To build this town, that of *Nienchans* (a strong fort on the *Nieva*, not far from *Noteburg*) was demolished for the materials, and the inhabitants removed hither. As he intended to remove the trade of *Archangel* to *Petersburg*, in 1713 he made 1000 families come from *Moscow*, and offered great advantages to all foreigners that should settle there; and ordered that all goods usually sent to *Archangel*, to be sold, &c. to strangers, should be sent hither, and the duties to be in every respect the same. But the commerce, &c. were not entirely removed till some years after. In 1714 it was ordered that all houses should be built of brick, and tiled.

The citadel is a long and irregular hexagon, with six bastions parallel to each other, except the two middlemost, one of which, opposite to *Carelia*, has two orillons or blinds; that over-against the river none; each of the four others one. They were all, at first, but earth and turf; but, in 1710, the czar resolved to have them all lined with strong walls. Those on *Carelia* side were finished in his life-time; and the work has been carried on and completed by his successors. The wall is thirty feet high to the parapet, and the faces are all lined with large iron and brass guns. On the flanks, which are pretty short, are two rows of *cazemattes*, one above the other, arched over, and covered with beams and turf, bomb-proof. The curtain on the right of this citadel's gates has one of the finest royal dispensaries in Europe, both for the great quantity of drugs and medicines, and the large number of beautiful porcelain vessels from *China* and *Japan*, which it contains. This citadel has two gates; one adorned with statues, particularly *St. Peter* with his

two emblematic keys, and on its inside the black eagles of *Russia*, with the globe and the sceptre in its talons; and below is the figure of the *Russian* *Saint* *Nicholas*. Before that gate is a ravelin, from whence is a bridge, with two draw-bridges over an arm of the river. In this place galleys and small vessels are sheltered from bad weather.

The academy established by *Peter* the Great has a multiplicity of professors in most sciences, and the belles lettres, who have liberal salaries. The building is a superb pile, containing two stories, with a beautiful cupola in the middle, and an observatory. Here is a good library, and all manner of natural and artificial curiosities. "In one of the galleries (says a curious observer) in a case, is the skin of a Frenchman tanned and stuffed. This has been the tallest man ever saw. In another case is his skeleton, and a pair of breeches made of his wife's skin, also dressed. The leather was like buff. On the bottom, or pavement stands the skin of an English chestnut horse, saddled, and bridled, and beside it the skeleton of the Great used to ride this horse. Here I saw the head of the unfortunate *Miss Hamilton*, a Swedish lady, who lost it for having murdered her child unlawfully begotten; and this is the only murder of that kind I ever heard of in *Russia*. This lady was maid of honour to the empress *Catherine*. It is said *Peter* went and saw her executed. He wept much, but could not prevail upon himself to pardon her. He caused her head to be capped and injected. The forehead is almost compressed. The face is the beautifullest my eyes ever beheld. The *dura mater*, and brain, are all preserved in their natural situation. This is kept in spirits in a large crystal vessel."

Besides the above here are deposited great quantities of earths, fossils, stones, ores, natural metals, minerals, shells, mosses, corals, &c. In one room is a figure of *Peter* the Great in wax-work, as large as the life. He sits in an elbow chair cross-legged, dressed in a blue suit of clothes, white stockings, and has a hanger by his side. He has short black hair, his head covered; and the figure is surrounded by mathematical, philosophical, and mechanical instruments.

Peter the Great also formed regulations for the management of this seminary. These referred to the professors, the students, the respective sciences, the succession to offices, and other particulars conducive to the interest of the institution in general.

Petersburg is amazingly increased in size within the sixty years. At the death of *Peter* the Great, it did not contain 80,000 inhabitants; and now the *Russians* assert that there are 500,000; but this is deemed an exaggeration. It covers a very great extent of land and water. The streets are some of them very broad and long, and with canals in the middle of them; and others are planted in the Dutch fashion. The bridges are immensely large. The palaces of the nobility exceed in size those of most cities. That of the em-

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great than beautiful. The size is all that strikes; and
the buildings are stuck so thick with ornaments, that
there is hardly any such thing as judging of their pro-
portions. The Italian architecture is mixed with the
Dutch, and the whole forms very inelegant piles, in
which true taste is totally sacrificed to a profusion of
ornament. But if the eye does not scrutinize into the
separate parts of the buildings, but takes only the
streets at large, the city may be fairly pronounced a
very fine one.

Among the public buildings there are many ex-
tremely worthy the attention of a traveller, particularly
the dock yards, the naval magazines, the arsenal, found-
ery, admiralty, &c. without insisting on the imperial
palace, the cathedral, or many churches. In the docks
they continually employ a great number of carpenters.
They build here all sorts of vessels, from ships of 120
guns down to boats; and the number on the stocks at
a time is considerable. After the death of Peter the
Great the marine was neglected, inasmuch that the
empress's naval strength was not computed to be a
fifth part of what that great monarch possessed; and
this was owing to a want of trade, which can alone
make seamen; unless when in the hands of such a man
as Peter, who created every thing. But the present
empress, who has thrown the spirit of that great
monarch into all the departments of the state, has
received it wonderfully; so that, at present, the Russians
have a formidable navy.

There is scarcely any thing at Petersburg more de-
serving notice than the foundery. The iron is brought
from Kexholm by water; and the number of cannon
and mortars that are cast here is very great; also cannon
balls, and all sorts of military implements in which iron
is used; which are made here at as small an expence as
in Sweden, or any other part of the world. The
arsenal is always well stored with them; and there are
small quantities made on a private account for ex-
portation, forming a very considerable branch of com-
merce.

The grand market-place is on the southernmost part
of the city, with many warehouses, to deposit all kinds
of commodities and merchandize, both domestic and
foreign, for sale. It is a large square, with four en-
trances, and a range of shops on each side, both within
and without, with covered galleries, to secure those
who frequent it from the rain.

Woolen and linen manufactories were set up here,
of which the latter is brought to great perfection, as we
may observe by the linen of late imported from thence.
Here is particularly a workhouse, where an old Dutch
woman has eighty young nymphs under her care, who
are taught, with a whip, how to handle the spinning-
wheel; and several regulations are made for improving
the plantations of hemp and flax. Paper-mills and
powder-mills have also been erected, with laborato-
ries for gunnery and fire-works; and other places for

preparing salt-petre and brimstone. Rope-yards, like
those in England and Holland, for making of cables
and tackling for the navy, are also set up here. A
printing-house is established, and news-papers are
now as regularly printed as in other countries of Eu-
rope. Several useful books have been translated out
of the High Dutch, and printed; the government en-
couraging their subjects to inquire into the state of the
world abroad, instead of keeping them in ignorance,
according to their ancient maxims. As to their silk
and woollen manufactures, they have not been able
hitherto to bring them to any degree of perfection.

At a little distance from Petersburg is a noble seminary
for educating females only, founded by the late empress
Elizabeth. The building is capacious and grand.
Children of distinction are kept separate from those of
an inferior rank; and the whole contains between 700
and 800 females.

Near the Niwa is a small palace, built by the
present Empress, and called *The Hermitage*. When
her majesty resides in this building, she is in retreat,
and there is no drawing-room or court. These apart-
ments are very elegant, and furnished with great
taste. There are two galleries or paintings, which have
been lately purchased, at an immense expence, in Italy.
The crown, in the palace itself, is perhaps the richest
in Europe. It is shaped like a bonnet, and totally
covered with diamonds. In the sceptre is the celebrated
one purchased by prince Orloff for 300,000 rubles,
(112,500*l.*) and presented by him to his sovereign
mistress. It far exceeds Pitt's diamond in size, and is
not inferior in water. Lapidaries declare it the most
beautiful and rare ever brought from Golconda. One
of the noblest monuments of the gratitude and veneration
universally paid to Peter I. is that which the em-
press Catherine II. has ordered to be erected: it is an
equestrian statue; in which protection the artist has
united the greatest simplicity with truest sublimity
of conception. No other statuary, whether ancient or
modern, gave him the design, which is singular in its
kind, and admirably adapted to express the character
of the man, and of the people over whom he reigned.
Instead of a pedestal adorned with inscriptions, or sur-
rounded by slaves, he appears mounted on a rock, or
stone of a prodigious size, upon the ascent of which the
horse labours, and appears to have nearly reached its
summit. This attitude has given him room to exert
great anatomical beauty and skill in the muscles of the
horse's hind parts and hauns, on which the whole of
his body is necessarily sustained. The czar's figure is
full of fire and spirit. He sits on a bear-skin, and is clad
in a simple habit, not characteristic of any particular
country, but such as may be worn without violation of
propriety by an inhabitant of any country.

About twenty miles west from Petersburg is the beau-
tiful palace of Peterhoff, situated on an eminence, in a
large garden, commanding a fine view, and surrounded
by many out-houses, offices, &c. for servants and

attendants. It faces the south; and, in the front, there is a beautiful canal of clear transparent water, from which three jets d'eau are supplied, and constantly play. When the empress is here, the guards are encamped in a part of the garden, where their tents make a very agreeable appearance. In speaking of one of these jets d'eau, a curious traveller says, "Out of the water, much to my agreeable surprize, arose a dog and three ducks, made of copper, or iron, and, in appearance, all alive. The ducks flutter through the water quacking, the dogs follow after them barking. There is, in a subterraneous place, a charming chime of crystal balls, which play by water. The grotto, which is covered before by a cascade, has two entries, one on each side. The entries are guarded by statues, which, when you are in, prevent any one from getting out, till the keeper, by turning a handle, puts a stop to them. These flames evacuate so much water, by vomiting and shooting out of stone pistols and guns, that the keeper said it would overwhelm any man. Besides the curiosities before mentioned, there is a beautiful gallery full of the finest china in the world; in one end of which is a small but commodious room, with a bed in it, whither the Empress sometimes retires to repose herself.

The apartments here are all splendid and nobly furnished; and among the paintings there are five matchless portraits of the sovereigns of Russia, viz. 1. Peter the Great. 2. The Livonian villager, whose virtues raised her from a cottage to an imperial diadem, and to share the bed of Peter the Great. 3. The empress Ann. 4. The empress Elizabeth. 5. The reigning sovereign Catherine II.

Such was the foundation, and such is the present state, of the city of Petersburg, as appears from the most authentic and modern accounts we could possibly select. The only material circumstance relative to it, which remains to be mentioned, is the dreadful inundation and hurricane which happened in 1777, and were productive of the most fatal effects.

The adjacent country is covered with country houses and gardens; but the soil is so extremely barren, that the town is obliged to be supplied with provisions from a great distance, and of consequence they are very dear. There are great quantities of woods, consisting of pine, fir, alder, poplar, birch, and elm; but the oak and beech are generally brought from Casan. The weather in winter is exceeding cold, and excessive hot in summer. In June the length of the night does not exceed three hours, during which the natives enjoy a continued twilight; but in December the sun is not visible more than three hours above the horizon.

Moscow, the capital, once the metropolis of, and the greatest city in, the whole Russian empire, lies in lat. 55. 42. long. 38. 45. east, and is seated in a fine spacious plain, on the river of its name, over which it hath a stately bridge of twelve arches, of a pro-

digious height and breadth, because that river often overflows. It was built by prince Gassichin, from the design of a Polish monk. The town stands in a gravelly soil, and wholesome air, and almost in the centre of the best provinces of Moscow. The population of this city cannot be ascertained. In 1662, when lord Carlisle was ambassador there from king Charles II. it was twelve miles in compass, full of houses and inhabitants, inasmuch that the number of the former is, by the lowest calculations, said to have amounted to 40,000; and by the Russians affirmed to have been above double that number. According to Voltaire, Moscow, when he wrote, was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants amounted to 500,000; but it is almost impossible to form a precise estimate of their present number. The houses are, in general, miserable timber booths, which always have subjected the city to dreadful conflagrations.

This great city is of a circular form, and consists of four distinct parts, or quarters, all surrounded with a distinct wall, viz. Cataigorod, Czargorod, Skorodoma, and Strelitze-Slaboda, so called because it was formerly the quarter of the Strelitzes, or czar's guards.

The Cataigorod, or middle city, is surrounded with a brick wall; and on this stands the castle, which is two miles in circuit, and fortified with three stout walled stately towers, and a fosse. In the castle are two palaces of the czar, one of timber, the other of stone, built after the Italian manner; the patriarchal palace, a large ancient building; the exchequer, chancery, and other offices; the grand magazine; two handsome monasteries; five large churches, among which is that noble one of St. Michael, in which are the tombs of the grand dukes, or czars. There are several other stately buildings in this great castle. At the great stands that stately ancient fabric called the church of Jerusalem.

Near the churches are hung several large bells, one of which is of a stupendous size. Concerning the celebrated great bell of Moscow, a learned traveller says, "I went to see the great bell, which was then in a large pit. A fire had, about two months before this, burnt down about two thirds of this great city, and the bells being all of timber, shared the same fate. The bell fell into the bottom of the pit, and had a piece broken out of its edge, large enough to permit any man to get into it. Its weight is 443,772 pounds, and its height about twenty-one feet four inches and a half. I then went to the top of a very high tower, called Ivan Veliki, or the Great John. From this tower I had a complete view of the whole city, which, indeed, made a very grand appearance. The weather being very cold, the Russians heat their sleeves before day-light, and make use of a fire at no time of the day except to get dinner ready; so that the view is never but at those times obstructed by the smoke. Upon the top of this tower there are three bells, I think the least of which is larger than the largest in London. Under the tower

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is the ancient imperial palace, a large Gothic stone
building. All these which I have mentioned, and all
the imperial ancient archives, and different courts of
justice, are in that part of the city called the Crimline,
which is surrounded by a high brick wall, said to be
about 2000 paces in circumference."

This quarter is called Cataigorod from Catai, the
ancient and Russian name of China, because the chief
merchandizes sold in it come from that country: so
that the name implies the same as the Chinese city.

The Czargorod, or ducal city, contains, among other
buildings, the great arsenal, and is watered by the
Negliga, which runs through it, and thence flows into
the ditch that surrounds the middle city.

The quarter called Skorodum, or Scorodum, is chiefly
inhabited by timber-mongers and carpenters, who
sell houses ready made. These houses are moveable,
sold very cheap, and in great numbers: and, indeed,
considering the frequent fires that happen in it is city,
owing either to drunkenness, a reigning vice here, or
to the neglect of putting out the candles, which they
light to some favourite saint, in their houses and
chambers, they have need of such a large market to
repair to on those occasions. It is called Scorodum,
which, in the Russian language, signifies done in haste,
alluding to the speedy raising of the mud wall that
surrounds it.

The Strelitze-Slaboda, formerly the quarter of the
soldiers, or guards, stands on the east and south-east
side of the Cataigorod and the castle; and is itself sur-
rounded and fortified with wooden ramparts, and
divided from the rest by the river Moscow; for which
reason it is styled a slaboda, or suburb.

Though the houses of the people in common are
poor huts, those of the nobility and opulent, are fine
fabricks of brick and stone; most of them having, on
the back part, large courts and gardens, which are
spacious, in ample order, and surrounded with high
and strong walls. The streets are not paved with
stones, but boarded with thick fir planks.

Churches and chapels here, including those that be-
long to monasteries, are computed to amount to above
1500. Some of them are very large and stately; that,
particularly, which is in the Crimline, or grand im-
perial palace, is a vast, ancient building: on the right
side of the altar is the czar's throne, and on the left
that of the patriarch; and in the body of the church
hangs a chandelier of immense weight and value. The
very jewel, and other costly ornaments, that enrich a
picture of the Virgin Mary here, are valued at half a
ton weight of gold; besides a vast number of chalices,
pikes, patins, statues, and other church utensils of gold
and silver, finely wrought, and enriched with precious
stones; a vast number of other precious vestments of
great value, and an immense quantity of donations and
presents offered to the relics of three eminent Russian
saints, which are here interred. So that the treasure
of this church is deemed equal to that of any church
in Europe.

The superb church of Saboor is 90 feet in length
hath a stately dome, supported by four large pillars,
and is, though in the ancient style, magnificent within
and without. That of St. Michael is the repository of
the dead czars, and of all the royal family of the male
sex. The bodies of the princesses of the blood are in-
terred in the stately abbey of the nuns, called Tzudoff
Monastir, in the same castle, and near the church
above mentioned. The tombs of the princes who
never reigned, are in a separate chapel. The palls with
which their coffins are covered are superb. Those of
the czars, especially, are of the finest velvet, and have
either a massy or embroidered golden crucifix upon
them, of curious workmanship, and enriched with vast
variety of costly ornaments, especially inscriptions,
which are mostly done with pearls and other precious
stones.

Monasteries of men and women are here numerous;
and, in general, next to the palaces and noblemen's
houses, some of the best edifices in the city; the found-
ers of them having spared no cost to adorn them with
curious architecture, paintings, gardens, and every
thing that is convenient and beautiful. There is one
called Dewitze Monastir, about a mile out of the city,
in which the ambitious princess Sophia, who had con-
certed so many plots against her brother the czar Peter
I. was at length confined, and ended her days. It is
situated on a spacious plain, and hath 300 nuns belong-
ing to it, who lead a very regular life, and never stir
out of their limits, as some others are permitted to do.
These are only allowed, on holidays, to walk on the
terraces round their gardens, which are raised to a con-
venient height for them to enjoy the prospect of the
adjacent plain.

Of the monastery, church of Jerusalem, &c. a late
traveller gives the following account: "The church,
bishops, priests houses, &c. are all enclosed with
high brick walls; the wall, forming one side of the
bishop's palace, is built on a beautiful detached hill;
having on the east, north, and west, the finest lawns in
the world, through which glides a noble river. In the
plain, upon the banks of the river, stands the builder's
romantic house, all built of stone. It is quite alone,
three stories in height, in every one of which are four
rooms, except the ground story, where are his kitchen,
store-room, and a room for his attendants. The area
of each of these rooms is but about eight or at most
but nine, feet square. In every one is a small stove.
His bedstead is of stone, as are his bed and pillow; his
chairs are of the same materials. Every story of his
house is vaulted; and it is flat on the roof, for the con-
venience of taking a view of the country. It has but
one entry, and every room receives light from one
window of the least size. The builder was a hermit,
and a religious devotee. The hospital is not large, but
well provided with every necessary but medicine,
prayers being (in their opinion) sufficient to cure all
diseases which appear in this holy place. At the west
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end of the church is a most capacious cupola. The dome is very magnificent and high, with a gallery which surrounds it near the top. The windows are large, and it is well lighted. The walls are all hung round with various pictures of the saints, very richly adorned with silver, gold, pearls, and precious stones; and the altar is very grand, and adorned with various pieces of curious workmanship.

The late czar Peter I. founded here three colleges, which he took care to fill up with men well versed in arts and sciences, and all kinds of literature, for the polishing of the next generation. The first is for humanity, rhetoric, and philosophy; the second for mathematics; and the third for navigation, astronomy, and other sciences subservient to them. In all these, youth are kept under strict discipline, and have, at the same time, all due encouragement to excel in their respective studies. To these the same prince added a dispensary, which is not only one of the finest structures in Moscow, but one of the best furnished with all sorts of medicines, drugs, &c. in Europe. It is put under the care of some Germans, who are allowed the best masters in that art, though the most slovenly in their compositions, never studying to please the eye or taste in their prescriptions, as we do in England, but nauseate their patients by the inelegance of their drugs, which could not possibly be taken by the people of any other country. This dispensary hath a yearly revenue of 20,000 rubles, to renew their *matéria medica*; and furnishes not only all the army, but likewise all the principal cities in the empire with medicines.

We cannot omit to mention, in this place, the founding hospital, founded by the empress Catherine II. supported by voluntary contributions, well endowed, and conducted by very judicious regulations. It is a grand pile of building, and contained 3000 foundlings some few years ago; but their number is, in all probability, now much increased. The children are taken great care of, and, at the age of fourteen, have the liberty of choosing any particular branch of trade; and for that purpose there are different species of manufactures established in the hospital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeship, they are allowed the liberty of setting up for themselves. A sum of money is bestowed upon each foundling; and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Russian empire. This is a great privilege in Russia, where the peasants are slaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permission of their masters.

The courts of judicature, custom-house, and other offices, are generally large, and built of stone, and resemble gaols, and, indeed, are such in some sense; having apartments for debtors, as well as criminals, who are kept there chained up. Justice is, in general, administered with some strictness and severity; but the people here being naturally lazy, and given to drinking, the whole city swarms with beggars and vagabonds, and

most of such a sturdy breed, that it is dangerous to deny them alms. This makes it very hazardous to walk the streets in the night; for they frequently lurk in corners, with a short truncheon, or bludgeon, in their hands, which they throw at the heads of passengers with such dexterity, that they seldom fail of knocking them down, after which they rob and murder them, and go off. These disasters have happened more frequently on holidays, and especially during the carnival. When a person was found murdered, they carried the body to a certain place, where it lay exposed a day or two; and, if it was not owned, it was flung into a deep large pit, made to serve on all such occasions. On the Whitfuntide holidays some priests come thither to say mass for their souls.

Murders were formerly so frequent in Moscow, that few nights passed without some people being found dead in the streets in the morning. The villains went in strong parties, and slew before they robbed. This they did with so little fear, that they often performed it before the person's own door; and the terror of these ruffians was so great, that none of the neighbours dared assist the unhappy victim, for fear of being butchered themselves, or, at least, having their houses burnt. This obliged people, who had occasion to be in the streets in the night, to go in companies together, or have a sufficient guard of servants on horseback to attend them. The weapon used by these ruffians was called a *dubina*, which was a long stick, with a round knob at one end, and made heavy with iron, with which they struck a man dead at one stroke; and if any one of them happened to be taken, a good sum of money, from the gang they belonged to, would generally get them off.

The highways were also much infested by these *rashonies*, as they were called, which made it very dangerous travelling in any part of Russia; for they had their spies in the towns, who informed them when any person was to set out on a journey, and how they were to be attended. According to this information they prepared themselves for an attack, and way-laid them in some wood through which they were to pass.

The writer of this account was informed by a gentleman of rank and veracity, that the czar himself had been attacked in his younger days, in the following manner. Going upon a visit one evening, attended by two servants, the one riding before, and the other standing behind the sledge, he came a sledge with eight rathonies in it, and were just going to fasten his sledge to theirs with a grappling iron, which they commonly used on these occasions; but the czar being then young, stout, and vigorous, got up and seized one of the robbers by the hair of the head, pulled him out of their sledge, and keeping his hold, drove out of their reach, dragging the fellow along with him till he reached the house of the nobleman he intended to visit, which he entered all in a sweat, still holding the fellow by the hair.

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When the ruffian understood it was the czar they had attacked, he shook and trembled, saying, if they had known who he was, they would not have meddled with him; and then begged he might be put to death without being put to the torture. To this his majesty consented, on condition that he discovered the rest of his gang; but this he would not do, without a promise of his life, and a reward, which was also granted him; and he went with a detachment of soldiers to the rendezvous of his companions, and, coming to the house, he called to them to open the door. On hearing his voice they directly opened it; so that the soldiers rushed in, and seized not only his seven accomplices, but thirteen others of the same gang, who were soon after all executed, except the informer.

At another time the czar was attacked on his way from Moscow to Novogorod, when he was attended by four servants only. Going from Tever he was stopped by a strong party of ruffians; on which he immediately jumped out of his sledge with a sword drawn in one hand, and a cocked pistol in the other, and told them he was the czar, asking them what they wanted? They replied they were poor fellows, reduced to great want; and as he was their lord and master, he was the properest person to relieve them. He told them he had no money about him; to which they answered, if he had, they would take none from him; but desired that he would give them a written order to the governor of Novogorod, for what sum he pleased to bestow upon them; begging that it might be such as would relieve them from their straits. The czar then asked them, if 1000 rubles would be sufficient; and on their saying it would, he wrote an order for that sum, payable at sight; for which they dispatched one of their number, who very soon returned with the money. They then obliged the czar to return to Tever, and to pledge his royal word not to prosecute, or even inquire after them; promising to amend their lives, and become good subjects for the future. Instead of proceeding to Novogorod, the czar returned back to Moscow.

The city of Moscow is much decayed from its ancient grandeur and opulence, since the building of that of Peterburg. However, it is full of inhabitants; and all kinds of provisions are brought to it in great plenty, and sold very cheap; fish being the only dear food, which is occasioned both by the number of inhabitants, the four lent, and other fests, that are observed by the Russians. This cheapness hath so far lowered the price of land all about the country, that the nobility and gentry are great sufferers by it, their estates being reduced to little more than one-third of what they formerly brought in, when the city was in its flourishing state. The canal, made by the order and direction of the late Peter the Great, to open a communication between this metropolis and his new-built and favourite city of Peterburg, and, by that means, to the Baltic and German Ocean, is a great and noble work, which hath been some time finished, at an

immense charge and labour, running between two cities, which, in a direct line, stand near 90 leagues asunder. It begins at Petersburg, on the river Niewa, or Nieva, which empties itself into the gulf of Finland, and going up that river quite to the lake of Ladoga, crosses it at the south end, and enters into the Woltoff, another river, which flows thither from the province of Novogorod. From the capital of that province begins what is properly called the artificial canal, which, passing through the territories of Brognitz, Chrestitz, Chilolova, Witfchna-Voloscha, Toischock, the province of Twere, and the district of Kilm, reaches, at length, the city of Moscow, and enriches it by the vast quantities of merchandize that are brought to and from that capital.

There is a very considerable manufacture at Moscow of various hemp fabricks, particularly sail-cloth and sheeting, which employs some thousands of looms, and many thousands of people. The hemp is most of it brought from the Ukraine. There are also great numbers of considerable merchants here, who carry on a very extensive commerce with all parts of the empire; for there is water-carriage from hence to the Black and Caspian Seas, and with but few interruptions to the Baltic also, which are circumstances that make it the centre of a very great commerce.

This city is much better situated for the metropolis of the empire than Peterburg. It is almost in the centre of the most cultivated parts of it; communicating, in the manner above mentioned, with the three inland seas, not at a great distance from the most important province of the empire, the Ukraine; open to the southern territories on the Black Sea; and, by means of the rivers Wolga and Don, commanding an inland navigation of prodigious extent. Its vicinity also to the countries which must always be the seat of any wars with the Turks, the enemies most to be attended to of all those with whom the Russians wage war, upon the whole made it infinitely a better situation for the seat of government than that of Peterburg, which is at the very extremity of the empire, and possessing few of these advantages. Founding that city, and making it the seat of foreign commerce and naval power, was an admirable exertion of genius; but the seat of government, in our opinion, should always have been at Moscow.

It is almost impossible to make an exact estimate of the present dimensions and population of Moscow. Voltaire says, when he wrote, that it was twenty miles in circumference, and the inhabitants amounted to 500,000.

RIGA, the capital of Livonia, is a very considerable city, standing on a large plain on the western bank of the river Dwina, about six miles above the place where it discharges itself into the Baltic, at the gulf of Riga, being 120 miles to the southward of Revel. This town was formerly possessed by the Teutonic Order, and the grand-master resided here: it afterwards en-

gaged in the Hanſeatic confederacy; and for many years continued a free town, under the protection of the German emperors. In the ſixteenth century the inhabitants univerſally embraced the religion of Luther, expelled the Roman Catholic clergy, and ſeized upon their eſtates. Since that period Riga has been ſeveral times reduced, and alternately ſubject to the Muſcovites, the Poles, and the Swedes. In the month of July 1710, it was finally taken by the Ruſſians, after they had reduced it to a heap of rubbiſh, and ſtill continues under their dominion. The city is rebuilt, and is more beautiful than it was before; it is large, commodious, and carries on a very conſiderable trade in corn, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, planks, furs, Ruſſian leather, and pot-aſhes. Theſe articles are exchanged for the commodities of more ſouthern countries. The harbour is guarded by the fort of Dunamander-Schans, built about ſix miles below the city, near the mouth of the river Dwina. The town is well fortified with walls, baſtions, a large and deep ſoſſe, a ſtrong caſtle on the river, in which the governor reſides, and a fortrefs oppoſite to the town on the other ſide of the river.

WOLOGDA, ſituated on both ſides of a river of the ſame name, is a large and populous city, inhabited by a rich trading people. This is the paſs through which all commodities muſt be conveyed to and from Archangel; and here are a number of magazines and ſtores, kept by the merchants of England, Holland, and other nations. The city is ſurrounded with a ſubſtantial ſtone wall, and defended by a fortrefs ſo ſtrong, that in times of danger the czars ſend hither their moſt valuable effects for ſafety. Wologda ſtands about ſeventy-five leagues to the northward of Moſcow, and is one of the moſt ancient archiepiſcopal ſees in all Ruſſia. The ſtreets are open and regular, the houſes well built, and the markets plentifully furniſhed with all kinds of merchandize. They are divided into four quarters, in one is ſold the fleſh, in another the wood, in the third the furs, and in the fourth the cloths. The cathedral, called Saboor, is a very noble ſtructure; it has five cupolas covered with tin, and ſurmounted with croſſes finely gilt. There are twenty churches in this city, built of ſtone, and forty-three of timber; there are likewiſe three nunneries, in each of which is an elegant ſtone chapel. The river, which is broad and navigable, contributes greatly to the traffic of the city.

NOVGOROD VELIKI, called by the Dutch New-garten, is ſituated on the banks of the Wolohowa; it is a large, populous, and well fortified city; but the houſes are mean, and all built of timber, and the town-walls are compoſed of the ſame materials. It is very evident from the ruins of towers, ſteeples, and old walls, without the circuit of the preſent city, that it was once much more magnificent and extenſive. It ſuffered greatly from the arms of the Ruſſians, Poles, and other nations. In the year 1477, John Baſilius

Grotſden made himſelf maſter of Novogorod; he afterwards went there in perſon, and pillaged the city, from whence he is ſaid to have carried to Moſcow many hundred waggons loaded with gold and ſilver, precious ſtones, rich ſtuſſs, and other valuables; he likewiſe removed the principal inhabitants to Moſcow, and peopled Novogorod with Ruſſians. Since it became ſubject to the czar of Muſcovy, its trade and ſplendour have been greatly diminiſhed. It is however ſtill the ſee of an archbiſhop, and carries on a conſiderable trade. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Sophia, is an elegant Gothic ſtructure. The caſtle is ſituated on the oppoſite ſide of the river, and near it is the archiepiſcopal palace, and a monastery dedicated to St. Anthony of Padua. Beſides theſe there are near an hundred churches, and ſeventy monaſteries in this city, which is about two leagues in circumference.

ARCHANGEL, by the Ruſſians called Archania, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Dwina, about ſix leagues above the place where that river falls into the White Sea. The city extends about two miles in length, is rich, populous, and built in the modern taſte. It is a metropolitan ſee, and ſtands between the ſixty-fourth and ſixty-fifth degrees of north latitude. Archangel is indebted to the Engliſh for its great wealth and importance, by whom it was diſcovered in 1553. Richard Chancellor, maſter of one of the ſhips ſet out under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, who had received a commiſſion to go in queſt of the north-eaſt paſſage to China, was ſeparated from the reſt of the fleet, and obliged by diſtreſs of weather to put into the bay of St. Nicholas, on the White Sea. The czar Iwan Baſilowitz, being informed of his arrival, invited him to his court, where he was hoſpitably entertained, and the czar indulged the Engliſh with a free trade in his dominions. The houſes of Archangel are moſtly of wood, but well contrived; the fineſt edifice is a large town-houſe, built of ſquare ſtones after the Italian manner: it is divided into three parts; one of theſe conſiſts of four large commodious apartments, for the accommodation of merchants, ſtrangers as well as natives; here they are permitted to reſide with their merchandize till the month of October, when all the foreign ſhips ſet fail for their reſpective countries to which they belong. The ſtreets are paved ſo extremely bad with broken pieces of timber and rubbiſh, that it is dangerous to walk along them, except when they are rendered ſmooth and equal by the ſnow that falls, and freezes in the winter.

CAZAN or **CAZANUM**, the capital of a duchy of the ſame name, ſtands in the latitude of fifty-fix degrees fifty-four minutes, on the river Caſanka, in the miſt of a ſpacious and fruitful plain. It is a large and populous city, the ſeat of a Ruſſian metropolitan, abounding with a great number of churches, monaſteries, and ſpires, which afford a magnificent proſpect both from the land, and from the veſſels that are continually

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continually falling up and down the Volga, into which the Casanka falls about four miles below the city. The houses in general, as well as the ramparts and towers, are built of wood. The castle, however, is fortified with stone walls, surrounded by the river, which forms a formidable fosse, well stored with artillery and ammunition, secured by a strong garrison of Russian soldiers, under the command of its own governor, independent of the governor of the city. At the confluence of the Casanka and the Volga there is a large commodious dock for building ships and other vessels of considerable burthen, to carry on the commerce of the Volga and the Caspian sea.

RUSSIAN LAPLAND.

WE have already presented our readers with a general description of Lapland, as to the country, inhabitants, customs, manners, &c. and have observed, that it is divided into three distinct sovereignties, namely, those of Denmark, Sweden, and Russia; it remains for us, under the last article, to give a particular account of that part which is distinguished by the appellation of Russian Lapland.

This country is bounded, on the north, by the Northern Ocean, on the east and south, by the White Sea; and on the west, by Danish Lapland. It is further divided into three parts, according to their situation. One is called Leporia Mouremankoi, or Maritime Leporia; Terrkoi, or Inland Leporia; and Bellamoureskoi Leporia.

The whole territory of Leporia-Mouremankoi is barren, woody, and mountainous; the air is extremely cold; the inhabitants rude and ignorant; and, in general, the country is much like the Swedish and Danish Lapland, formerly spoken of. Most of the islands, cities, and towns, stand on the east-coasts. The only observation worthy of mentioning concerning any of them is, that there are, in some of them, ancient monasteries; and that the rivers contiguous abound with fish, and particularly salmon.

Terrkoi Leporia, or the inland part of Russian Lapland, is almost surrounded with the sea, and is the land that makes the gulf of the White Sea. It is no less woody and barren than the rest; and the chief town in it is Warsiga, situated on the south coast, against Archangel.

Bellamoureskoi Leporia lies at the bottom of the above-mentioned gulf, called the White Sea, and, like the rest, is cold, barren, and thinly inhabited. The chief town is Soma, situated at the very entrance into the Russian Lapland, on the White Sea.

The natives of Russian Lapland are of a middling stature; they have generally a flattish face, fallen cheeks, dark grey eyes, thin beard, brown hair, are well built, straight, and of a yellowish complexion, occasioned by the weather, the smoke of

their habitations, and their habitual filthiness. Their manner of life renders them hardy, agile, and supple; but, at the same time, they are much inclined to laziness. They have plain common sense, are peaceable, obedient to their superiors, not given to theft, not fickle, and cheerful in company; but mistrustful, cheats in commerce, proud of their country and constitution, and have so high a notion of it and themselves, that, when removed from the place of their nativity, they sometimes die with longing to return. Their women are short, complaisant, chaste, often well made, and extremely nervous; which is also observable among the men, though not so frequently. It often happens, that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a spark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noise, or the sudden sight of an uncommon object, though in its own nature not in the least alarming. During these paroxysms of terror, they deal about blows with the first thing that presents itself; but, on coming to themselves, are utterly ignorant of all that has passed. This probably arises from their amazing credulity in supernatural agents.

Notwithstanding the introduction of Christianity, the Laplanders have preserved the manners of the Nomades, so that agriculture prospers not much among them. They divide themselves into Lapland-fishers, and Lapland-mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of some lake, whence they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains and their environs, with their rein-deer, more or less numerous, according to the season, and are almost always ambulatory. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich, in comparison of the Lapland-fishers. These last are also called Laplanders of the woods; because in summer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the forest; they live by fishing and hunting, and choose their situation by its convenience for either. They do not travel much on foot, as the greater part of them have some rein-deer, and they are active and expert in the chase. The introduction of fire-arms has almost entirely abolished the use of the bow and arrow.

The men, besides looking after their rein-deer, the fishery, and the chase, employ themselves in the construction of their canoes, which are small, light, and compact. They also make sledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harness for the rein-deer, all sorts of utensils in wood, as cups, bowls, and such like, which are sometimes prettily carved, and ornamented with bones, brags, or horn. It is also the man's business to look after the kitchen, in which the women never interfere.

The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and mear, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheese, and in tanning hides. They prepare the nerves of the rein-deer in such a manner,

manner, as to make them serve as thread; and they draw brass-wire by the help of the horns of the rein-deer pierced, instead of a drawing iron. They embroider their clothes, which they make themselves, with brass wire, silver, sham gold, or wool, which they have the art of dyeing in all colours.

These people live in huts in the form of tents. The carcass of the hut is composed of poles stuck in the ground, and bent up at top in such a manner as to compose a vault almost round. A hut is about four or five fathom in diameter, and not much above one in height. They cover them according to the season and the means of the possessor; some with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarse cloth, 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. Round the fire they lay boughs of fir, which they cover with skins, felt, and the like. They are not 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, they place upright sticks at small distances. They cover themselves with their clothes, or lie upon them, and in winter they put their feet into a fur bag.

Their household furniture consists of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups very neatly cut, bowls, spoons, and sometimes tin, or even silver basons, to which may be added the implements of fishing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry all these things with them in their excursions, they build in the forests, at certain distances, little huts made like pigeon-houses, and placed upon a post, which is the trunk of a tree cut off at about the height of a fathom from the root. In these elevated huts they keep their goods and provisions, and they are never plundered, though they are never shut.

They use no kind of linen in their dress. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed, turned up before, and, in winter, they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, whose skirts reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leather girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, leather, or cloth; the close coat, of cloth or leather, is always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The skins of rats are generally used for the borders of the caps of the Russian Laplanders.

The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat has a collar, which comes up a little higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear kerchiefs, and little aprons, made of Russian 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 of the shape of the head, but all are ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours, which, in their opinion, make an elegant appearance.

The greatest part of the food of the Laplanders is the rein-deer; the chase and the fishery furnish the rest. Among their game, the wild rein-deer is very useful, and in plenty; but the flesh of the bear is the most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea-dog, as well as all sorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter provisions consist of flesh and dried fish in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any sort of dressing. They put the milk of the rein-deer into the stomachs of that animal, and so let it freeze. The cold also preserves their provisions, which consist of all sorts of wild-fruits, myrtle-berries, gooseberries, and a kind of cranberries, which grow in the moss in the forests. In the winter, when they want to use their frozen milk, they chop off pieces with a hatchet. A sort of sweet milk, curdled, and retaining all its cream, is one of the greatest dainties of a Laplander. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk, and they also make broths and fish soups; but brandy, which is very scarce with them, is the highest article of their luxury.

The most considerable branch of their commerce is the traffic they carry on with the Norwegians. This trade was formerly carried on in the way of barter; but coin is now more current among them. The balance is always in favour of the Laplanders; because they can furnish more merchandize in skins and furs, than they buy flour, oatmeal, cloth, knives, hatchets, and other utensils and hardware goods. Hence it is that they commonly pay their taxes in current coin, though they might pay them in skins and furs, if they chose it.

Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a mat on the ground, for they never lay their meat on the bare ground. Men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes; and every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little up to drink out of. Each has their portion separately given them, 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.

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They bury in the earth all the money they have not
immediate occasion for, as well as their plate, and
whatever they think of value; nor even at the point
of death do they declare the spot where it is hidden,
imagining that they shall want it in the other world.
By these means, the best part of their property is en-
tirely lost. Many of their children die by the hardy
manner in which they are brought up; but such as
survive are generally robust and alert. What may
contribute much to the strength of their constitution is
their living free from care, their temperance, and con-
tinual exercise; yet, after all, it is very rare that any
of them live to be far advanced in years.

Sterility, among the Lapland women, is a sort of
approach. They are generally delivered without dif-
ficulty; the husband assists at the labour, and affords
his wife the necessary help. Without this practice
they would often be distressed, as the inhabitants are
frequently at such a distance from one another as to
preclude the aid of any woman. Their cradle, formed
out of wood, is small, light, and made in the shape
of a shuttle, or of a canoe pointed at two of the ex-
tremities. Into this the child is put, quite naked, upon
moss, and is covered with a piece of fur fastened to
the cradle by a piece of string. The Laplanders sus-
pend these cradles in their huts, or, if the season per-
mits, to the branch of a tree; but the women carry
them at their backs when they go a journey.

The father presents his new-born son with a female
reindeer, on which he makes some figure as a dis-
tinctive mark. This mark becomes afterwards the
proper and peculiar signature of the new citizen; and
all the produce of this female reindeer is the un-
alienable property of the child, and makes no part
of the family possession. On the child's cutting its first
tooth, the father, if he be rich, or in easy circum-
stances, gives him a second reindeer. In general, the
fathers bestow an extravagant fondness on their chil-
dren; the consequence of which is, in Lapland, as
well as every where else, that these too indulgent
parents find themselves, if not hated by their children,
too frequently abandoned by them in that period of
life, when they should have most to expect from their
gratitude and duty.

The marriages of the children are directed by the
fancy of the parents, and in this they have no other
view than interest. Hence the most contemptible
woman may make a good match, if she possess but
some property. A young man is not permitted to
marry until he be able to take and kill a reindeer;
and in some provinces, they manage the contract of
marriage with all the formality of a bargain, when
the pretensions on both sides frequently rise very high
on the first proposal. They reckon severally whatever
the young man is to give in order to obtain his fair-one,
which most commonly consists of reindeer, or different
kinds of skins.

The wedding is celebrated at the bride's house; she

is dressed in the best manner, and appears before the
guests with her head quite uncovered, which, at other
times, is never the custom with either women or
maidens. The feast is a kind of merriment, to which each
of the guests bring meat and drink. Their diversion
at weddings, and other merry-makings, is the game of
fox and goose, a kind of draughts, with thirteen men,
twelve representing geese, and the thirteenth a fox. They
wrestle, and jump over a stick held horizontally, and
are fond of giving grotesque accounts of different ad-
ventures. They likewise dance and sing, or rather
howl in disagreeable measures. The new-married
people live with the woman's relations for the first
year, at the end of which they retire to a hut of their
own.

These people bury their dead without coffins, in some
cantons with their clothes on, in others quite naked.
The Pagan Laplanders in their most famous hunters
near the places consecrated to sacrifice. Formerly
their custom was, to throw the body into the ground
naked, and without ceremony; afterwards to surround
the spot with stones, and to pile others upon it. They
generally place a sledge with its bottom upwards upon
the grave, and some eatables and pieces of furniture
near it. The rich give some little refreshment to the
funeral attendants; but the generality of people do not
observe that custom.

All the Swedish and Norwegian, as well as the
greater number of the Russian Laplanders, bear the
name of Christians; but their religion is full of su-
perstition, and a compound of Christian and Pagan
ceremonies. The heathens still acknowledge, as their
ancestors heretofore did, an universal God. Besides
him they admit of inferior divinities, good and bad,
gods and goddesses. These deities, as they imagine,
dwell and rule in heaven, and take to themselves at
death, such as have conducted themselves well through
life. Other gods inhabit the air, such as the sun; and
their celebrated Thor, who rules the thunder. They
have other divinities, who direct the storms, and ter-
restrial deities, who preside over hunting. Maderakko
is a goddess, who, with her three daughters, direct
every thing relating to women. Jabme Akko, or the
mother of the dead, has her abode on the surface of
the earth, and takes care of departed souls till the final
decision of their doom. They have their infernal and
malevolent gods, who dwell in the centre of the earth,
where they place their hell; and also evil demons,
who have their habitations in the waters. They are
afraid of fiery goblins and spectres, satyrs or demons
of the woods, and malevolent fairies of the lakes.
There is, however, a great difference in matters of
faith; one man believes in all these divinities, while
another admits a larger stock, and some reduce their
number considerably.

Instead of temples, they have consecrated moun-
tains, and have lakes and rivers that are sacred. There
are also consecrated trees, on which figures are carved,
and

and around them are little scaffolds, for the offerings, from three to five feet high. Even the Christian Laplanders have so much veneration for these places, that they never approach them without making some offering; nor will they, upon any account, hunt or make their habitation in the neighbourhood of them. Here are to be seen mis-shapen idols of wood and stone, or carved out of roots of trees. The stone idols are chiefly found near lakes and rivers, and consist of a great heap of stones, shaped and piled up in the most whimsical manner. While they are fishing in these holy waters, they are forbidden, among other things, to speak, to have a dog with them, or to be assisted by women.

In cases of sickness, of unfruitful marriages, in times of epidemical diseases among the rein-deer, and other temporal adversities, they make their offerings, always consulting a magician, to which of the gods they shall sacrifice, what offering they shall make, in what place they shall deposit it, and many more particulars. For this purpose, the magician makes use of his magical drum, which is a box of an oval shape, covered on one side with a skin, and furnished on the other side with several strings and pieces of iron, to rattle and make a noise. Strange figures, intended to represent the heavenly bodies, such as beasts and birds, are drawn on the skin. The forcerer puts a ring upon his drum, beats on it with his drum-stick, which is made of the mossy horn of a 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, during this immumery, he falls into a fit, when his soul is supposed to be with the spirits of the air, hearing their converse, and learning the decrees of heaven.

Every person carries his offering himself. Previous to this, the votary performs his purifications, ties up all his dogs, that they may not cross his way, and proceeds, without speaking, towards the holy place, bearing the bones, or the horns, of the animal prescribed by the forcerer; and, as soon as he comes within sight of the place appointed for the offering, he falls down on his hands and knees, and crawls up to it. He then places his offering on the scaffold, and makes his prayer, continuing all the while prostrate with his face upon the earth. This done, the business is over, and the votary returns home.

It is not at all surprising that people of such principles should be fertile in visions, apparitions, superstitions and childish tales, which the Laplanders are in a great degree. They imagine their magicians possess the power of controlling the winds and the rain, of producing and destroying insects, of speaking to spirits, and a thousand other fooleries; but they believe, at the same time, that the thunder is inimical to the magicians; and hence their proverb, "If it were not for thunder, the world would be destroyed by

magic." They attribute singular effects to certain words and phrases, and scarcely undertake any thing without a previous charm.

NOVA ZEMBLA.

The above name was given by the Russians to their new-discovered tract, and in their language signifies New Land. It is separated from the northern part of Russia by the strait called Veigatz, or Wygatz, which lies in north lat. 70 deg. The land that forms this strait is a promontory, advancing southward from the main country, which is supposed to extend itself much further north. It was long doubted, whether this country joined to the continent of Greenland on the west, or of Tartary on the east, but it is now known to be an extensive island.

This inhospitable region was first discovered by the English, anno 1553, when captain Hugh Willoughby sailed thither with three vessels, and advanced from the north cape of Finmark as far north as the 72d deg. of lat. where he thought he had deserted this land; but being obliged, through stress of weather, to put into port of Lapland, he there perished with cold, with all his company. Captain Burroughs sailed in search of it three years after, and having doubled the above-mentioned cape, discovered the strait of Wygatz, between the south part of Nova Zembla and the north coast of Samoieda. Since that time it hath been often visited both by Dutch and English, in hopes of finding out the north-east passage; but the coldness of the climate, and the mountains of snow which covered that whole country, prevented their making any great discoveries. Some Dutchmen wintered there, anno 1596, but found the cold so excessive, that they, with great difficulty, kept themselves alive till the next summer. They saw no sun from January 4 to June 24, during which long and dark interval they had no light, but what the moon gave them from the first to the last quarter, in which the stone by day as well as night. The account they gave of it is, that some parts of that country is inhabited by a people of low stature, who are idolaters and barbarous.

The attempts made afterwards by Barentz, a Hollander; by Hudson, Wood, and Flaws; proved likewise of little or no consequence to the public, and of destructive consequence to themselves. Wood, indeed, made some remarks, which gave him reason to think there was a passage between this country and that of Greenland. Nova Zembla he represents as the most forlorn spot in all the world, the greatest part of which is laid under snow and ice; and that where there are neither of these, nothing presents itself to the view but dismal quagmires, covered with moss, and some blue and yellow flowers. Upon digging two or three feet into the earth, they found the ice as hard as marble, which shews how vain it would be to attempt to winter there in caves dug under ground. In other north-

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much sooner on the sea-coasts than in the inland parts,
but here it proves the reverse; and the sea, which beats
against mountains of it of a prodigious height, hath fo-
underrated it, that it seems to hang in the air, and dis-
covers such monstrous chafms, as cannot be beheld
without horror.

Nova Zembla, so far as our author had an oppor-
tunity to view it, breeds some sorts of wild creatures,
such as large white bears, foxes, some small creatures
like rabbits, larger than rats, large penguins, &c. The
penguin is of the size of a goose, and the feathers are
somewhat like hairs, and of an ash colour. The wings
are very short in proportion to the body; the bill is
black, and the legs are of a bright green. They keep
in the water all the day, where they feed upon fish. As
they cannot fly, they cannot shun their enemies, except
by leaping along, which they do pretty well by the help
of their short wings. However, this bird is active upon
the water, and seems to be very skilful in catching its
food. When the sun begins to set, they retire to the
rocks near the sea, where they continue till morning,
at which time they are easily taken. They build their
nests upon the rocks, on the craggy points, to which
these birds can get up very easily. Their eggs are very
good, but the flesh has a disagreeable fishy taste, and is
never eaten but in cases of great necessity. It is wor-
thy of remark, that the bird penguin, which is not
only common to these northern parts, but likewise in
several countries of North America, is every where
known by the same name, with little or no variation;
and that the word penguin, in the Celtic, and in our
present Welsh, signifies a white head, as that bird actu-
ally hath. This, together with some great affinity
which is found in many of the radical words and pro-
per names, used by those distant regions, confirms a
curious conjecture of the authors of the Universal
History, which is, that the descendents of Gomer, the
eldest son of Japhet, were not only the first peoplers of
Europe, even in its remotest parts, but have preserved
their ancient language more than any other nation we
know of, except the Chinese.

The southern part of this country has been since
found to be inhabited by a squat, swarthy sort of people,
who clothe themselves with seal-skins, or with the skin
of the bird penguin, with the feathers outward. They
live upon what game or fish they catch; they worship
the sun and moon, and have some little wooden idols,
in human shape, but monstrously carved, or rather
notched.

A variety of romantic tales, and manifest absurdities,
having been published by many of the Dutch
voyagers, these, together with the ridiculous relations
of Ferdinand Mendez and Pinto, and the improbable
stories of Sir John Mandeville, gave rise to a witty and
ingenious satire, written by the celebrated Sir Richard
Steele, and published in the Tatler, as if from a manu-
script of Sir John Mandeville. The scene being founded

in Nova Zembla, the humour being admirable, and
the satire pointed against all travellers and voyagers
who attempt to impose upon the public, we shall make
an extract from it without further apology.

Sir John Mandeville is supposed to be the narrator,
and to relate as follows: "We were separated by a
storm, in the latitude of 73, inasmuch that only the
ship in which I sailed, with a Dutch and French ves-
sel, got safe into a creek of Nova Zembla. We landed
in order to rest our vessels, and store ourselves with
provisions. The crew of each vessel made themselves a
cabin of turf and wood at some distance from each
other, to fence themselves against the inclemencies of
the weather, which was severe beyond imagination.
We soon observed, that, in talking to one another, we
lost several of our words, and could not hear one an-
other at above two yards distance, and that too when
we sat very near the fire. After much perplexity, I
found that our words froze in the air, before they could
reach the ears of the person to whom they were spoken.
I was soon confirmed in the conjecture, when, upon
the increase of the cold, the whole company grew
dumb, or rather deaf; for every man was sensible, as
we afterwards found, that he spoke as well as ever; but
the sounds no sooner took air, than they were condensed
and lost. It was now a miserable spectacle, to see us
gaping and nodding at one another, every man talking,
and no man heard. One might observe a seaman that
could hail a ship at a league's distance, beckoning with
his hand, straining with his lungs, and tearing his
throat, but all in vain.

"We continued here three weeks in this dismal
plight. At length, upon a turn of wind, the air about
us began to thaw. Our cabin was immediately filled
with a dry clattering sound, which I afterwards found
to be the crackling of consonants that broke above our
heads, and were often mixed with a gentle hissing,
which I imputed to the letter S that occurs so frequently
in the English tongue. I soon after felt a breeze of
whispers rustling by my ear; for those being of a soft
and gentle substance, immediately liquified in the warm
wind that blew across our cabin. These were soon
followed by syllables and short words, and at length
by entire sentences, that melted sooner or later, as they
were more or less congealed; so that we now heard
every thing that had been spoken during the whole
three weeks that we had been silent, if I may use that
expression. It was now very early in the morning, and
yet, to my surprize, I heard somebody say, "Sir John,
it is midnight, and time for the ship's crew to go to
bed." This I knew to be the pilot's voice; and, upon
recollecting myself, I concluded, that he had spoken
these words to me some days before, though I could
not hear them till the present thaw. My reader will
easily imagine how the whole crew was amazed, to
hear every man talking, and see no man open his
mouth. In the midst of this great surprize we were all
in, we heard a volley of oaths and curses, lasting for a
long

long while, and uttered in a very hoarse voice, which I knew belonged to the boatswain, who was a very choleric fellow, and had taken his opportunity of cursing and swearing at me, when he thought I could not hear him; for I had several times given him the strappado on that account, which I did not fail to repeat for these his pious soliloquies when I got him on shipboard.

"I must not omit the names of several beauties in Wapping, which we heard every now-and-then in the midst of a long fight that accompanied them, as Dear Kate! Pretty Mrs. Peggy! When shall I see my Sue again? This betrayed several amours which had been concealed till that time, and furnished us with a great deal of mirth in our return to England.

"When this confusion of voices was pretty well over, though I was afraid to offer at speaking, as fearing I should not be heard, I purposed a visit to the Dutch cabin, which lay about a mile further up in the country. My crew were extremely rejoiced to find they had again recovered their hearing, though every man uttered his voice with the same apprehensions that I had done,

"And, try'd his tongue, his silence softly broke."

"At about half a mile's distance from our cabin, we heard the groanings of a bear, which at first startled us; but, upon our inquiry, we were informed by some of our company that he was dead, and now lay in salt, having been killed upon the very spot about a fortnight before, in the time of the frost. Not far from the same place, we were likewise entertained with some posthumous snarls and barkings of a fox."

Very few of the Russian Tartars are tall; but they are for the most part straight and well-made, have small faces, fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of a very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, skilful at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion, rather than handsome, and of a good constitution; from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kafan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, sobriety, and a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Every little village has its chapel, school, priest, and school-master; but some of the priests and school-masters are not much skilled in the Arabic language.

The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kafan, Tobolski, and Astracan, which are under the direction of the gagoons or high-priests. Small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscripts are pretty frequently found in the huts of the boors;

and their merchants, besides what these little libraries contain, are pretty well acquainted with the history of their own people, that of the circumjacent states, and with the antiquities of each. Those persons who are desirous of making a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bukharia, which are more complete than the rest.

In Kafan, Orenburg, and other governments, the Tartar citizens carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is seldom seen among them, and they have no bills of exchange. They are not in general very enterprising; but by means of many partners and clerks, they carry on a great deal of business, which is rendered very lucrative by their parsimonious method of living. At Kafan they prepare for sale what the English call Morocco leathers.

The villages inhabited by the Kafan Tartars comprehend from 10 to 100 farms. These villages were at first composed of troops of wandering shepherds; but being more closely united by successive populations, they were under the necessity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow, for which reason they use more manure than the Russians. They bestow much labour on the cultivation of bees, and reap great profit from this part of rural oeconomy. There are tanners, shoe-makers, smiths, carpenters, taylor, and dyers, in most of the villages. The laborious females make thread from hemp of their own cultivation; they likewise spin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks.

These Tartars have, for the most part, only such moveables as are absolutely necessary for common use; their kitchen and table furniture consists but of few articles, which may be also laid of their utensils of agriculture and mechanics. They commonly make four meals a day, at which their bench serves them for table and chairs; for on this they place themselves round the dishes, each person sitting on his heels, after the Eastern manner. At the beginning and end of all their meals they make ablutions, and say prayers. Like most of the Mahometan Tartars, they are very polite, both to each other and to strangers. Old men, who have maintained good characters, are held in great veneration among them, and a grey beard always commands respect. Their old men are the arbiters in all disputes; preference and precedence is always given to them, and these people are fond of asking their advice.

Before we give an account of the people inhabiting the rest of eastern and western Muscovy or Russia, it may be proper to remark, that the present subjects of the Russian empire, in its most extensive sense, are the descendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country; so that it is no wonder that among them we find a vast variety of characters and manners; and the great reformatations introduced of late years, as well as the discoveries made, which render former accounts little to be depended upon.

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We may also observe, that the mien and character of the Tartars of Kafan, above described, and of those derived from them, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood.

Of late years Russian colonies have been established in the kingdom of Siberia and province of Dauria, which till that period were inhabited only by Tartars, who lived in tribes under distinct governments, and shifted their habitations occasionally. Most of them, however, conformed to the customs of the Russian emigrants, built themselves houses, learned to till their ground, and now pay an annual tribute of furs to the crown. But there are other Tartars who still live in tents, and refuse to acknowledge obedience to the monarch of Russia. Both sides of the river Wolga are inhabited by the Zeremisses and Morduars, an inoffensive people, who employ themselves in agriculture, and pay taxes like the other subjects of Russia. From Kafan to the frontiers of Siberia, the country is peopled by the Baskirs, a powerful nation, who have had some privileges granted them by the Russians, of which they are very tenacious. Kafan and Altcran were originally kingdoms belonging to the Tartars, and still contain a great number of those people; but they are not suffered to reside in the cities which the Russians have built there. A large tract of land extending from the boundaries belonging to the Baskirs as far as Altcran, and the frontiers of the Usbecks, is frequented by the wandering Kalmucks, who live in tents, which according to the season, or for convenience of subsistence for themselves and cattle, they remove at pleasure. These people receive annual presents from the crown, of cloth, money, and arms, in return for which they are obliged to serve in the Russian army without pay.

The Cossacks, who have lately made so considerable a figure in the military transactions of Europe, are distinguished into three tribes, known by the places where they made the first settlements; though all of the same nation speak the same language, profess the same religion, and live under the same form of government. They were originally Polish peasants, who, being formed into a militia, were posited in the Ukraine, to oppose the incursions of the Tartars; but finding themselves oppressed by their own lords, they turned their arms against them. In the first engagement they were defeated, and several of them fled to the banks of the Don or Tanais, at that time entirely uninhabited, where they established a colony. In 1637, they were joined by a considerable number of their countrymen, and soon after attacked and reduced the town of Afoph; but on the approach of the Turkish army, were obliged to abandon that place, having first reduced it to ashes. Their next step was, to put themselves under the protection of the Russians, and built a town, which they called Circasky, on an island in the Don. Their settlement extended itself with surprising

rapidity; thirty-nine towns, situated on both sides the river, from Rybna to Afoph, being built, and peopled by them, in a few years. They enjoy their own laws and customs, being exempt from tribute; neither do they furnish recruits, but, when summoned by the czar, are obliged to appear in arms at their own expence. Though their country is fruitful, they sow very little corn, subsisting chiefly on flesh, fish, and fruits; and their wealth consists in cattle, horses, camels, and dromedaries. They surpass the Russians in the neatness of their dresses and houses, profess the Greek religion, and delight in war. Their number is far from being so considerable as formerly; for, in the reign of Peter the Great, thinking themselves oppressed, they revolted, and were not without the utmost difficulty reduced again to obedience. In the contest many of their towns were burned, and the inhabitants massacred without distinction of age or sex.

The internal government of the Cossacks is military and democratic. The captains and officers of the nation choose a chief, termed Hetman, who always resides at Circaska, and holds his authority during life; but he must first be confirmed by the czar. His power extends over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen annually, and is accountable to the chief hetman, at Circaska.

The Cossacks of the Ukraine are much more numerous than the Don Cossacks, and enjoy an extent of land for several hundred miles, between the rivers Nieper and Don. They did not revolt from the Poles till the year 1654; but at present their country is populous and well cultivated, abounding with fortified towns, and large villages neatly built of wood. This tribe likewise complained that their liberties were encroached upon in the reign of the czar Peter, and he being at that time engaged in war with Charles XII. they, together with their hetman Mazeppa, joined that monarch, but with very little success; for during their revolt their town of Bathurin was burned, and six thousand of the inhabitants destroyed.

The third tribe of these people is distinguished by the name of the Zaporovian Cossacks, who, after their revolt from Poland, settled about the falls of the river Nieper, or Borystenes. Three thousand of these joined Mazeppa, after he was abandoned by his own people, and engaged with him in the service of Sweden; but they were most of them cut to pieces.

The Finns come originally from Asia, and very nearly resemble the Laplanders, but are more civilized and better informed. They inhabit towns and villages, make some progress in the arts and sciences, profess the tenets of Luther, and, in their computation of time, use the Christian æra. These people carry on commerce, and are employed in most of the common trades. The peasants chiefly attend upon agriculture, hunting, and fishing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and drink brandy to excess. The

Russian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden; so that they possess a considerable degree of freedom.

The Votiaks, or Viatkis, are descended from the Finns, and chiefly inhabit the province of Viatki, in the government of Kasan: they were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but, since their subjection to Russia, have preferred the quiet and security which agriculture affords, to the wandering life of herdsmen and shepherds. These people are middle-sized, and in general red-haired: in their manners, they are honest, peaceable, and hospitable; but are addicted to superstition, and very credulous. In rural œconomy, they are assiduous, neglecting neither the culture of bees, nor the chase; in the latter, they use indifferently the bow or fire-arms. Many of them employ their leisure hours in making all sorts of turnery, such as cups, spoons, and shuttles; and others varnish all kinds of bowls and cups. The women spend their time in sewing, making linen, coarse cloths, and ornaments of embroidery. Some of the Votiaks are Christians, but a great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments. Their town has little or nothing in it worth notice, except its being a bishop's see, and having a stout castle to defend it against the incursions of the Scheremille Tartars that infest those parts.

The Ostiocs are one of the most numerous nations in Siberia, and are likewise sprung from the Finns. Before they were subjected to Russia, they were governed by their own princes, whose descendents are still reputed noble. These people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, and choose their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. These superintend the payment of the taxes, and preserve peace and good order. They are extremely ignorant, and entirely unacquainted with the use of letters or figures, and, like the other Finnish nations, can only reckon as far as ten. A singular custom among them is, that the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the presence of her father-in-law; nor is the son-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law till his wife has had a child. The greatest part of them are idolaters; and one of their strange notions is, that bears, after death, enjoy a happiness equal to that which they expect for themselves; and are so fixed in the belief of this, that whenever they kill one of these animals, they sing songs over him, in which they ask his pardon for the injury he has received at their hands: they also hang up his skin, to which they shew many civilities, and address with many fine compliments, in order to avert his vengeance from them in the world of spirits. It appears, indeed, that among all the Pagan nations of the north and north-east, bears are in great estimation.

The Vogouls, or Vogulizi, differ so much from all

their neighbours round about, that they have been supposed to be of Tartaric extraction, but without any probability; since all the Tartars, either of Siberia, Kasan, or Astracan, are all Mahometans; whereas these Vogulizi are heathens, and resemble most, in their religion and customs, the Siberian Pagans, only they are more civilized. They are rather below the middle stature, have generally black hair, and a scanty beard. They are of a gay disposition, honest, laborious, and acute; but slovenly and sickly, and inclined to be very passionate. Their women are well-made, robust, civil, and laborious. They are unacquainted with the use of letters, as well as some of their kindred nations: they do not reckon their time by years, though they mark the months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature which they observe in their forests.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, the creator and preserver of all things; and sacrifice to him once a year, at the end of summer, in one of the nearest forests, some of the best cattle they are masters of, one of each sort; but can give no reason for their so doing, but that their fathers did so before them. They believe a future life of rewards and punishments, but will not bear being told that there are any devils, or malevolent spirits, alleging, that they have no instances among them of any such. They go dressed much like the Russian peasants, and bury the dead in their best clothes, together with some money. As there is little corn comes to perfection in their country, they live chiefly upon the milk of their cattle, and such game as they kill. They marry as many wives as they can maintain, which they buy of their parents, but they are very scrupulous of marrying within the forbidden degrees of consanguinity.

They have neither cities or towns, but villages made up of huts, of a conic figure, with a hearth in the middle, and a hole at the top, to let the smoke out; which hole, however, they cover with a thin transparent piece of ice, to let some light into their huts, as soon as their fuel is burnt to a coal. When a woman is near the end of her pregnancy, she is obliged to go into a private hut reared on purpose for her, and to live in it separate from her husband, and all matrimonial intercourse. The men go a shooting of elks, fallow deer, and other game: they live quiet under the Russian government, and pay their tribute in skins and furs, which are sent into the public repository at Siberia. Their country reaches from 62 deg. 30 min. to almost 63 deg. of north latitude.

The Schouvaches, or Tschouvaches, live on the banks of the Wolga, in the governments of Kasan, Oreburg, and Nischnei-Novogorod. These people never dwell in towns, but assemble in small villages, and choose the forests for their habitations. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding-night the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. We are told by a late writer, that among the Tschouvaches

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the husband is master of the house; he orders every thing himself; and it is the duty of the wife to pay implicit obedience to his orders: by this custom, many domestic broils are prevented, and family quarrels very uncommon. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow.

The Kirguisians, in their air and deportment, resemble the Tartars of Kasan. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deserts in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitute their chief occupation. In summer, they traverse the northern deserts, and the southern parts in winter. They follow hunting and fishing, but are entirely unacquainted with agriculture. Their stock of cattle, which consists of horses, camels, cows, goats, and sheep, supply them both with food and raiment. Their camels are very serviceable to them, as in all their migration they carry their huts and furniture, to the weight of 900 pounds. With respect to their persons, the Kirguisians have a sharp but not a fierce look, and their eyes are smaller than those of the Kasan Tartars. The decoration of their horses takes up almost as much time as that of their persons. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in the cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and slaves. They are great eaters, and smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children all smoke and take snuff: they keep the latter in little horns fastened to their girdles. In their dispositions, they are affable and high-spirited, and have good natural sense; but are voluptuous, and fond of their ease.

The Tungusians are a more numerous people than any that inhabit Siberia. They are of a middle size, well made, and have an agreeable aspect. Their sight and hearing are amazingly acute and delicate; but their smelling and feeling are greatly inferior to ours. They have excellent capacities, learn foreign languages with ease, are alert on horseback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone they have met with in the course of their travels, and can even describe a space of some hundreds of miles by the shape and form of the trees and stones they have noticed, and can teach others to pursue the same course by such descriptions. They also discover the tracks of the game by the compression of the grass or moss they have passed over.

The Kalmucks are a numerous tribe, inhabiting a prodigious desert which lies between the rivers Don and Volga. They are for the most part raw-boned and stout, have reddish and yellowish-brown complexions, a flat visage, thick lips, a small nose, and short chin. The women are shaped like the men, have a wholesome white and red in their faces, and are lively, agreeable, and industrious. The sole profession among

them is the breeding of cattle; they pursue hunting as an amusement; live in tents, or yurts of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Russians *kibitka*, and in many respects resemble Kirguisians. Their clothing is after the eastern manner, and they dress their heads exactly like the Chinese: some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Their principal food is animals tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of age or distempers, though it stink ever so much; so that the flesh market in every herd hath the appearance and scent of a lay-stall of carrion: they eat likewise the roots and plants which grow in the deserts. Both sexes smoke continually. As their courses are regulated by necessity, they keep to the north in the summer, and to the southern deserts in the winter. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same. They are characterized as a rough kind of people, but are less base and dissolute than they are represented to be. Their attachment to their chiefs or masters is very great; but their active spirit, together with their improvidence and carelessness, render them thievish and dirty. In their robberies, they prefer stratagem to violence, and are seldom known to commit murder, from their belief in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's spirits. Their code is very favourable to females, to whom they never impute any crime. A rape and adultery is punished with a mulct of nine herd of cattle. They affect to profess the Chinese religion, but know very little of its principles. They are superstitious about good and bad days; and have written laws which are founded on reason, custom, and the will of the prince. Their speech is a mongrel dialect with many Tartarian words; but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan.

The Kamtschadales live in villages consisting of a few small houses, and situated in general near some river. When a village becomes too populous, they separate, and form another. They have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion, they believed the mortality of the soul: they are, however, superstitious to extravagance, and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing; they are very expert at the latter, and well acquainted with the proper seasons for it: their nets are made of the stamina of nettles. The chase furnishes them with fables, foxes, and other game. When they are not engaged in hunting and fishing, they sometimes employ themselves in building huts, forming wooden utensils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows. They pass much of their time in absolute idleness. Poverty gives them no concern; and, as they are naturally extremely indolent, nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them.

them to the chase. They eat and drink a great deal; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals; and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadaljan equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country 41. 10s. or near 20. rubles. Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia, and here some of the greatest criminals are sent.

In this wide and forlorn region, that was so long unknown to Europe, some new mines have been lately discovered, which, upon their first opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine silver, and which is said to have been obtained with little difficulty or expence. The manners of the Siberians were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a severer punishment upon his capital enemies the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living, besides contributing in some degree to the civilization of the natives.

The curiosities to be found in Russia, by reason of its recent civilization, can afford no great entertainment to the reader. This country can, however, produce many stupendous monuments of the genius and public spirit of her sovereigns; among which are the canals (already described) made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia abounds with old sepulchres of an unknown nation, whose instruments and arms were all made of copper. In the museum at Petersburg, there is a rhinoceros dug up on the banks of the river Valuis, with the skin and hair upon it perfect. Besides the great bell at Muscovy, of which an account is given in our description of that city, a late writer mentions another there, founded in czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, 64 in circumference, and two in thickness, that weighed 336,000 lb. The building of Petersburg, and raising it on a sudden from a few fishing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curiosity hardly to be paralleled in the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The same may be said of the fortress of Cronstadt, which, with the city, employed for some years 300,000 men in laying its foundations and driving piles, night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe, Peter excepted, could have executed. What is more wonderful, he drew the plans of all his undertakings, raised a formidable navy, and wrought with assiduity as a common labourer in all his amazing works.

THE HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

THERE is no doubt but some of the most neglected parts of this country were early peopled, and

possibly much richer than at present; but the few accounts we have of this northern nation are so enveloped in fable and fictitious relations, that it is hardly possible to form a consistent narrative, founded on truth, before the introduction of Christianity, about the tenth century, when Olha, a Russian princess, was baptized at Constantinople, and called Helen. Her example however was not generally followed till the year 987, when Volodimer her grandson, having formed an alliance with Basil, emperor of Constantinople, patriarch Photius, so famous for his amazing erudition, his disputes with the Roman church, and his misfortunes, sent proper persons to baptize the Russian prince, and add that part of the world to his patriarchate.

In the year 1450, John or Iwan Basilides, a man of courage and intrepidity, ascended the Russian throne, delivered his country from the yoke of the Tartars, and increased his territories by the acquisition of Novogorod, and the city of Moscow. He even extended his conquests into Finland, which has so often been the source of wars between Russia and Sweden. It is said that this emperor brought back from Moscow three hundred cart loads of gold, silver, and precious stones; but we have already observed that the history of these rude times abound with fictions.

John Basilides, his grandson, who mounted the Russian throne in 1530, pursued the steps of his predecessor, and cleared his country from the incursions of the wandering Tartars; he subdued the kingdoms of Kafan and Aitracan, in Asia, and annexed them to his dominions, but could not maintain his ground on the side of Finland; his forces were always defeated by the regular troops of Sweden.

John Basilides II. who died in 1584, left two sons, the one named Fedor, or Theodore, the other Demetrius. Fedor succeeded his father, and Demetrius was confined to a village called Ughis, with the czarina, his mother. The rude manners of the Russian court had not yet adopted the policy of the Turkish sultans, in sacrificing the princes of the blood to the security of the throne. Boris-Godonow, the prime minister, whose sister was married to Fedor, persuaded his master that he could never reign quietly unless he imitated the Mahometan court, in assassinating his brother. Fedor listened to his advice, and an officer was dispatched to execute his inhuman resolution. The officer at his return to court declared that he had put Demetrius to death, and demanded the reward that had been promised him for this sanguinary service; but Boris, instead of a reward, put him to death, in order to suppress every possible proof of the murder. It was reported, that Boris-Godonow, some time after poisoned the czar Fedor; but though he was strongly suspected of the crime, yet it did not prevent his ascending the throne. This event happened in 1597.

About the same time there appeared in Lithuania, a young man, who pretended to be prince Demetrius, asserting that he had escaped from the hands of the assassin.

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assassin. Several who had seen him at his mother's house, knew him again by particular marks. He perfectly resembled the prince; he shewed the cross set with diamonds which had been tied about the neck of Demetrius. The palatine of Sandomir acknowledged him immediately for the son of John Basilides, and for the lawful czar. The diet of Poland made a solemn inquiry into the proofs of his royal extraction, and finding them abundantly sufficient, furnished him with an army to drive out the usurper, and recover the throne of his ancestors.

In the mean time, however, Demetrius was treated in Russia as an impostor, and even as a magician. The Muscovites could not believe that Demetrius, who was supported by the Poles, a catholic nation, and who had two jesuits in his council, could be their king. So little did the boyars question his being an impostor, that, upon the death of the czar Boris, they made no difficulty of placing his son, then only fifteen years of age, on the Russian throne.

During these transactions Demetrius was on his march into Russia, at the head of a Polish army: and all those who were dissatisfied with the government, declared in his favour. A Russian general advancing within sight of Demetrius's army, cried out, "He is the only lawful heir of the empire," and immediately joined his standard with the forces under his command. The revolution was sudden and complete, and Demetrius was no longer a magician. The inhabitants of Moscow ran to the palace, and dragged the mother and son of Boris to prison. Demetrius was unanimously proclaimed czar; and it was given out, that both young Boris and his mother had killed themselves in confinement. Probably they were put to death by Demetrius. This event happened in 1605.

The widow of John Basilides, mother of the real or pretended Demetrius, had been long since banished to the northern parts of Russia; and the new czar now sent a magnificent carriage to bring her to Moscow. He went himself part of the way to meet her; they embraced each other with transports and tears of joy, in the presence of a prodigious multitude of people, so that none doubted but Demetrius was the lawful emperor. In 1606, he married the daughter of the palatine of Sandomir, his first protector, and this brought on his ruin. Shocked at seeing a catholic empress, a court composed of foreigners, and, above all, a church erected for the jesuits, the people no longer considered Demetrius as a Russian, the son of John Basilides, and determined to drive him from the throne.

Accordingly, in the midst of the entertainments at the marriage of the czar, a boyar, whose name was Zulfki, put himself at the head of a number of conspirators, and entering the palace with a sword in one hand, and a cross in the other, cut the Polish guards in pieces, hurried Demetrius to prison, and loaded him with chains. He was soon after confronted with the

dowager czarina, who had so solemnly acknowledged him for her son. The clergy obliged her to swear upon the cross, and to declare whether Demetrius was or was not her son. Accordingly she affirmed, that the czar was not her child; that the real Demetrius was murdered in his infancy; that she had only followed the example of the whole nation in acknowledging the new czar, and to be revenged for the blood of her son upon a family of assassins. Demetrius was now said to have been originally, nothing more than a peasant named Griska Utropoya, who had for some time lived as a monk in a Russian convent. But however that be, Zulfki killed him with his own hand, and took his place on the throne in the year 1606.

The rest of the boyars however who had before been Zulfki's equal, but now his subjects, could not behold his exaltation with patience. They asserted that the late czar was not an impostor, but the real Demetrius, and that the murderer was unworthy of the throne. The name of Demetrius now became dear to the Russians; and the chancellor of the murdered czar declared, that he was so far from being dead, that he would soon recover of his wounds, and appear again at the head of his loyal subjects.

Accordingly, the chancellor traversed every part of Muscovy, with a young man in a litter, whom he called Demetrius, and treated as a sovereign. At the very name of Demetrius the people flew to arms; they fought several battles in his favour, without seeing him; but the chancellor's party having been defeated, the second Demetrius disappeared. The people however were so fond of this name, that a third Demetrius soon after arose in Poland. This man was more fortunate than the rest. He was supported by Sigismund, king of Poland, and laid siege to Moscow, where Zulfki resided. The tyrant was shut up in his capital, but he had still the widow of the first Demetrius, and the palatine of Sandomir, her father, in his power. The third Demetrius demanded the princess his wife. Zulfki delivered up both the father and the daughter, hoping, perhaps, to soften the king of Poland, or flattering himself that the palatine's daughter would disown him. He was however mistaken; the widow of the first, declared this third Demetrius to be her real husband; the palatine swore that this was his son-in-law, and the people made no doubt but it was true. The boyars, divided between Zulfki and the impostor, would acknowledge neither. They deposed Zulfki, and shut him up in a convent, where he finished his days; and Demetrius was assassinated at a public entertainment by a gang of Tartars, in the year 1610.

The throne of Russia being thus vacant, the boyars offered it to prince Uladislav, son to Sigismund, king of Poland. But before he had finished the necessary preparations for his journey to Moscow, a fourth Demetrius started up, and claimed the crown of Russia. This impostor pretended that God had constantly preserved him, though he had been assassinated at Uglis

by the orders of the tyrant Boris, at Moscow by the usurper Zulkii, and afterwards by the Tartars. This story, however improbable, was countenanced by many of the people; it was considered as a miracle, and as such it was believed. The town of Pleskou acknowledged him as czar; and there, for a few years, he fixed his residence. During this interval, the Russians repenting they had called in the Poles, drove them back to their own kingdom, and Sigismund renounced all hopes of seeing his son Ladislaus placed on the Russian throne. In the midst of these disturbances, Michael Federowitz, the son of the patriarch Fedor Romanow, or Philaretus, was made czar, at the age of seventeen, by the great influence of his father. All Russia acknowledged him for its sovereign, and the city of Pleskou delivered up to him the fourth Demetrius, who was hanged upon a gibbet.

A fifth Demetrius however still remained. He was the son of the first of that name, by the daughter of the palatine of Sandomir. His mother removed him from Moscow, when she went to meet the third Demetrius, and pretended to acknowledge him for her real husband. She afterwards retired with this child into the country of the Cossacks; and he was always considered, and probably really was, the grandson of John Basilides. But Michael Federowitz was no sooner seated on the Russian throne, than he obliged the Cossacks to deliver up the mother and child, who were both drowned.

It would hardly be expected that a sixth Demetrius should appear; but this was really the case. During the reign of Michael Federowitz, some young men bathing with a Cossack of their own age, they took notice of certain Russian characters on his back, pricked with a needle; and, on a more careful examination, found them to be, "Demetrius, son to the czar Demetrius." This person was immediately supposed to be the prince whom the czar Federowitz had caused to be drowned: a miracle had been wrought in his favour; and he was treated as the czar's son at the court of Uladislaus, in order to excite fresh disturbances in Russia. The untimely death of his protector, however, blasted all his hopes; he retired to Sweden, and afterwards to Holstein. Unfortunately for him, the duke of Holstein having sent an embassy into Russia in order to open a communication for a silk trade with Persia; but failing in the attempt, and having contracted considerable debts at Moscow, the duke of Holstein, in order to discharge these incumbrances, ungenerously delivered up Demetrius, who was quartered alive.

These kind of impostures sufficiently display the despicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were then immersed. But the time was now arrived when that empire began to know its own power, and to support that independence which was on the point of being extinguished.

It has been already observed, that the Russians had

offered their crown to Uladislaus. This offer was carried by Philaretus; and during his stay at the Polish court, his son was raised to the throne. Exasperated at the behaviour of the boyars, Sigismund committed Philaretus to prison: but being afterwards exchanged for some Polish prisoners, he held the reins of government for his son, with great prudence and discretion. If a government of this kind appears strange to those acquainted only with the legislative powers of modern times, the marriage of Michael, which was the method then in use, will appear still more uncommon though practised for several centuries in Russia.

The czar having declared his intention to marry most of the celebrated beauties in his dominions were sent for to court, and entertained in a very elegant manner. The czar saw them often, the wedding-day was fixed, and the necessary preparations for the solemnity was finished, before it was known on whom the happy lot had fallen. On the morning when the nuptial ceremony was to be performed, the fortunate lady was presented with a wedding-robe and a cascade of magnificent jewels; the other candidates also received valuable presents, and were sent to their respective places of abode. The name of the lady's father who pleased Michael was Streschmen, and he was ploughing his own little farm when the czar's chamberlain informed him that his daughter was placed upon the Russian throne. On the death of Michael Romanow which happened in 1645, his son Alexis Michaelowitch then in his seventeenth year, ascended the throne. He married in the same manner as his father, and chose the most amiable among the beauties presented to him. The tranquillity of his reign was disturbed both by bloody and furious commotions and foreign wars. He recovered the Ukraine, together with Smolensk and Kiow; though he was unfortunate in his wars against the Swedes. He was not, however, so wholly taken up with wars and military transactions, but he found leisure to draw up a code of laws, which, though imperfect, sufficiently proved that he had formed a proper idea of legislation and distributive justice. He cultivated a polite correspondence with most of the powers of Europe, introduced manufactures of silk and linen into his dominions, and peopled the banks of the Volga and Kama with Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar families taken in his wars. Before his time all prisoners became the slaves of those into whose hands they fell; Alexis made them husbandmen. Their labours enriched his country, and many of the Russians followed their example. Other schemes equally advantageous to his people were formed by this great prince, but before they could be carried into execution, death put a period to his life. He died suddenly in the beginning of the year 1675.

The death of this great prince was a dreadful blow to the Russian empire; confusion once more prevailed, and the blood of innocent persons again stained the streets of Moscow. Alexis left three sons and five daughters;

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daughters; the sons were Fædor or Theodore, Iwan
John, and Peter; the last was by a second marriage.
Among the daughters one only deserves attention in
the history of Russia. Her name was Sophia, a princess
famous for her talents, and still more for her ambition
and intrigues. Alexis, dreading the consequences of
leaving the Russians, so prone to rebellion, without
a prince upon the throne, had caused Theodore, his
eldest son, to be acknowledged emperor some time
before his death.
Theodore accordingly took possession of the govern-
ment on the decease of his father, without the least
opposition. He was a prince of a weak and sickly
constitution, but these infirmities had no effect upon
the vigour of his mind. He formed several schemes
for the good of his people; but the war in which he
was engaged against the Turks, or rather the Crim
Tartars, which continued during his whole reign, pre-
vented him from carrying them into execution. Theo-
dore soon perceiving that the crown of Russia was a
burthen too heavy for a person of his weak constitu-
tion, and that his brother Iwan, who was almost blind
and dumb, was still less able to support it, he nomi-
nated Peter, his second brother, then only ten years of
age, as his successor to the throne.
Peter had already given many indications of extra-
ordinary abilities, but his youth rendered him incapable
of holding the reins of government; and the ambitious
Sophia, perceiving her brother Theodore could not
long support the fatigues of royalty, determined, if
possible, to ascend the Russian throne, at least to sway
the sceptre during the minority of Peter. Accordingly
she formed a strong party among the Strelitzes, or
standing forces of Russia, by bribes and promises, and
immediately on the death of Theodore convened a
meeting of the princesses of the blood, the generals of
the army, the boyars, the patriarch, the bishops, and
even the principal merchants. In this assembly she
expatiated on the injustice of appointing Peter successor
to the throne in opposition to the natural right of his
brother Iwan; that the talents of the latter for govern-
ment were far from being contemptible; and that Peter
was too young to hold the reins of government.
These representations produced the desired effect;
a dreadful sedition was raised by the Strelitzes; many
of the nobles, who were thought to favour Peter, were
massacred with circumstances of cruelty shocking to
humanity; and Moscow again experienced all the
horrors of anarchy and confusion. But at last the
sword of assassination was sheathed, and Iwan and
Peter declared joint sovereigns of Russia, though Sophia
acquired the whole power, and was, in every thing but
title, the czarina of the empire. Her bust was struck
upon the coin, she presided in the council, she planned
and signed all expeditions, and her will became the
law of Russia.
Soon after Iwan was placed on the throne, he mar-
ried a young lady called Soltikoff; but during the

rejoicings that followed his espousals, the Strelitzes
fomented a dangerous sedition on account of some
religious disputes. The insurrection did not however
long continue, but soon after broke out with much
greater violence, under the influence of a popular
nobleman, to revenge himself on Sophia for her ingra-
titude, who had totally neglected his interest, though it
was principally to him that she owed her elevation.
He, however, thought proper to conceal his real mo-
tives under the mask of religion; a pretence which
cannot fail of rousing an ignorant bigotted people to
the most flagrant acts of injustice and cruelty.
Sophia, aware of the consequences that might prob-
ably attend this popular insurrection, retired with her
two brothers and the other branches of the royal family,
to the monastery of the Trinity, situated about twelve
leagues from Petersburg. This monastery, which be-
longs to the monks of St. Basil, is surrounded with
large ditches, and strong ramparts mounted with a
numerous artillery. In this place of safety Sophia
entered into a negotiation with the leader of the rebels;
and, under pretence of granting him his own terms,
she prevailed upon him to repair to a certain town in
the neighbourhood in order to sign the treaty. Deceived
by the artifices of Sophia, the nobleman, attended by
one of his sons, and thirty-seven of the officers of the
Strelitzes, repaired to the place, where they were all
immediately seized and beheaded. This rebellion
however convinced Sophia, that she wanted power
to sway the sceptre of Russia conformable to her
own will, and therefore determined to marry the
prince Galitzin, a man of sense, spirit, and some
learning. She had already placed him at the head
of the army, made him prime minister, and keeper of
the seals.
Peter, who was now in his eighteenth year, being
alarmed at the partiality of Sophia for Galitzin, deter-
mined to assert his right to the crown. Iwan and
Sophia were at Moscow when this resolution was
taken; but Peter had retired to the convent of the
Trinity, where he declared that a conspiracy was
formed against his life. He was immediately joined
by the Strelitzes, and many of the most powerful
nobility; upon which he marched directly for Mos-
cow, and Sophia, with her brother Iwan, were obliged
to retire to the monastery of the Trinity. All the
conspirators were punished with a severity common in
that country, except Galitzin, who was stripped of
his immense fortune, and banished into Siberia. His
sentence was very curious, it was as follows: "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 threepence per day for
thy subsistence." The princess Sophia was confined
to a monastery in Russia; a punishment sufficient to a
woman of her ambition. Nor had Iwan any other
share in the government, except that of having his
name.

name in the public acts. He led a private life at Moscow, and died in 1696.

On Peter's accession to the throne, he associated himself with foreigners, and laboured assiduously to improve his education, which had been greatly neglected through the ambition of his sister. He was, even from his infancy, fond of the arts, and shocked at the rude manners and ignorance of his subjects. His favourite Le Fort, a Piedmontese, encouraged this disposition; and at the same time raised and exercised a body of 12,000 men, among whom he introduced the French and German exercise, in order to render them capable of opposing the insolence of the Strelitzes; while general Gordon, a Scotchman, disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners.

This great prince, after providing for the internal peace of his dominions, began his travels into foreign parts, as an attendant on his own ambassadors. His adventures in Holland and England are at once too numerous and too well known to be repeated here. By working as a common shipwright in the yards of Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and prevailed on several very ingenious men to settle in Russia, in order to introduce the arts into his empire. At the same time he procured a great number of manufacturers from Germany to remove to Moscow, and other cities, in order to carry on their respective trades, to the great advantage of his subjects. The forces disciplined by Le Fort and Gordon were soon in a condition of crushing all insurrections and seditions, and even of exterminating the two feeble regiments of Strelitzes. Peter, in the mean time, preferred men of ability only; he paid no regard to nobility or fortune; merit alone was the passport to his favour; and possessed of merit, no man however poor or depressed, ever applied in vain. He himself rose gradually through every rank and service both in the fleet and army; and the many defeats he received from Charles XII. served only to extend the sphere of his ambition. After the fatal battle of Narva, the czar was so far from abandoning himself to despair, that when advice arrived of this alarming misfortune, he only said to his officers, "I expected to be defeated by the Swedes, and shall possibly be again defeated; but they will, in time, teach us to be conquerors." He was not deceived; the battles he lost added experience to his courage; and Charles, in his turn, was soon after totally defeated at Pultowa. The military and naval triumphs which readily succeeded one another, after that decisive victory, are far from forming the chief glories of Peter's reign. His assiduous application to the improvement of commerce, arts, and sciences, by which his people were enriched and civilized, place him in a more distinguished point of light; even among the few princes who have laboured for the benefit of mankind, and whose names will be mentioned with gratitude by posterity. Always intent on the civilization and happiness of his people, and

knowing that the life of any person is too short for completing so noble a design, he married a young Lithuanian woman, called Catherine, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier; because, after a long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul capable of executing his plans, and assisting his counsels.

The wisest and most fortunate princes are, however, not exempt from misfortunes. Peter experienced one of the sharpest of this kind in the undutiful behaviour of his son; who not only married without his royal parent's consent, but was also guilty of dangerous practices against his person and government. He was tried, and condemned to death; but died in prison before his sentence was carried into execution. Soon after the death of his son, he caused Catherine to be crowned with all the pompous ceremonies used by the Grecian princes while the eastern empire subsisted, and to be recognized as his successor. He died on the 28th of January 1725.

Catherine, who ascended the Russian throne on the death of the czar, governed that great empire by the same principles on which it had been founded; and during her whole reign was respected, both by her own subjects and all the powers of Europe, as the worthy successor of Peter the Great. She did not, however, long enjoy this high dignity; for she paid the debt of nature in 1797, after a short but glorious reign.

Peter II. grandson of Peter the Great, then a minor, ascended the throne on the death of Catherine. His reign, though short, was attended with many domestic revolutions; but the most remarkable was the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the principal favourite in the two last reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. He was a person of boundless ambition, and had formed a design of marrying his daughter to the czar. Possibly he might have succeeded, had he not, by an act of insolence, incurred the displeasure of the emperor, who disgraced and banished him into Siberia. He died of the small-pox on the nineteenth of January 1730.

The Russian senate, upon the death of Peter II. notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, ventured to set aside the succession, as it had been established by the empress Catherine. According to the will of that princess, the son of her eldest daughter, Anne Petrowna, duchess of Holstein, ought to have been called to the throne; but he being at that time not more than two years old, it was thought prudent, in order to avoid so tedious a minority, to place Anne Iwanowna, duchess of Courland, on the Russian throne, contrary to all the rules of succession for she was the second daughter of the emperor Iwan and her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg, was then alive. Her reign was however at once prosperous and glorious. She indeed accepted of the crown under limitations; but she soon cancelled them all, and banished the nobles who had imposed them upon her. She made choice of grave and wise persons for

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her ministers, and able and experienced methods, she was reputation, and regard to the many of her predecessor Charles V. placed Augustus throne of that kingdom to the duchy of successful war against, totally ruined Anna's death son of her sister placed on the Russian throne, 17 years old, Biron empire during his reign, and was not only to the people of distressed, tried, and was changed into nation of the present and agreeable to German connections for changing the throne. Peter the Great Petrowna, a prince and then about in court in her birth: and to that nation, he showed her misfortune the whole nation hearts of the people the ensigns of royalty, princes, and the populace, testified that some who had enjoyed the reward to hazard their lives either place her crown in the glorious one night put an ending saw her in place, and at his throne. The young were made prisoners. No sooner was government, than considered her worth successors. She introduced into a moderation till he made peace with Sweden that crown, as well most equitable foundation enjoyed a more Elizabeth. She was

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her ministers, and gave the command of her army to
able and experienced generals. By pursuing these wise
methods, she was enabled to govern her empire with
reputation, and to maintain the credit of Russia, with
regard to the rest of Europe, in as great a degree as
any of her predecessors. She nobly assisted the em-
peror Charles VI. against the house of Bourbon; she
placed Augustus, the late king of Poland, on the
throne of that kingdom; she raised her favourite Biron
to the duchy of Courland; she carried on a very suc-
cessful war against the Turks, and, in the course of
it, totally ruined the power of the Crim Tartars.

Anna's death happening in October 1740, John,
son of her sister the princess of Mecklenburg, was
placed on the Russian throne; but being then only two
years old, Biron was appointed administrator of the
empire during his minority. This destination was dis-
agreeable not only to the princess of Mecklenburg, but
also the people themselves. Biron was therefore soon
arrested, tried, and condemned to die; but his sentence
was changed into banishment. Nor was the admini-
stration of the princess of Mecklenburg and her hus-
band agreeable to the Russians, on account of their
German connections; and schemes were soon formed
for changing the government.

Peter the Great left a daughter called Elizabeth
Petrowna, a princess of distinguished accomplishments,
and then about thirty-eight years of age. She had
lived at court in a manner far from being suitable
to her birth; and the prudence of her behaviour,
joined to that magnanimity with which she sup-
ported her misfortunes, had such an influence on
the whole nation, that she had long reigned in the
hearts of the people, though others were invested with
the ensigns of royalty. At last, the whole Russian
nation, princes, nobility, senators, soldiers, and even
the populace, testified such an affection for her person,
that some who had served her father with fidelity, and
enjoyed the rewards of their services, determined
to hazard their lives and fortunes in her defence, and
to place her on the throne of her ancestors, or
perish in the glorious attempt. They succeeded; and
one night put an end to the contest; the sun at his
setting saw her nothing less than a prisoner in the
palace, and at his rising beheld her placed on the
throne. The young emperor, his father and mother,
were made prisoners, and sent to the castle of Riga.

No sooner was Elizabeth possessed of the reins of
government, than she displayed those virtues which
rendered her worthy to fill the throne of her illustrious
ancestors. She abolished capital punishments; and
introduced into all civil and military proceedings a
moderation till her time unknown in Russia. She
made peace with Sweden, and settled the succession to
that crown, as well as of her own dominions, on the
most equitable foundation. In a word, few princes
ever enjoyed a more uninterrupted career of glory than
Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the

Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great-Britain,
at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political,
and perhaps some private reasons, determined her to
take part with the house of Austria against the king of
Prussia. Her armies turned the scale in favour of the
empress-queen; and seemed to threaten destruction to
Prussia, which was saved by her critical death, on the
fifth of January 1762.

Whereupon Peter III. grand duke of Russia, and
duke of Holstein Gottorp, ascended the throne. This
prince is accused of having observed no rules of pru-
dence or moderation, either in his public or private
proceedings. It is certain that he mounted the throne
possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian
majesty's virtues, and whose principles he seemed to
have adopted as rules to direct his future reign. One
of his first acts of government was that of making
peace with Prussia, which gave some uneasiness to the
Russians. But in all probability he would have sur-
mounted the effects of this, and other particulars,
unpopular as they were in Russia, had not he aimed at
reforming the church. He even ventured to cut off the
beards of his clergy, which even Peter the Great had
attempted in vain. He highly offended the Russian
nobility by his warm attachment to the Germans. He
has also been accused of certain domestic infidelities,
which were too provoking for a princess of spirit and
fortitude to bear; and it is even said that he had formed
a design of shutting his consort up in a convent, and
raising his mistress, the countess of Woronzoff, to be
his partner in the throne. Whatever truth there may
be in these suggestions, it is certain that so ill was the
czar served, that the conspiracy was become general,
without his receiving the least notice of it; and he
remained in perfect security, whilst the senate and
clergy were assembled to pass the sentence of his
deposition. He was indulging himself in indolent
amusements, and lulled in the most profound security,
at a house of pleasure called Oraniebaum, on the sea-
shore, when he received news that his kingdom was
taken from him. After some short and tumultuous
deliberations, he resolved to throw himself on the
compassion of the empress; and accordingly sent letters
to her, containing a renunciation of the empire, and
stipulating no other terms than leave to return to
Holstein, and the satisfaction of taking with him, as
the companion of his retreat, the countess of Woron-
zoff, and one single friend. His terms were rejected,
and he was required to sign an unconditional resignation
of his crown, according to a form that was prepared
for him. After he had signed this abdication, which
was in July 1762, he gave up his sword, and was
conducted to prison, where in a short time he died of a
disorder called the hæmorrhoidal cholick. Thus was a
revolution of such immense importance effected in
a single day, and without shedding a single drop of
blood; the unfortunate emperor having enjoyed the
power, of which he made so imprudent an use, only
fix

six months. His consort, without any hereditary claim, was immediately placed on the Russian throne, and has since swayed the sceptre of that vast empire under the title of Catherine II.

This princess always pursued a very different conduct. She studied the Russian language, assiduously complied with the customs and manners which prevailed in that empire, and expressed, on all occasions, a remarkable zeal for the Greek church. By this method she obtained so great an influence over the minds of the Russians, that it was no difficult task to bring about a revolution which placed her on the throne. The most remarkable domestic transaction of her reign hitherto, is the death of prince Iwan, son to the princess of Mecklenburgh, and, while in his cradle, emperor of Russia. He lost his life in an ill-concerted conspiracy, formed by a few private officers: to place him on the throne.

Russia has always considered the internal quiet of Poland as a capital object; and this induced her imperial majesty to take a principal part with regard to the election of the present prince to the throne, and to secure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Dissidents, or the Greek and Protestant subjects of Poland. This gave great umbrage to the Roman-Catholic Poles; and the Russian troops still continuing in their country, first occasioned a civil war, and afterwards the forming of the most dreadful confederacies, which have rendered Poland a scene of slaughter and devastation.

The conduct of Russia respecting Poland gave so much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand signor sent Obreskoff, the Russian minister, to the prison of the seven towers, declared war against Russia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Russia and Poland, whereupon hostilities soon commenced between these rival and mighty empires.

In the months of February and March 1763, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of those people, supported by 10,000 spahis, having broken the Russian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off some thousand families captive. In April following, the grand vizier, at the head of a great army, began his march from Constantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube.

Mean time, prince Gallitzin, who commanded the Russian army on the banks of the Niester, thought this a proper time to attempt something decisive, before the arrival of the great Turkish force in that quarter. Having accordingly crossed the Niester with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in sight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince, having made the necessary dispositions, attacked the Turks in their intrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and, notwithstanding an obstinate defence, and a dreadful fire

from the fortrefs, at length forced them from their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Russian army; but they had such a warm reception from the artillery, that they soon retired in great disorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to pursue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did so effectually, that they followed them into the suburbs of Choczim, and their pursuit was at length only stopped by the palisadoes of the fortrefs. The town was soon after set on fire by red-hot balls; and a great number of Jews and Christians took refuge in the Russian camp. It might have been expected, from these successes, that Choczim would have immediately fallen into the hands of the Russians; but this was not the case, for prince Gallitzin thought proper to retire from the place, and repass the Niester: his reasons were, that Choczim was garrisoned by 18,000 men well provided with artillery; that several bodies of Turkish troops appeared in the neighbourhood; that the country was so wasted that the army could not be supplied with provisions; and that, not having sufficient artillery along with him, he chose for the present to suspend his design of besieging the place.

During these operations between the Russians and Turks on the side of Europe, the Tartar Asiatic nations, in the different interests of these powers, extended the rage of war into another quarter of the globe. A bloody engagement was fought, on the 9th of May, between the Kalmucks and those Tartars that inhabit the banks of the Cuban, lying between the Black and the Caspian seas. This engagement continued from two in the afternoon till sun-set; when the Kalmucks, assisted by some Russian officers, with a detachment of dragoons and Cossacks, and two pieces of cannon, obtained a complete victory, having made a great slaughter of the enemy, as the Kalmucks gave no quarter. The European Tartars, on the other hand, penetrated into the Russian Ukraine, on the side of Backmuth, where they committed great ravages.

A very obstinate battle was fought, on the 13th of July, between a considerable Turkish army and the Russians under prince Gallitzin, near Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Russians immediately invested the town; but the garrison being numerous, made frequent sallies, and was greatly strengthened by reinforcements from the grand vizier's camp, who was now considerably advanced on this side the Danube. Several actions ensued, and prince Gallitzin was at length obliged to retreat from before Choczim, and again repass the Niester. The Russians are supposed to have lost 20,000 men by the siege of Choczim and the actions consequent to it. The grand vizier, who had the management of this war, had acted with that prudence which it has been thought would have proved fatal to the designs of the Russians, if the same conduct had been afterwards pursued: but the army he

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displeas'd the janissaries; so that in consequence of their
clamours, and the weakness of the counsels that pre-
vail'd at the Ottoman court, he at length became a fac-
tious; and Moldovani Ali Pacha, who possess'd more
courage than conduct, was appointed to succeed him in
the command of the army.

The Russian general Romanzow, during these trans-
actions, committed great devastations upon the Turks
in the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plun-
dered and burnt several towns and villages, defeated a
Turkish detachment, and carried off a great booty of
cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in
Poland, where they almost totally destroyed the palati-
nate of Brucklaw, besides doing much mischief in other
places.

In the beginning of September, the Russian army
appeared again on the banks of the Niester, in order to
obtain the passage of that river against the Turks, whose
whole army, under the command of the new vizier,
was posted on the opposite shore. The two armies be-
ing thus situated, on the 3d of September, 8000 Turks,
consisting entirely of janissaries and spahis, the two most
celebrated corps of the bravest and best disciplined
Turkish horse and foot, pass'd the river in the night,
and at break of day attack'd a body of Russians who
were encamped on this side. Prince Reppin, who was
station'd near the spot, march'd immediately to the relief
of this corps, and attack'd the Turks at the head of
four regiments with fixed bayonets. The engagement
was furious and bloody; but at length the Turks were
driven back, and pursu'd to the river, which they endeav-
our'd to pass in the utmost disorder and confusion;
above 4000 of their number being either killed or
wounded in this ill-judg'd attempt.

This misfortune was not sufficient to convince the
vizier, who was rash and obstinate, of the danger of
sending detachments across a great river, in the face of
a powerful enemy, without a communication with the
main army, or the least probability of support. Hav-
ing therefore laid three bridges over the Niester, the
Turkish army, without making use of any stratagem or
deception, began to pass the river in the face of the
enemy. Prince Gallitzin, having perceiv'd this motion
early in the morning of the 9th of September, imme-
diately attack'd those troops that had cross'd the river
in the night; who consequently could neither choose
their ground, nor have time to extend or form them-
selves properly where they were. Notwithstanding
these great disadvantages, the engagement was very fe-
re, and continued from seven in the morning till noon.
The Turks fought with great oblinacy; but they were
at length totally defeated, and oblig'd to repass the
river with considerable loss, and in the greatest disorder
and confusion. It was comput'd that about 60,000
Turks cross'd the river before and during the time of
the engagement. Prince Gallitzin charg'd at the head
of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who

destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. The loss
of the Turks, in this battle, is said to have amount'd
to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and
prisoners, and a great number who were drowned.

Though the ill conduct of the vizier had greatly con-
tributed to this capital misfortune, yet this considera-
tion did not deter him from engaging in another opera-
tion of the same nature. He now laid but one bridge
over the river, which he had the precaution to cover
with large batteries of cannon, and prepar'd to pass
over with the whole army. Accordingly, on the 17th
of September, 8000 janissaries, and 4000 regular ca-
valry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, pass'd
over with a large train of artillery; and the rest of the
army were in motion to follow, when a sudden and ex-
traordinary swell of the waters of the Niester carri'd
away and totally destroy'd the bridge. The Russians
lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected
advantage. A most desperate engagement ensu'd, in
which the slaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not
only the field of battle, but the river, over which some
few hundreds of Turks made their escape by swim-
ming, was for several miles cover'd with dead bodies.
The Russians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150
colours and horse-tails. The Turks immediately broke
up their camp, and abandon'd the strong fortress of
Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery,
and retir'd tumultuously towards the Danube. Prince
Gallitzin plac'd a garrison of four regiments in the
fortress of Choczim, and soon after resign'd the com-
mand of the army to general Romanzow, and return'd
to Petersburg, cover'd with laurels. The Turks
were much exasperated at the ill conduct of their com-
mander; and it was comput'd that they lost 28,000 of
their best and bravest troops within little more than a
fortnight; and that 40,000 more abandon'd the army,
and totally desert'd, in the tumultuous retreat to the
Danube.

The war continu'd to be carried on successfully by
the Russians, who over-ran the great province of Mol-
davia; while general Elmpt took possession of the ca-
pital city of Jassy without opposition: and as the Greeks
in this province had always secretly favour'd the Rus-
sians, they now took this opportunity of their success,
and the absence of the Turks, to declare themselves
openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and af-
terwards those of Wallachia, also acknowledg'd the
empres of Russia as their sovereign, and took oaths of
fidelity to her.

On the 18th of July 1770, general Romanzow de-
feat'd a Turkish army near the Larga: the Turks are said
to have amount'd to 80,000 men, and were command'd
by the khan of the Crimea; and, on the 2d of August,
the same general obtain'd a still greater victory over
another army of the Turks, command'd by a new grand
vizier. This army, though very numerous, was totally
defeat'd; above 7000 Turks are said to have been kill'd
on the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube

were

were covered with dead bodies. There fell into the hands of the Russians some thousand carriages laden with provisions, 143 pieces of cannon, and a vast quantity of ammunition.

The Russians not only carried on the war successfully against the Turks by land; for the empress sent a considerable fleet of men of war, Russian-built, into the Mediterranean, to act against the Turks on that side; and, by means of this fleet, the Russians spread ruin and desolation through the open islands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceless coasts of Greece and Asia; in which attempt they were greatly assisted by the English.

The war continued for some time to be carried on between the Russians and Turks, both by land and sea, to the advantage of the former. Some attempts were, however, at length made to negotiate a peace; but it was a long time before matters could be accommodated between their great contending powers; hostilities were repeated, suspended, and afterwards renewed: but at last a peace was concluded, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, and by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire. For an ample account of the naval transactions during this war, we must refer our readers to the concluding part of the history of the Turks, which closes the description of that nation.

The war with the Turks was not quite concluded, when a rebellion broke out in Russia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterburg. A cosack, whose name was Pugatcheff, took upon him to personate the late unfortunate emperor Peter III. He appeared in the kingdom of Kafan, and pretended that he made his escape through an extraordinary interposition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to assassinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. He is said to have greatly resembled the late emperor in his person; which circumstance induced him to engage in this enterprise. As he possessed abilities and address, his followers soon became very numerous; and he at length found himself so powerful, and his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he stood several engagements with able Russian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country: but he was at last totally defeated and taken prisoner; and, being brought to Moscow in an iron cage, he was, on the 21st of January 1775, beheaded in that city.

Notwithstanding the very unfavourable circumstances the empress of Russia was subject to, on her taking possession of the government of that extensive empire, it is on all sides allowed that she has, from the commencement of her reign, continued to govern with distinguished reputation and ability. She has endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her subjects; and, as far as the extreme despotism of the Russian government would

permit, has given great encouragement to learning and the arts and sciences. Many beneficial and important regulations have been made by her in the interior police of her vast empire; one of which is, the abolition of the use of torture; besides adopting an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. But one of the most remarkable transactions of her reign, is her establishment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from belligerent powers. In 1780, her imperial majesty invited to it those powers not at war; and the kings of Sweden and Denmark and the States-General accordingly acceded to it the same year.

In the year 1793, the flames of war again broke out, in which the Russians and Danes united their forces against the Swedes, whose bravery was greatly signalized against the enemy, particularly at sea, under the conduct of the duke of Sudermania. The king of Sweden also attacked the Russian fleet in the road of Revel on the 13th of May; in this engagement the Russians had eleven ships of the line and five frigates, which were supported by the guns of the works and several batteries; notwithstanding which, the Russians received much damage, and had it not been for a storm, during which the wind changed, and the Swedish ships could not use their lower-deck guns, and many of them could not keep their place in the line, the Russian fleet must have been ruined.

The Swedes also, in the same month, entered the Russian territories, and possessed themselves of a very strong post called Karnankosky, on the borders of the lake Saima, where the Russians, with 10,000 men, made an attempt to dislodge them. The Swedes withstood their assault, and repulsed the Russians, who are said to have left near 2000 men on the field.

After various success in the course of this war, the contending parties seemed disposed for peace. The same motives which, for a series of years, had rendered Gustavus the devoted instrument of France; the same motives which had induced him to sacrifice the lives of his people in the present contest, might be employed to convert him from the enemy into the ally of Russia: on the 14th of August 1790, therefore, a convention was signed between the courts of Russia and Sweden, and was ratified in six days after. The basis of the convention was, a general treaty of peace and amity, an alliance of the strictest nature, and an agreement that the boundaries of their respective territories should remain the same as confirmed by the treaties of Abo and Nyfstadt. Thus, at the close of the year 1790, the empress had the satisfaction to see her conquests no longer bounded by the course of the Danube.

After several actions between the Imperialists (since confederates in the war with Russia) and the Turks, in which the emperor's troops were for the most part victorious, an engagement took place, in Sept. 1790, near Tobak in Bessarabia, between prince Repnin and Hafan Ali, late casitan pacha, in which, his men being

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struck with panic and alarm, obliged him to a precipitate retreat. The Russians made themselves masters of the Turkish camp, and Hassan was obliged to retire with speed as far as Ismail. About the same time, an action was fought between the van-guard of the army of prince Potemkin and a body of Turks, at Canschan near Bender, in which the Russians obtained the victory.

The last act of this protracted campaign, which was not interrupted even by the severity of winter, how much soever it might contribute to the advantage, certainly did not redound to the honour, of Russia; and princes, that, whatever steps may have been taken by the present or other sovereigns of this empire to produce a forced civilization, both the monarchs and the people of Russia are still barbarians. The reader will easily perceive that what ensued on the taking of Ismail is alluded to in this reflection. The progress of the Russians, during the whole of the war, was indeed marked with blood and cruelty; but all their former executions were exceeded by the horror of their proceedings at Ismail. That place had been fortified during the war, and, previous to the siege, had been reinforced by the Tower of the Turkish army.

On the 22d of December 1790, the town was taken by storm by general Suwarow; and it is said that the siege and the capture did not cost the Russians less than 10,000 men. The most shocking part of the transaction is, that the garrison (whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the highest honours) was massacred in cold blood by the mercilefs Russians, to the amount of, by their own account, upwards of 30,000 men; and the place was given up to the unrestrained fury of the brutal soldiery. The most horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceless inhabitants, and the conduct of the conquerors resembled more that of a horde of cannibals than of a civilized people. After this bloody scene, the Russians went into winter quarters; the vizier retired towards Constantinople, and, on his return, fell a sacrifice to the sanguinary policy which has long disgraced the Ottoman councils.

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Russia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a subsequent victory on the 12th, by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, when the Turks lost not less than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th, the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish the intention of besieging Brailow.

In the month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutusow. On the 3d of July the fortress of Anape was taken by general Gudowitsch, and the garrison, to the amount of 6000 men, made prisoners. This event was followed, on the 9th of the same month, by a signal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of

70,000, the flower of the Turkish army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and lost their entire camp, equipage, colours, and thirty pieces of cannon. The Russians are said to have lost only 150 men killed, and between two and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorously carried on, and the arms of the empress being almost every where successful, the Porte was disposed to treat of peace. The negotiation, after being some time protracted, was at length opened on the 11th of August 1791, when peace was concluded between the czarina and the Porte upon these terms: that Russia should confine her views to the possession of Oczakow, with the district extending from the Bog to the Nicster, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. These conditions, if we consider the ill success of the war, cannot be accounted very disadvantageous to the Porte, who has lost a fortress more useful for the purpose of annoying Russia, than for defending their own territories; but certainly of considerable importance to Russia, who, by this cession, has secured to herself the peaceable enjoyment of the Crimea. Add to this, that peace was probably, at this period, the more desirable to Russia, from an event which, while it enlarged the scale of human happiness and liberty, certainly was calculated to countenance, in no small degree, the unwarrantable usurpations of that ambitious power.

Catherine II. the present empress of all the Russias, princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, was born in May 1729, and ascended the throne in 1762. She was married to her late husband, while duke of Holstein-Gottorp, in 1745, by whom she has issue Paul Petrowitz, great duke of Russia, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and has had two sons, Alexander and Conitantine, and a daughter, named Alexandrina Pawleona, by his present duchess the princess of Wirtemberg.

C H A P. VIII.

I S L A N D S O F S C O T L A N D.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Inhabitants, Animal and Vegetable Productions, Curiosities, &c.

BEFORE we proceed to the description of the ancient kingdom of Scotland, we shall treat of the islands belonging to it, and, to avoid prolixity, comprehend them under one head. They consist of three clusters, those of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides or Western Isles.

SHETLAND ISLANDS lie north-east of the Orcaides, or Orkney Islands, between 60 and 61 deg. of north lat. and are part of the shire of Orkney. The Orcaides lie north of Dungsby-Head, between 59 and 60 deg. of north lat. divided from the continent by a tem-

pestuous freight called Pentland Frith, twenty-four miles long and twelve broad. The Hebrides, or Western Islands are very numerous, and some of them large, situated between 55 and 59 deg. of north lat. these lie scattered in the Deucalidian sea, to the north-west of Scotland.

The air of these islands is salutary, but keen and piercing, except in summer, when it is very serene. During the months of June and July, the inhabitants can see to read at midnight; but then they are subject to a winter of eight months, in which season they are involved in darkness, storms, and fogs. In summer their sea is covered with fishing-vessels belonging to different nations, who resort thither to catch herrings, with which their coast abounds; but from October to May, they are deprived of every communication with other countries; and not a single ship is seen on their coast. The soil is in general rocky and sandy, and consequently barren in many places.

Many of the Shetland islands (which are forty-six in number) are uninhabited, Mainland is the largest, being sixty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Larwick is the principal town, and contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the island not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where may be seen the remains of a castle, and it is the seat of a presbytery. The Dutch begin at Midsummer to fish for herrings on the coast of this island, and their fishing-season lasts six months. The Shetlanders derive a great advantage from this fishery. A great traffic is carried on between these islanders and the people of Hamburg and Bremen, who take in return for brandy, spices, &c. their live stock, hosiery, and mittens.

The ORKNEY ISLANDS are about thirty in number but most of them unpeopled; the largest is called Pomona, being thirty-three miles in length, and nine in breadth, in some places. It contains nine parish churches, and has four excellent harbours. The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by fourteen pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed and elegantly flowered.

MULL, one of the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in some places almost as broad. It contains two parish churches, and a castle, called Duert, which is the chief place in the island. The other principal western islands are Lewis, or Harris, both which form one island, which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is 100 miles in length, and thirteen or fourteen in breadth; its chief town is Stornaway.

SKY, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is forty miles long, and thirty broad in some places; fruitful, and well peopled

BUTE, about ten miles long, and three or four

broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothsay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales.

ROTHSAY is likewise a royal burgh; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute.

ILA and JURA are part of Argyreshire, and contain together 370 square miles, but they have in them no remarkable towns.

NORTH ULST contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fishing.

Many other of the Hebrides islands are of small importance either to the public or the proprietors, though, by the very improveable fisheries upon their coasts, it is not unlikely they may in future times be of great consequence to both.

JONA was once famous for being the seat and sanctuary of ancient learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway.

ST. KILDA, or HIPP, is the remotest of all the north-west islands, and very difficult of access: it contains about thirty-five families.

The inhabitants of Shetland were originally emigrants from Norway, to which for many years they paid a tribute called Schet, from whence their new settlement derived the name of Schetland. But some centuries ago these islands were ceded to the king of Scotland, for a valuable consideration, and have ever since been annexed to the Scottish crown, and, with the isles of Orkney, form a shire. The Shetlanders are in general simple, honest, religious, hospitable, humane, and commonly live to a great age. Those who possess estates, are of Scotch extraction, and live in as great elegance as the gentry of that kingdom; but the poorer sort of people subsist chiefly upon fish, which supplies them with light as well as food; for they make an oil of it, which they burn in lamps during the continuance of their long winter; when, having no wood, they make fires of turf, peat, and heath. Their common drink is butter-milk mixed with water and whey; which latter, by a peculiar method of fermentation, acquires a vinous quality, when they barrel it for use.

The people who inhabit the lesser isles subsist upon the eggs and flesh of sea-fowl, the first of which they obtain at the imminent hazard of their lives, climbing up the rocks to the nests, or being lowered down to them by ropes, over dreadful precipices. These islanders, in general, enjoy an excellent state of health, and, when attacked by any disease, seldom employ a physician. They are subject to the scurvy, which they cure with the cochlearia or scurvy-grass, and their sovereign remedy for the jaundice is powder of snail-shells.

The inhabitants of the Hebrides are descended from the same ancestors with those who live in the High-lands of Scotland, to whose customs they entirely conform; but are much more simple and industrious.

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They are in general strong, vigorous, and healthy. The men are fond of tobacco to excess, and make use of it in all the different ways of chewing, smoking, and snuff. They sometimes eat flesh, but their most common food consists of oatmeal, cheese, butter, milk, and whey. The better sort of people live very comfortably, but the poor dwell in wretched cabins built of loose stones and mud, and thatched with straw. The partitions within are no other than a kind of hurdle, plastered with clay, and they have neither glass in their windows, nor any other chimney, than a hole in the centre of the roof, immediately under which is a hearth made of stone, whereon they burn wood, peat, or turf. Around this hearth the family sit in the day time, and lie at night, during the winter.

At the further end of the same house, the cattle are stalled, and the children, calves, and pigs, frequently sleep all together; for these people are exceedingly cleanly, and to this sluttishness in themselves and habitations may be imputed that inveterate itch with which they are so generally infected. The attachment of these islanders to their chieftains is remarkably strong, notwithstanding great pains have been taken by the legislature of Great-Britain to overcome connections so dangerous to government. Both sexes are exceedingly fond of dancing to their own music, and the men are very expert and agile in all the exercises of the field.

With regard to that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which distinguishes the inhabitants of the Hebrides, under the name of second sight, we shall neither undertake to disprove, nor can we readily admit the reality of the instances produced on the subject. Though the adepts in these visions pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations, either really or typically, which swim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of twenty-four or forty-eight hours; yet it does not appear, from the best information, that any two of those adepts agree as to the manner and forms of those revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that those islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overhear their imaginations, till they are presented with those phantoms which they mistake for fatidical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that amidst many thousands of predictions, some did not happen to be fulfilled; and these, being well attested, give a sanction to the whole. In short, the fallacy of these pretended prophecies has been so often demonstrated, that they are at present ridiculed by many of the common people.

The islands of Orkney, which were originally peopled from Norway, were formerly sometimes subjected to the Norwegians, and at others to the Scots, just as the chance of war determined; but at length

they were entirely ceded to Alexander, king of Scotland, by Magnus, king of Norway, for the sum of 4000 marks sterling, and an annual acknowledgment of 100 more.

The genteeler sort of people in these islands are exceedingly polite, hospitable, frugal, sagacious, circumspect, and religious; conforming themselves entirely to the manners of the Scots, from whom they are in general descended. The common people, particularly the mariners, are bold, active, dextrous, hardy, and inured to fatigue even from their infancy. They are exceedingly adventurous, both in fishing, and in climbing the rocks for the eggs and down of sea-fowl. Their common food is salt-fish, which subjects them to severe attacks of the scurvy. In most disorders they make use of plants, but being exceedingly superstitious, they put great faith in charms and amulets. These people, like the Shetlanders, are remarkable for longevity.

The population of these three divisions of islands cannot be given with certainty. They are represented by credible historians as having been much better peopled about 400 years ago, than they are at present: for the Hebrides themselves were often known to send 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture: it is said, their numbers do not now exceed 48,000. The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly Presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but Popery and ignorance still prevail among some of the islanders; whilst they are extremely addicted to superstitious practices and customs. The language of the inhabitants of the Hebrides seems to be a compound of the Danish, Norwegian, and that of other northern people, but in no degree approaches to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which has been the received, though erroneous opinion, of many learned men.

Iron, tin, lead, and silver mines; marble, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon these islands; also talc, crystals, and numbers of curious pebbles; and they are not destitute of fine fresh water, nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. The present face of the soil is bare, and unornamented with trees, except a few that are reared in gardens; but experience daily shews, that, if the soil of the northern and western islands was, till of late barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it must have been owing to its want of improvement by cultivation; for such spots as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-stuff, more than sufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Many of these islands have been the habitations of the Druids, whose temples are still visible in most of them; and those temples were surrounded with groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The slumps of former trees, however, are discernible, as are many vestiges of grandeur, even since the admission of the Christian religion;

religion; which prove the decrease of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants.

The trade and commodities of these islands are in their infancy. Their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which are the best in the world, and, when properly cured, are superior even to those of the Dutch. They carry on likewise a considerable trade in down and feathers; and their wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths, stockings, and a variegated stuff called tartan, and the linen manufactures, make no small progress in these islands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter, as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. From the Orkneys, they annually export, besides cattle, skins of seals, otters, lambs, and rabbits; also corn, butter, tallow, salt, down, feathers, writing quills, and hains; to which we may add, wool and stuffs, the only manufacture they have.

Most of the birds and fishes common to the northern countries are to be found here; besides which, here is a species of falcon or hawk, of a more docile nature than any that are to be found elsewhere. The Shetland islands are famous for a small breed of horses, which are exceedingly active, strong, and hardy, and frequently seen in the streets of London, yoked to the splendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The Orkneys bear plentiful crops of barley, and oats will come to perfection. In these islands are also, besides a great variety of cattle, all kinds of domestic animals, and poultry. Plenty of red deer, partridges, grouse, heath-cock, and plover, are found on the heaths and commons; and the waters abound in duck, teal, and widgeon. The sea, besides whales, seals, and otters, furnishes the inhabitants with cod, ling, tusk, herrings, crabs, oysters, remarkable large muscles and cockles. The rocks are covered with eagles, hawks, kites, wild geese, solan geese, barnacles, lipes, and other species of wild fowl.

The artificial curiosities consist chiefly in the remains of Druidical monuments, ancient castles, and churches. The first are found in many of the islands; but the most remarkable is situated near the village of Clatsknifs in the island of Lewis. This monument consists of thirty pyramidal stones standing upright, about six or seven feet high above the surface of the ground; forming a kind of avenue eight feet wide, leading to a circle of twelve stones of the same dimensions, and one in the centre. The central stone is thirteen feet high, and shaped like the rudder of a ship. On the east, south, and west sides of this circle, are four stones similar to those which compose the circle and avenue, forming three right lines, or rays, issuing from the body of the circle. This is supposed to have been a Druid temple, and the inhabitants have a tradition that the chief Druid stood by the large stone in the centre, and harangued the audience.

The ancient fortifications are principally those erected by the Danes, and consist of watch-towers, beacons, and a great number of caves, or caverns, some of which are capacious, and almost impregnable.

A great variety of ecclesiastical antiquities, consisting of the ruins of churches, convents, and other structures dedicated to religion, are found in many of these islands; but the most remarkable are those on Jona, or St. Columb-kill. According to ancient tradition, St. Columba first landed in this island from Ireland; and after converting the Picts by his preaching the Christian religion, the king bestowed this island on him as a mark of his gratitude for the eminent service he had done his country. But however that be, it is certain that he erected in that island two churches and two monasteries, and instituted a seminary which soon became famous for learning and sanctity. Here the remains of ancient literature were cultivated and preserved, when it was almost obliterated in other parts of Europe, by a deluge of ignorance and superstitious bigotry. These foundations were richly endowed by the kings of Scotland, and lords of the isles; Jona became the residence of the bishop of the isles, and on account of its supposed sanctity, was chosen as the burial place for kings, heroes, and ecclesiastical persons.

The church of St. Mary is built in the form of a cross, and in the Gothic style of architecture. On each side of the choir are two chapels, adorned at the entrance with large pillars carved in bas-relief; the steeple, doors, and windows, are decorated with curious fretwork: the altar is large, magnificent, and composed of fine polished marble. Several abbots are interred within the church, and among these, MacHikenich, whose statue of black marble, as big as the life, is placed over his tomb, in an episcopal habit with his mitre and crozier. Behind the church are the ruins of a cloister, library, and hall. At the west end of the church is a small cell, where we find the tomb of St. Columba, but without any inscription. Near it stands the cross of St. Martin, an entire piece of porphyry, eight feet high, placed on a pedestal, and exhibiting on the east side the figure of a tree, and on the west a large crucifix. On the south side of the church of St. Oran is the cemetery, where the kings and chieftains lie buried under shrines. Here are three vaults distinguished by inscriptions, now not legible. In that on the right hand, four kings of Ireland lie interred: in that on the left, eight kings of Norway; and in the middlemost, forty-eight kings of Scotland.

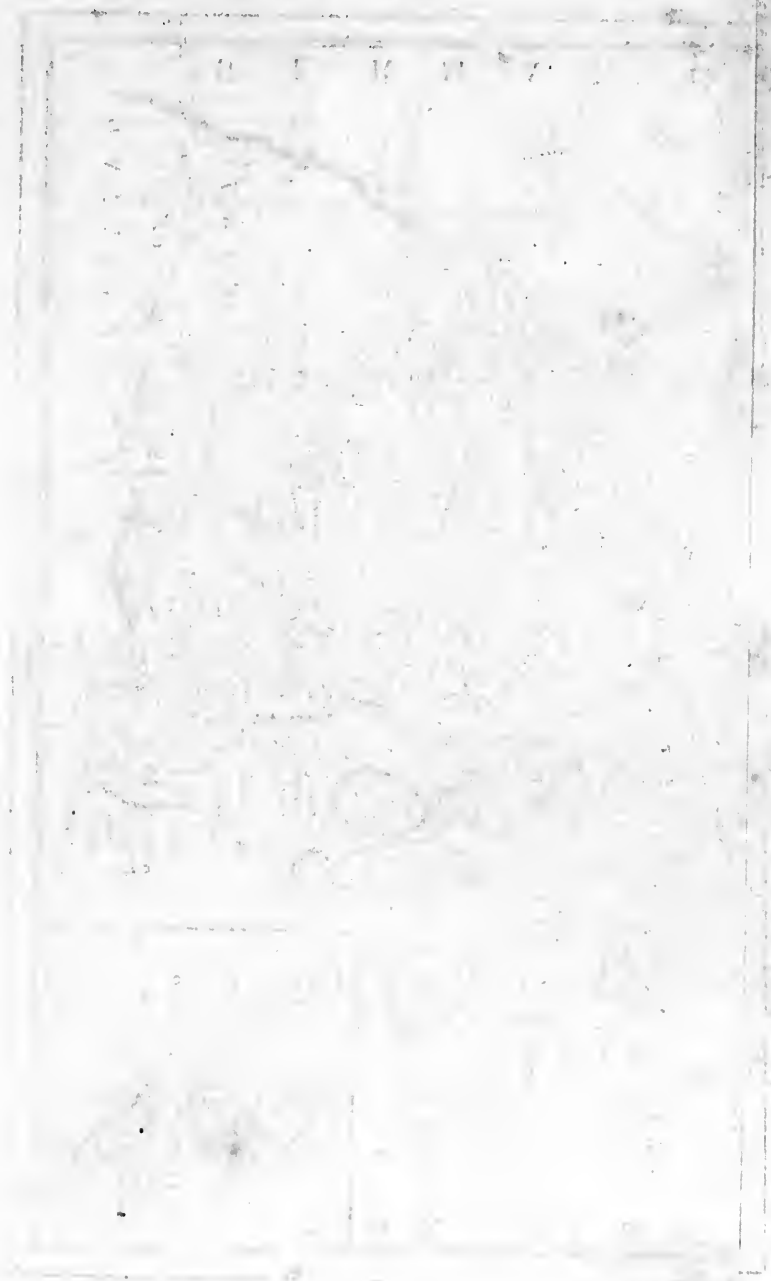
In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone called a dwarf stone, thirty-six feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size, for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the

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a pillow cut out of the



the stone, big enough for two men to lie on; at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in these islands; and the gigantic bones found in many burial-places here, give room to believe that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine silver fibulae, or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that these parts were not unknown to the Romans.

The natural curiosities in these islands are very numerous: they abound with rocks of various uncommon forms, prodigious caverns, and cataracts. But the whirlpool, or vortex, near Jurah, called Cory-Vielan, must not be passed over without notice. It is situated between the north-end of Jurah, and the small island of Scarba. In this vortex, which extends about a mile in breadth, the sea begins to boil and ferment with the tide of flood, increasing gradually to a number of whirlpools, which, in the form of pyramids, spout up the water with a great noise, as high as the mast of a small vessel, agitated into such a foam, as gives the sea a white appearance, at two leagues distance. About half flood the violence begins to decrease, and continues gradually subsiding, till about half an hour after high-water, when the smallest fishing-boat may cross it without the least danger. And Sir Joseph Banks, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, gives us the following description of one of the most astonishing appearances in nature. "We were no sooner arrived (says this gentleman) than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine probability: the whole of that end of the island (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonades, 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 vallies; 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 into the shape of those used in architecture." But the most striking object in this field of scenery is Fingal's Cave, thus described by Mr. Banks: "We proceeded along the shore, treading upon another Giant's Causeway, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of the most magnificent cave that has probably ever been described by travellers. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and

roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and, to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the furthest extremity is very plainly seen from without; and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns generally abound." The length of this wonderful cave, from the arch without, is 371 feet; from the pitch of the arch, 250; breadth at the mouth, 53; height of the arch at the mouth, 117; at the end, 70; height of an outside pillar, 39; of one at the N. W. corner, 54; depth of the water at the mouth, 18; at the bottom, nine feet.

On the west side of the island of Pabbay, a stream running down the face of a rock petrifies into a white hard substance, of which the natives make excellent lime.

For an account of learning, learned men, and history, the reader is referred to the ensuing description of SCOTLAND.

C H A P. IX.

S C O T L A N D.

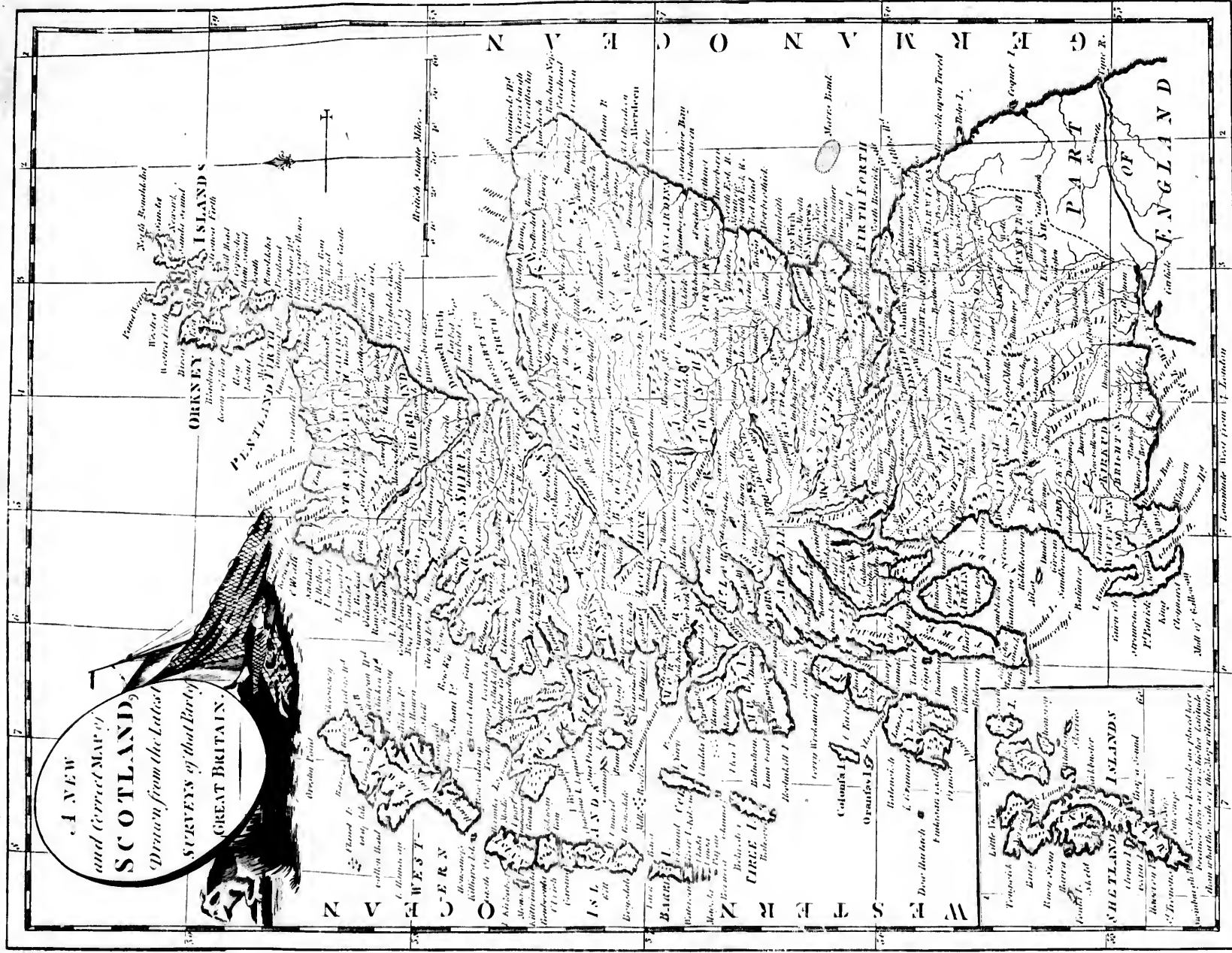
Situation, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Rivers, &c. Produce, Population, Inhabitants, Customs, Cities, Fisheries, &c.

SCOTLAND, or **NORTH BRITAIN**, is situated between 54 and 59 deg. of north lat. and between 1 and 6 deg. of west long. It is about 300 miles in length, 150 in breadth, and contains an area of 27,794 square miles; being bounded on the north by the Deucaledonian Ocean, on the south by England, on the east by the German Ocean, and on the west by the Irish Sea.

This country is termed, by the Italians, *Scotia*; by the Spaniards, *Escotia*; by the French, *Escosse*; and Scotland, by the Scots, Germans, and English. The word *Scot* is a corruption of *Scyth*, or *Scythian*, the Scots having descended from the inhabitants of that immense country called *Scythia* by the ancients.

Scotland is divided into two parts, separated by the Frith of Forth; Edinburgh is the capital of the southern division, and Aberdeen the chief town of the northern. The northern contains fifteen counties, and the southern eighteen, and these counties are subdivided as follow:

A NEW
and Correct MAP of
SCOTLAND
Drawn from the Latest
SURVEYS of that Part of
GREAT BRITAIN.



As the above Islands are placed here because they are the only Islands which are situated in the Channel, and are the only Islands which are situated in the Channel.

SHERIFFS.	SHERIFFDOMS & OTHER SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Edinburgh.....	Mid-Lothian.....	Edinburgh, Musselburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington.....	East-Lothian.....	Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick.
3. Merse, anciently Berwick	The Merches and Bailiery of Lauderdale	Dunfermline and Lauder.
4. Roxborough.....	Tiviodale, Lidfdale, Elkdale, and Eufdale.....	Jedburgh, Kelfo, and Melros.
5. Selkirk.....	Etrick Forest.....	Selkirk.
6. Peebles.....	1. veddale.....	Peebles.
7. Lanerk.....	Clydesdale.....	Glasgow, Hamilton, Lanerk, and Ratherglen.
8. Dumfries.....	Nithsdale, Annandale.....	Dumfries, Annan.
9. Wigtown.....	Galloway, W. Part.....	Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kirkcudbright.....	Galloway, E. Part.....	Kirkcudbright.
11. Aire.....	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham.....	Aire, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarston, and Salcots.
12. Dumbarton.....	Lenox.....	Dumbarton.
13. Bute, and } 14. Caithness }	Bute, Arran, Caithness.....	Rothsay, Wick, Thurso.
15. Renfrew.....	Renfrew.....	Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, and Port Glasgow.
16. Stirling.....	Stirling.....	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow.....	West-Lothian.....	Linlithgow, Burroughstonness, and Queen's-Ferry.
18. Argyle.....	Argyle, Cowval, Knapdale, Kintyre, and Lorn, with part of the W. Isles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Wilt, Terriff, Col, and Lisimore.....	Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killenmor, and Campbel-Town.
19. Perth.....	Athol, Gowry, Breadalbane, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount, Glenheild, and Raynork.....	Perth, Scone, Dumblain, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardin.....	Mearns.....	Bervie, Stonhive, and Kincardin.
21. Aberdeen.....	Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie.....	Old Aberdeen, New Aberdeen, Frazerburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverness.....	Aird, Strathglaß, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmorison ..	Inverness, Inverloch, Fort Augustus, and Bosbaw.
23. Nairne, and } 24. Cromarty }	Western Part of Murray and Cromarty	Nairne, Cromarty.
25. Fife.....	Fife.....	St. Andrew's, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnside, Island, Dumfermline, Dyfart, Anstruther, and Aberdour.
26. Forfar.....	Forfar, Angus.....	Montrose, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroath, Brechin.
27. Bamff.....	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Eury, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan.....	Bamff and Cullen.
28. Sutherland.....	Strathnaver and Sutherland.....	Strathy and Dornock.
29. Clacmannan, and } 30. Kinross.....	Fife part.....	Culros, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinross.
31. Ross.....	East and West Ross, Isle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcastle, Ferrintosh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald.....	Taine, Dingwall, Fortrose, Rosamoy, Kije, and New Kelfo.
32. Elgin.....	Murray and Strathspey.....	Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney.....	Isles of Orkney and Shetland.....	Kirkwall, Skalloway.

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numerous as to cause a sudden darkness in the air. Their fondness for this spot is, with great appearance of reason, attributed to their feeding on the plant *Olorina*, which grows in this lake, and rises above the water with a long straight stalk, bearing a cluster of seeds at the top. The coasts of Scotland are, in many parts, indented with large, bold, and navigable bays, or arms of the sea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtown-Bay; also the Solway Bay or Frith, which separates Scotland from England, on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray, Cromarty, Dornock, &c.

There is great reason to believe that Scotland was formerly over-run with timber; for, in every part of it, large trees are frequently dug up, and great logs of wood are found in the deepest morasses, as well as human bodies; by which it appears, that their water being impregnated with turpentine, have a peculiar quality. Very little timber grows in their forests except pines. The Scots oak, which grows in the Highlands, is esteemed very good; but its distance from any water-carriage, renders that valuable article of very little benefit either to the nation or the owners. Fir-trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations.

By the small pieces of solid gold which are often found in brooks after a great torrent, we are induced to believe the accounts which historians give us of the gold mines in Scotland. At the nuptials of James V. with a daughter of France, covered dishes filled with coins of Scots gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert; and, in the time of that monarch, the mines of Crawford-Moor were worked by Germans, under the direction of one Cornelius, their chief. But the civil wars, which happened in the reign of Mary, queen of Scots, obliged these people to abandon their works, which have never since been resumed.

The lead mines in Scotland, of which there are several, produce great quantities of silver: some copper mines have been discovered near Edinburgh; and no country boasts of greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and stones.

The east, west, and northern parts of the country produce exceeding good coal, of which large quantities are exported; and, where there is a deficiency of this firing, the inhabitants supply its place by burning turf and peat. In many parts, however, they are reduced to the greatest distress for fuel, being obliged to burn cow-dung, which they carefully dry and deposit for that purpose. Lime-stone and free-stone are found here in great plenty, which, added to the exceeding low price of labour, enables the people to erect very elegant houses. Alum mines have been discovered lately in Bonffshire.

In many parts of Scotland are found variegated pebbles, crystal, and several other transparent stones, which, when polished, are proper for seals, snuff boxes, ear-rings, and other toys; and in Lanerkshire, or Clydesdale, large pieces of lapis lazuli are frequently dug up. The

country abounds in flint, talc, sea-shells, fullers-earth, and potters-clay. Here are vast numbers of small stones of a particular species, which the inhabitants call *arrow heads*, and to which they are studious to assign supernatural origin and use, and, at this period, it is difficult to determine what they originally were; but the most natural supposition is, that they are the flint heads of the arrows, used by the Caledonians and ancient Scots.

Various improvements in husbandry, have been lately made in Scotland; so that the Lowlands produce a variety of grain, fruits, and herbs, viz. wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, and hay; apples, pears, cherries, plums, strawberries, raspberries, gooseberries, and currans; peaches, nectarines, apricots, and, sometimes even grapes, are brought to perfection here, though not so early as in England; all sorts of kitchen roots, fennel, and greens, particularly the Scots kail, or colewort. The trees and shrubs natural to this country are, the oak, fir, birch, poplar, alder, willow, elder, hazle, mountain-ash, crab-tree, juniper, hawthorn, sloe, and dog-rose. The heaths are covered with furze, broom, fern, the bramble-berry, cranberry, wild strawberries, and the myrtillis, the fruit of which is called bilberries. The sea-coast produces a variety of sea-plants, particularly the *alga-marina*, dulse, or dulse which is a most wholesome nutritive weed.

Salmon, trout, jacks, and eels, are found in great plenty in the rivers in Scotland; and the sea supplies them with every species of salt-water fish. Of late years, societies have been erected for the improvement of fisheries in that nation, and they are at present brought to such a degree of perfection as falls very little short of the Dutch themselves: their salmon, in particular, is of infinite advantage to them, as they can carry it, and send it much earlier to the Levant and southern markets than the English or Irish can, and consequently find a quicker sale for it. We shall give a more particular account of these fisheries under a proper head.

There are no animals in Scotland which are not to be found in England. The Highlands are well stocked with red deer and roe-bucks, but their flesh is not comparable to English venison; they have also hares, rabbits, foxes, wild cats, and badgers; and the hills in general are covered with black cattle and sheep. Plenty of game is likewise found there, particularly grouse and heathcock, which is a most delicious bird. Two remarkable birds, called the capercaillie and the tinnan, are inhabitants of the Highlands. The capercaillie is about the size of a turkey, and esteemed a great delicacy. The tinnan is a species of pheasant, and feeds upon the tender tops of the fir and pine branches, from which the flesh contracts a turpentine flavour, very agreeable both to the palate and stomach.

The horses in Scotland are exceedingly small. Formerly their kings and nobility endeavoured, by importing a larger species of that useful animal, to mend the breed; but they were found, by repeated trials, to degenerate

both in size and strength, and make use of the Highland.

No computation of the inhabitants in Scotland generally said that there is great increase. By the present bear the number of soldiers were 80,000, and emigrants which of course reasonably have exceeded the number which have been raised in Scotland, it is probable they are not so numerous. The Scots are industrious; but, at the same time, and especially their persons, the Highlanders, lank and red hair; they are subject to great fatigues. The women, are not so numerous, but the Scots have high cheek-bones.

No people pique the Scots, and this generation to general. The ridiculous institutions which are entirely extinguished, and barbarity among the Highlanders; and the same always a matter of course, and authorized and chosen men were in the courts of Europe, and in all the things, excepting the extraordinary virtues of commanders, and the peace, their every clan or family of Scotland, looked upon their own estate in four-and-twenty.

The pride which is other in the number of animosities, which shed; so that the nation was a blind and the aggrandisement of hostility. The

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are found in great numbers; and the sea supplies water fish. Of late, for the improvement they are at present, as falls very little, their salmon, in particular, as they can come from the Levant and Southern can, and consequently shall give a more particular under a proper head. The Lowlands which are not so fertile, are well stocked with their flesh is not common, have also hares, rabbits, and the hills are little and sheep. Plenty of, particularly grow, delicious. Two, particularly and the terminal. The caperkill is esteemed a great delicacy of pheasant, and feed pine branches, from fine flavour, very agreeable.

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erate both in size and spirit. The Lowlanders, at this time, make use of a breed which came originally from England.

No computation has ever been made of the number of inhabitants in Scotland that can be depended upon. It is generally said that they amount to a million and a half; but there is great reason to think they are far more numerous. By the records of the army, the only ones that can be present bear the least appearance of probability, the number of soldiers furnished by Scotland in the American war were 80,000 men, and, considering the number of emigrants which daily leave that nation, we may from thence reasonably conclude, that the inhabitants must greatly exceed the number ascertained; above 60,000 have been raised in the islands and Highlands; so that it is probable they amount to near two millions and a half. The Scots are in general brave, but passionate and vindictive; but, at the same time, sober, industrious, circumspect, and easily conform to any station in life. In their persons, the commonalty are usually raw-boned, broad-featured, lank, and muscular; having long visages, and red hair; they are clean-limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Those in a higher sphere, both men and women, are no ways inferior to their southern neighbours, but the Scots have all one distinguishing feature, viz. high cheek-bones.

No people pique themselves more upon descent than the Scots, and this family pride is nourished in them from generation to generation.

The ridiculous family pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which prevailed there in all their horrors of blood and barbarity. Their family differences, especially among the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and slaughter; and the death of an enemy, howsoever effected, was always a matter of triumph. These passions did not only reign in the breasts of the common people, but were authorized and cherished by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had seen the world, were conversant in the courts of Europe, masters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and social life. Their kings, excepting some of them who were endowed with extraordinary virtues, were considered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war: for, in time of peace, their civil authority had so little weight, that every clan or family, even in the most civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the sovereign. These ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave those petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own estates; and execution generally followed in four-and-twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of outvying each other in the numbers of their followers, created perpetual animosities, which seldom or never ended without bloodshed; so that the common people, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their master, and the aggrandisement of his name, lived in a state of continual hostility. The late Archibald, duke of Argyll,

was the first chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependents, and to divest them of those barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and it is highly probable that the Highlanders will be reconciled to all the milder habits of society in a very few years. For an idea of the extreme caution and secrecy with which their mobs are managed, and the fidelity and attachment of the Highlanders to the Stuart family, we need only refer the reader to the affair of captain Porteous in the beginning of the reign of George II. in the former case; and, in the latter, to the defeat of the young pretender at Culloden.

The estates of Scotland, like those of England, being generally confined to the elder branch, the younger sons are obliged to seek that subsistence abroad, which the narrow bounds of their country will not afford them at home. Great numbers of them are in the land and sea service, and prove an honour to both. Education being exceedingly cheap in Scotland, there are few of the inhabitants, let their station be what it will, but have received some learning; and many of them, being eminent scholars, are thereby qualified for the different professions of physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, merchants, and school-masters; in which capacities they are to be met with in most parts of the globe, and, happily for them, they assimilate with the greatest ease and freedom to the manners of the people among whom they are settled.

There are many parts of Scotland where the inhabitants live entirely by pasture, and among these are found numbers who have a natural taste for poetry and music. The Scotch airs are soft, lively, and beautifully simple. For some time it was supposed that this nation was indebted to the famous Rizzio for a reformation in its music; but it has long been proved that the Scotch music is original, and that the finest parts of it was composed long before Rizzio was born.

The Scots generally enjoy a great share of health, the immediate effect of a salubrious air and temperate diet. Their common food is oatmeal, which they sometimes make into a kind of flummery, termed by them sowens; milk, cheese, and a species of soup-meagre, composed of greens, roots, oatmeal, and butter. They very seldom eat butcher's meat, but every family, in tolerable circumstances, kills a cow at Martinmas, which is pickled down, as we do pork, and used occasionally in broth, or boiled with greens. Many of the Scots dishes are peculiar to the country, viz. the haggie, which is the lights, liver, and suet of a hog, or sheep, hashed, seasoned, and boiled in the animal's stomach, so that, when it is served to table, it has the appearance of a full-blown bagpipe. The hodge-podge, a rich soup, composed of beef, mutton, veal, lamb, and fowl, stewed rice or barley, green peas, lettuce, cabbage, turnips, and onions: to all these ingredients they sometimes add a sheep's head and feet, the wool of which is singed off smooth with a red-hot iron. Fish in sauce, which is a kind of soup made with haddocks, or other fish, the head being stuffed with forced meat. Chicken broth, which is made very rich with eggs, and has the appearance

appearance of a spoiled fricassee, but is very delicate to the taste, and nourishing to the stomach. Minced collops, made of the rump of beef, and suet, cut very small, seasoned with pepper, spice, and vinegar, and kept in a close jar, to be fried occasionally for the table. The use of these dishes is still retained by the middling class of people; but those of the higher rank conform entirely to the French cookery. The only bread used by the commonalty in Scotland, is broad, thin, triangular cakes, made of oatmeal, first baked over the fire on a thin plate of cast iron, which the inhabitants term a griddle, and then toasted until they become crisp and fit for eating.

The dress of the Highlanders consists of the brechan, the cuoranen, the truith, the fillebeg, and a flat cap on their heads, which they call a bonnet. The brechan is composed of twelve or thirteen yards of a narrow stuff, wrapped round the middle, and reaching down to the knees; this, in cold weather, is large enough to wrap round the whole body from head to feet, and is often the sole covering they make use of, not only within doors, but in the open air during the whole night. They gird it round their middle with a belt, and it is then called brechan-feal: at other times, it is fastened on the shoulders, and before, with large pins of silver, and other metal. Their stockings, which are short, are tied below the knee; and the cuoranen is a shoe made of a skin with the hairy side outwards, but now seldom worn. The truith were breeches and stockings made of one piece, and formerly worn by the gentry. The fillebeg, likewise called kelt, is a kind of short petticoat, reaching only to the knees, and is a modern substitute for the lower end of the plaid, being less cumbersome, particularly in time of action, when they were formerly obliged to tuck their brechan into their girdle. Most of them have a great pouch of badger and otter skins, which hangs before them, and therein they keep their tobacco and money.

The dress of the women is the kirch, or a white piece of linen, pinned over the foreheads of those that are married, and round the hind part of the head, falling behind over their necks. The single women wear only a ribbon round the head, which they call a snood. The tannic, or plaid, hangs over their shoulders, and is fastened before with a brotche; but, in bad weather, is drawn over their heads. It is common during divine service for the woman to keep continually drawing it forward, in proportion as their attention increases, so that at last the whole face is concealed; perhaps to exclude every external object, that their devotion may not be interrupted. In the county of Breadalbane, many wear, when in full dress, a great plaided stocking, of an enormous length, called ossen; but, in other respects, they are dressed like the women in England of the same rank.

The ancient arms of the Highlanders were the Lochaber axe, now only used by the town-guard of Edinburgh, the broad sword, and target. With the last they covered themselves, with the first reached their enemy

at a considerable distance. But, since the disarming of these arms are scarcely to be met with, owing partly to the force of that statute, and partly to the spirit of industry now rising among them. Bows and arrows were used in war as late as the middle of the last century. The dirk was a species of dagger stuck in the belt, used by the ancient Caledonians.

The ancient sports of the Highlanders, such as archery, hunting, fowling, and fishing, are now for the most part disused. Those retained are the throwing the putting stone, or stone of strength, which occasions a strenuous emulation who can throw a heavy stone the furthest. Throwing the penny-stone is similar to our coit. The shinty, or the striking a ball of wood, or of hair: the game is played between two parties on a large plain furnished with clubs; whoever strikes it first to their own goal wins the match. The amusements by the fire-sides were, the telling of tales, the wildest and most extravagant imaginable. Music was another: in former times, the harp, covered with leather and strung with wire, was the favourite instrument, but is hardly known at present. Bagpipes are supposed to have been introduced by the Danes; the oldest are played with the mouth; the other, played with the fingers only, is of Irish original: the first suited the genius of this warlike people, roused their courage to battle, alarmed them when secure, and collected them when scattered. This instrument is become scarce since the abolition of the power of the chieftains, and the more industrious turn of the common people. Vocal music was greatly in vogue among them, and their songs were chiefly in praise of their ancient heroes. They have still fragments of the story of Fingal, and others, which they sing as they pass along, or when employed in the field.

Some very singular customs attend the courtship of the Highlanders. After privately obtaining the consent of the fair, he formally demands her of her father. The lover and his friends assemble on a hill allotted for that purpose in every parish, and one of them is dispatched to obtain permission to wait on the daughter: if he is successful, he is again sent to invite the father and his friends to ascend the hill, and partake of a cask of whisky, which is never forgot: the lover advances, takes his future father-in-law by the hand, and having plighted his troth, the fair one is delivered up to him. During the marriage ceremony, great care is taken that no dogs pass between them, and particular attention is paid to the leaving the bridegroom's shoe without buckle or latchet, to prevent witches from depriving him, on the nuptial night, of the power of loosening the virgin zone. As a test, not many years ago, a singular custom prevailed in the Western Islands the morning after a wedding: a basket was fastened with a cord round the neck of the bridegroom, by the female part of the company, who immediately filled it with stones, till the poor man was in danger of being strangled, if his bride did not take compassion on him, and cut the cord with a knife given her to use at discretion. But such had been the tenderness of the Caledo-

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On the death of a Highlander, the corpse being stretched
on a board, and covered with a coarse linen wrapper, the
friends lay on the breast of the deceased a wooden dish,
containing a small quantity of salt and earth, in separate
parcels. The earth is an emblem of the corruptible body;
the salt, an emblem of the immortal spirit. All fire is
extinguished while a corpse is kept; and it is reckoned fo
ominous for a dog or cat to pass over it, that the poor
animal is killed without mercy.

Another ceremony used at funerals, is what they call
the late wake. The evening after the death of any per
son, the relations and friends of the deceased meet at the
house, attended by a bagpipe, or a fiddle. The nearest
of kin opens a melancholy ball, dancing and crying vio
lently at the same time; and this continues till day-light,
with the most unseemly frolics among the younger part
of the company. If the corpse remains unburied for two
nights, the same rites are renewed. The coranich, or
singing at funerals, is still in use in some places. The
songs are generally in favour of the deceased, or a recital
of the valiant deeds of his ancestors.

Christianity was planted in Scotland long before Auf
stin the monk established the pope's authority. When the
Reformation was settled there by the preaching of John
Knox, his brethren naturally imagined that they should
succeed to the revenues of the Romish clergy. But the
nobility took care to monopolize all the church livings,
leaving very little for the ministers. Since that time
their stipends have been considerably augmented. None
now exceeds 150*l.* a year, but few fall short of 60*l.*
and none of 50*l.*

The Presbyterian government in Scotland, which took
place after the reformation of Popery, has still continued,
being the form of ecclesiastical government most agree
able to the genius and inclination of the people of that
kingdom. When James VI. succeeded to the crown of
England, it is well known that during his reign, and
that of his successors of the family of Stuart, designs
were formed of altering the constitution of our civil go
vernment, and rendering our kings more absolute. The
establishment of episcopacy in Scotland was thought to be
the point proper, in order to facilitate the execution of
these designs. Episcopacy was accordingly established,
and continued to be the government of the church till the
revolution; when such designs subsisting no longer,
the Presbyterian government was restored to Scotland. In
1690, it was established by act of parliament; and was
thencewards secured by an express article in the treaty of
union between the two kingdoms of England and Scot
land.

Among the ministers of Scotland there subsists a
perfect equality; that is, no minister, considered as
an individual, has an authoritative jurisdiction over
another. Jurisdiction is competent for them only
when they act in a collective body, or as a court of judi
cature, and then there is a subordination of one court to

another, or inferior and superior courts. The courts
established by law are the four following, viz. church
sessions, presbyteries, provincial synods, and, above all,
a national or general assembly.

A church session is composed of the minister of the
parish and certain discreet laymen, who are chosen and
ordained for the exercise of discipline, and are called
elders. The number of these elders varies according to
the extent of the parish. Two of them, together with
the minister, are necessary, in order to hold a legal
meeting. The minister always presides in these meet
ings, and is called moderator; but has no other authority
than what belongs to the preses of any other court.
The church session is appointed for inspecting the mor
als of the parishioners, and managing the funds appro
priated for the maintenance of the poor within their
bounds. When a person is convicted of any instance of
immoral conduct, or of what is inconsistent with the
Christian profession, the church session inflicts some ec
clesiastical censure, such as giving him an admonition,
or rebuke: or, if the crime be of a gross and public
nature, they appoint him to profess his repentance in
face of the whole congregation, in order to make satis
faction for the public offence. The highest degree of
church censure is excommunication, which is seldom
inflicted but for contumacy, or for some very atrocious
crime obstinately persisted in. In former times there
were certain civil pains and penalties, which followed
upon a sentence of excommunication; but, by a British
statute, these were happily abolished. The church of
Scotland addresses its censures only to the consciences of
men: and as they cannot, by the method of persuasion,
reclaim offenders, they think it inconsistent with the
spirit of true religion to have recourse to compulsive
methods, such as temporal pains and penalties.

Any person who thinks himself aggrieved by the
church session, is permitted to seek redress, by entering
an appeal to the presbytery, which is the next superior
court. In like manner he may appeal from the pres
bytery to the provincial synod, and from the synod to
the assembly, whose sentence is final in all ecclesiastical
matters.

A presbytery consists of the ministers within a certain
district, and also of one ruling elder from each church
session within the district. In settling the boundaries
of a presbytery, a regard was paid to the situation of the
country. Where the country is populous and cham
paign, there are instances of thirty ministers, and as
many elders, being joined in one presbytery. In moun
tainous countries, where travelling is more difficult,
there are only seven or eight ministers, and in some
places fewer, in a presbytery. The number of presby
teries is computed to be about seventy.

Presbyteries review the procedure of church sessions,
and judge in references and appeals that are brought be
fore them. They take trials of candidates for the mi
nistry; and if, upon such trial, they find them duly
qualified, they license them to preach, but not to dispense
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the sacraments. Such licentiates are called probationers. It is not common for the church of Scotland to ordain or confer holy orders on such licentiates, till they are presented to some vacant kirk, and thereby acquire a right to a benefice.

It is the privilege of presbyteries to judge their own members, at least in the first instance. They may be judged for heresy, that is, for preaching or publishing doctrines that are contrary to the public standard imposed by act of parliament and assembly; or for any instance of immoral conduct; prosecutions for heresy were formerly more frequent than they are at present; but happily a more liberal spirit has gained ground among the clergy of Scotland. They think more freely than they did of old, and, consequently, a spirit of inquiry and moderation seems to be on the growing hand; so that prosecutions for heresy are become more rare, and are generally looked upon as invidious. Some sensible men among the clergy of Scotland look upon subscriptions to certain articles and creeds of human composition as a grievance, from which they would willingly be relieved.

Presbyteries are more severe in their censures upon their members for any instance of immoral conduct. If the person be convicted, they suspend him from the exercise of his ministerial office for a limited time; but, if the crime be of a heinous nature, they depose, or deprive him of his clerical character, so that he is no longer a minister of the church of Scotland; but forfeits his title to his benefice, and other privileges of the established church. However, if the person thinks himself injured by the sentence of the presbytery, he may appeal to the provincial synod, within whose jurisdiction his presbytery lies; and from the synod he may appeal to the national assembly. Presbyteries generally hold their meetings every month, except in remote countries, and have a power of adjourning themselves to whatever time or place within their district they may think proper. They choose their own preses or moderator, who must be a minister of their own presbytery. The ruling elders, who sit in the presbytery, must be changed every half year, unless they are rechosen by their respective church sessions.

The next superior courts to presbytery are provincial synods; these are composed of the several presbyteries within the province, and of a ruling elder from each church session. The ancient dioceses of the Scottish bishops are, in general, the boundaries of a synod. Most of the synods in Scotland meet twice every year, namely, in the months of April and October, and at every meeting they choose their preses, or moderator, who must be a clergyman of their own number. They review the proceedings of the presbyteries, and judge in appeals, references, and complaints, brought before them from the inferior courts; and, should a presbytery be found negligent in executing any of the ecclesiastical laws against their members, or any other person within their jurisdiction, the synod have power to call them to account, and censure them as they see cause.

The supreme court in ecclesiastical matters is the general assembly, from whose sentence there is no appeal. As they have a power of making laws and canons concerning the discipline and government of the church, and the public service of religion, the king always sends a commissioner to represent his royal person, that nothing may be enacted inconsistent with the laws of the state. The person who represents the king is generally some Scotch nobleman, whom his majesty nominates annually some time before the meeting of the assembly, and is allowed a suitable salary for defraying the expences of this honourable office. He is present at all the meetings of the assembly, and at all their debates and deliberations. After the assembly is concluded, he presents his commission, and delivers his speech. And when they have finished their business, which they commonly do in twelve days, he adjourns the assembly, and appoints both the time and place of their next annual meeting, which is generally at Edinburgh in the month of May.

The general assembly is composed of ministers and ruling elders, chosen annually from each presbytery in Scotland. As the number of ministers and elders in each presbytery varies, so the number of representatives must have a proportion to the number of ministers and elders that compose the presbytery. This proportion is fixed by laws and regulations for that purpose. Each royal burrough, and university in Scotland, has also the privilege of sending a ruling elder to the general assembly; but all elections must be made forty days at least before the meeting. Their jurisdiction is either consultative or judicial. By the former they have the power of making ecclesiastical laws, by the latter they judge in appeals brought before them by the subordinate courts, and their sentence is decisive and final. One particular which employs a considerable part of their attention, is the settling of vacant parishes. The common people of Scotland are greatly prejudiced against the laws of primogeniture, and the right of patronage. Hence, when a patron presents a candidate to a vacant parish, the inhabitants frequently make great opposition to the presentee, and appeal from the inferior courts to the general assembly. That body is not now much disposed to indulge the parishioners in their unreasonable opposition to presentees. On the other hand, they are unwilling to settle the presentee in opposition to the people, who refuse to submit to his ministry; because, in this case, his labour among them must be useless and ineffectual. The assembly, therefore, generally delay their sentence till they have used all their endeavours to reconcile the parishioners to the presentee; but, if their attempts prove unsuccessful, they proceed to settle the presentee pursuant to the act of parliament concerning patronage. Upon the whole, it appears that, in the government of the church of Scotland, there is an annual representation of the laity as well as the clergy; a great security to the former against the usurpations of the latter.

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form religious worship, and to preach to his flock in the language of his country, every Sunday, and on other extraordinary occasions appointed by the church. They likewise examine the parishioners annually. They go to the different towns and villages of the parishes; and, in an easy and familiar manner, converse with them on the essential points of religion; making trial of their knowledge by putting questions to them on these heads. The adults, as well as the children, are catechised; and the minister endeavours, by every power of persuasion, to make up quarrels that may have happened among them, and reconcile the parties.

A society was incorporated by patent, in the reign of Queen Anne, for erecting schools in North-Britain and the Western Isles; which was afterwards established by act of parliament, and a fund appropriated for carrying the design into execution: his present majesty contributes 1000*l.* per ann. to this fund. It has, however, been questioned, whether that lettered education, which renders the Scots respectable among foreigners, and is of the utmost service to many of the natives, may not, upon the whole, be of prejudice to the country, by contributing, in some measure, to deprive it of that class of men who are best fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the benefit of the public. The promoting a similar cultivation of the mind in England among the poorer sort, might probably be of more general utility.

The first principle of the church of Scotland is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters: that it agrees in its censures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of opposition to Popery, but is principally modelled after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. This establishment proved, at various periods, so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and lesser excommunications, which were attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, that the kirk sessions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. It is said, that even that relic of Popery, the obliging fornicators of both sexes to sit upon what they call a repenting-stool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found that the Scots women, on account of that penance, were the greatest infanticides in the world. The power of the Scots clergy is at present very moderately exercised: since the Revolution they have been firm adherents to civil liberty, and the cause of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes; but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns and bands, after the Geneva form. They make no use of set forms in worship, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's prayer. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to

pious purposes. The revenues of the Presbyterian clergy have been much mended of late years, and if the present expensive mode of living continues in Scotland, it is thought they will be still more augmented.

The spirit of the Presbyterians in Scotland was formerly of a rigid, intolerant, and persecuting nature; but at present it is mild and gentle, and the sermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally distinguished by good sense and moderation; but this moderation has been too often interrupted by the fanatics not only of lay seceders but even of regular ministers. There are very numerous in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers; and though scarcely any two congregations agree with each other either in principle or practice, yet we do not know that they are disposed to fly in the face of the civil power. In short, on account of the great abuses of patronages, by which many parties have unworthy or incapable ministers imposed upon them, as is the case in England, these successions may be deemed allowed, and even justified.

Learning has flourished in Scotland for 1400 years past. The poems of Ossian sufficiently shew that the muses were no strangers there in the most remote ages. St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland, was a native of this kingdom, which became, for some time, a refuge for the learned; especially the little island of Jona, called St. Columb-Kill. The pure Latin style of Buchanan is a sufficient proof that the study of languages was cultivated in his time; and his writings are to this day the most classical of all modern productions. But the destruction of the Scottish monuments of learning and antiquities has rendered their early annals very imperfect, and in many respects fabulous.

Among the modern writers, we may rank Napier of Merchiston, the inventor of logarithms; a discovery, which, in point of ingenuity and use, may vie with any that has been made in modern times. Keil, in his mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning, has added the colouring of a poet. Gregory is, of all writers on astronomy, allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and 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 capacities, and for diffusing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His treatise on Fluxions is regarded by the best judges in Europe as the clearest account of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. Maclaurin also pursued this new career, and the late Dr. Simson was a geometer no less famous than the former, for having distinguished himself in the sure but almost deserted tract of antiquity, of which his illustration of the ancient geometry is a convincing proof. To these we

may add, in medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Mouro, Smellie, Whytt, and others, who deserve a distinguished seat among the literati of Europe. The Scots have been equally successful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and suppose the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson. Nor has learning declined since the death of these authors: Scotland can now boast of authors, especially with regard to historical composition, whose labours will be handed down to posterity with applause, and reflect honour on their country.

There are four universities in Scotland, viz. St. Andrew's, founded in 1411; Glasgow, in 1454; Aberdeen, in 1477; and that of Edinburgh; in each of which are a certain number of professors in various branches of literature, moral and natural philosophy, mathematics, astronomy, divinity, &c.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, is built on the edges and declivity of a vast sloping rock, of a great height at the upper extremity, and the sides declining very fast and steep into the plain. The view of the houses at a distance strikes the traveller with wonder; their own loftiness added to their almost aerial situation, gives them an aspect of magnificence not to be equalled in any other part of Great-Britain. These conspicuous buildings, which form the upper part of the high-street, are of stone, and make a handsome appearance: they are generally six or seven stories high in front; but, by reason of the declivity of the hill, much higher backward; one in particular, called Babel, has twelve or thirteen stories. Every house has a common stair-case, and every story is inhabited by a separate family. The inconvenience of this particular structure need not be mentioned; notwithstanding the utmost attention, in the article of cleanliness, is in general observed. The common complaint of the streets of Edinburgh is now removed by the vigilance of the magistrates, and their severity against any that offend in a gross degree; the streets are cleaned early every morning. This unfortunate species of architecture owed its rise to necessity. The turbulence of the times in which it was in vogue, induced every person to get as near as possible to the protection of the castle; hence the houses were crowded together, and, as it were, piled upon one another, merely on the principle of security. The high-street is, in some places, eighty feet broad, well paved, and extends a mile in length, from the castle to the palace of Holyrood-House; but the beauty of it was greatly injured by Luckenbooth-Row and the guant-house, which stood in the middle of it. This city is reckoned to contain upwards of 60,000 souls.

The castle is ancient, built on the summit of a rock, and inaccessible on all sides except where it joins the city. A considerable train of artillery is kept in this fortress, together with a large magazine of arms and ammunition. The regalia of Scotland are also deposited

here, under the most solemn legal instruments of their never being removed. They are fully described in these writings, but never shewn to any body. From this fortress is a very beautiful, diversified, and singular prospect. On the south and east are the meadows, or public walks, Herriot's hospital, part of the town overhadowed by the stupendous rocks called Arthur's Seat and Salisbury's-Craigs, the Pentland-Hills at a few miles distance, and, at a still greater, those of Muirfoat, whose summits and sides are covered with a smooth verdant turf. On the north is a full view of the Frith of Forth, from Queen's-Ferry to its mouth, with its southern banks covered with towns and villages, and terminated by a range of hills bordering on the Highlands, at forty or fifty miles distance.

The reservoir of water, brought from the Pentland-Hills, for supplying the city, is situated in Castle-Street, and deserves notice. It holds near 200 tons of water, which is conveyed to several conduits disposed at proper distances in the principal streets.

The Parliament-Close is a small square situated on the south side of the High-Street. It is a noble quadrangle, in the centre of which is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The parliament-house is well proportioned, and now occupied by the courts of justice. Here is the advocates library, founded by Sir George Mackenzie, and now contains above thirty thousand volumes, besides manuscripts.

The Exchange is a handsome modern building, but of very little use, the merchants of Edinburgh choosing to meet and transact their business in the open street, exposed to all weathers, rather than transfer it to the Exchange, though erected for that very purpose. One part of this building is the Custom-House.

The old cathedral, now called the New-Church, is an ancient Gothic structure, and divided into four places of worship: in one the lords of session attend; but there is no organ in this or any other of the Scotch churches; a defect the more surprising, as in the Dutch churches, as well as in the great church of Geneva, where the same religion is established, the psalmody is accompanied with an organ.

The palace of Holyrood-House, situated at the end of Cannongate-Street, was originally an abbey, founded by David I. in the year 1128. It contains a vast number of very fine apartments; those called the king's are in great disorder; the rest are elegant, and occupied by several of the nobility. The gallery is filled with colossal portraits of the kings of Scotland down to the Revolution.

The church or chapel of Holyrood-House, a beautiful piece of Gothic architecture, is now in ruins; the roof having fallen in, by a most scandalous neglect, notwithstanding money had been granted by the government for preserving it entire. Beneath the ruins lie the bodies of James II. and James V. Henry Darnly, and several other persons of distinction.

Herriot's-Hospital is a fine ancient building, founded

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by George Herriot, who died that month. It was a place of education for the poor citizens and tradesmen of the city, which are well known for their gay, and the other scenes of industry.

The college of St. Mary's, founded by James VI. and by the magistrates, who were the town, and the person, except that they wear no habitation, as in other professions of different professions: the school of medicine, art, and science. Here is an excellent library, and a museum.

The Royal Infirmary, capable of receiving 1000 patients, is a fine building, and the operations are performed in a well room elegant.

On the north side of the city, which is planned by a magnificent architect, especially those in the city elegant, built in the inconvenience of the play-house is situated a polite amusement, and are connected to the centre arch of the city.

The city of Edinburgh, four banquets, a desirable chosen from the company, or incorporated fourteen, chooses a colonel of the town, where else in the city watch, at the quelling small companies, and with Leith, which is through two miles town, and in a very nothing remarkable the pier, which is walk.

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by George Herriot, jeweller to James VI. who fol-
lowed that monarch to London, and made a large
fortune. It was built by Inigo Jones, for the main-
tenance and education of poor children belonging to the
citizens and traders of Edinburgh, and is under the
direction of the magistrates of that city. The gardens,
which are well laid out, were formerly the resort of
the gay, and there the Scotch comic poets often laid
their scenes of intrigue.

The college, which enjoys the privileges of an
university, is a mean structure. It was founded by
James VI. and by him put under the direction of the
magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and
vice-chancellor. The students, who are dispersed all
over the town, are about six hundred in number; no
person, except the principal, residing in the college:
they wear no habit, nor are they subject to any regula-
tions, as in other universities. There are twenty-two
professors of different sciences, most of whom read
lectures: the schools relating to every branch of the
medical art, are reckoned equal to any in Europe.
Here is an excellent library founded by one Clement
Little, and a museum given by Sir Andrew Balfour.

The Royal Infirmary is a spacious and handsome
edifice, capable of containing 200 patients. The room
for operations is particularly convenient, and the coun-
cil room elegant.

On the north side of the city lies the New Town,
which is planned with great judgment, and will prove
a magnificent addition to Edinburgh. The houses,
especially those in St. Andrew's-Square, are remark-
ably elegant, built in the modern style, and free from
the inconveniences attending the old city. The new
play-house is situated here, and other buildings for the
polite amusements of the age. These improvements
are connected to the city by a very beautiful bridge,
the centre arch of which is ninety feet high.

The city of Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost,
four bailiffs, a dean of the guild, and a treasurer, an-
nually chosen from the common-council. Every com-
pany, or incorporated trade, of which there are here
fourteen, chooses its own deacon. The lord provost is
colonel of the town-guard, a military institution found
no where else in his majesty's dominions. They form
the city watch, and patrol the streets; are useful in
quelling small commotions; are divided into three
companies, and wear an uniform.

Leith, which may be called the port of Edinburgh,
though two miles distance, on the Frith, is a large
town, and in a very flourishing condition. It contains
nothing remarkable, being dirty and ill built, except
the pier, which is very fine, and now a well-frequented
walk.

There are several fine seats of the nobility and
gentry in the environs of Edinburgh, particularly
Dalkeith-House, belonging to the duke of Buccleugh;
Newbattle, the seat of the marquis of Lothian; and
Hopton-House, belonging to the nobleman of that
name.

These seats, particularly the two former, are adorned
with fine collections of portraits of eminent persons,
by masterly hands. And at Roslyn, in the neighbour-
hood of Dalkeith-House, is a beautiful and entire
chapel of Gothic architecture, reckoned one of the
most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe. It
was founded in the year 1410, by William St. Clair,
prince of Orkney and duke of Oldenburg.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, is situated about
30 miles from Edinburgh, on the descent of a gentle
eminence, and the adjacent plain extending to the
banks of the river Clyde, over which there is a bridge
of seven arches. The chief part of this city is laid
out upon a regular plan, the streets crossing each other
at right angles. The houses, which are lofty, are
built of hewn stone, and, near the cross, or market-
place, supported upon arched pillars, which form a
commodious piazza before the shops, and give an air
of grandeur to the buildings. The streets are straight,
spacious, well paved, and clean; and the whole city is
adorned with a great number of public edifices, among
which are the cathedral, and five or six other elegant
churches, the Tolbooth, town-hall, and several hos-
pitals.

The cathedral, which stands in the highest part of
the city, is a vast pile of Gothic building, dedicated to
St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who, in the sixth century,
was bishop of Glasgow, and lies buried in this church.
This cathedral is ornamented with two spires, one of
which, rising from a square tower in the middle of the
cross, is surprisingly high and beautiful. In the other,
there is a bell of vast dimensions, which, when tolled,
shakes the whole fabric. At present this noble pile is
divided into three separate churches, where divine service
is performed every Sunday. The other churches are all
stately buildings, and some of them erected on the best
models of architecture.

The university of Glasgow forms one of its greatest
ornaments. Every branch of learning is taught by its
own separate regent, or professor, who not only gives
general lectures, but also attends assiduously to the
business of his class, where he explains, imposes tasks,
and examines his pupils. Annually all the individuals
of each class undergo a public examination, in presence
of all the regents; when, if found properly qualified,
after a certain standing they are admitted to the degree
of master of arts. Great numbers of learned men
have been educated in this university, which may cer-
tainly be deemed the most flourishing in Scotland. The
professors, while in the exercise of their functions,
wear black gowns with open sleeves; and the students
are all distinguished by red or scarlet gowns, among
which they are not allowed to appear in public. The
rector of this university, who is always a person of
nobility, or distinguished fortune, is elected annually.
The edifice itself consists of an outward and inner
square, with a lofty tower, and, towards the city, a front
of hewn stone. It was built at the expence of William

Tunbull,

Turnbull, bishop of Glasgow. The inner quadrangle, besides the divinity hall, the old library, and the common hall, which are large and spacious, contains a great number of commodious apartments for the students. The faculty have lately built an elegant library, which is tolerably well furnished with books, manuscripts, and some stones with Roman inscriptions, brought from the wall of Antoninus. Most of the regents reside in an elegant row of houses, a little detached from the college, behind which there is a pleasant garden laid out in walks for the benefit of all the members of the university. Adjoining to this is a botanical garden, well supplied with simples, classed alphabetically in their different tribes.

The town-house, which was built by the citizens of Glasgow, is a very magnificent edifice: and, in the street opposite to it, stands an equestrian statue of king William III. Adjoining to the town-house is the Tolbooth, or public jail, which is a venerable Gothic building.

The work-house and infirmary of Glasgow, are built with elegant simplicity; and the institution is founded upon so excellent a plan, conducted with so much prudence, and proves such an effectual provision for the poor, that there is not a beggar to be seen within the precincts of the city. The number of inhabitants in Glasgow have been computed at 50,000; and, besides its churches, contains eight or ten meeting-houses, for sectaries of various denominations.

Aberdeen, the capital of Aberdeenshire, is situated in the county of Mar, about eighty miles north of Edinburgh, and contains two towns, Old and New Aberdeen. Old Aberdeen, which was formerly the seat of a bishop, and now that of a presbytery, is a small, ill-built, and inconsiderable town. There is a cathedral dedicated to St. Machas, the greater part of which was built by bishop Elphinstone, in the year 1500. The church is of hewn stone, with a lofty steeple, terminating in an imperial crown, with a round globe of stone and two gilt crosses. Adjoining to the church a library is erected, furnished with a valuable collection of books: but Old Aberdeen is chiefly remarkable for a college, founded by James IV. New Aberdeen is the shire town, and though almost joined to the Old, by means of a long village, has no dependence on it. It is a neat, populous, and flourishing city, adorned with three churches; several episcopal meeting-houses, hospitals, a fine wharf, a custom-house, and many other stately edifices, built of hewn stone. The streets are spacious and well paved; the private houses lofty, well finished, and provided with gardens and orchards, which, by being thus intermingled with the buildings, give it at a distance the appearance of a city built in a wood.

The principal public edifice in New Aberdeen is the college, which was originally a Franciscan monastery, founded by George Keith, earl marshal, in the year 1592, and from him called the *Academia Marschal-*

lana. It consists of a principal, four professors of philosophy, one for divinity, and one for mathematics. This, together with the old college, although entirely independent of each other, are termed the university of Aberdeen. Besides this college, there is a grammar-school, founded by Dr. Dune, consisting of a master and three ushers. Here is likewise a school for music, and a library, erected at the expence of the city, well supplied with books, and furnished with mathematical instruments. The other public buildings in this town are, a stone bridge of seven arches, built over the river Dee, at the expence of bishop Gavin Dunbar; a bridge over the Don, consisting of one Gothic arch; the cathedral, dedicated to St. Nicholas; an alms-house; and three hospitals.

St. Andrew's, in Fifeshire, was formerly a most magnificent and flourishing city, and celebrated for being the burial place of St. Andrew, the tutelar saint of Scotland. But at present its only boast is the possession of the oldest university in that kingdom. It was founded, and endowed with many ample privileges, by bishop Wardlaw. At present it consists of three colleges, viz. St. Salvator, St. Leonard, and St. Mary. The first was built by bishop Kennedy, grandson of king Robert III. about the middle of the fifteenth century, and this prelate endowed his foundation with revenues sufficient to maintain four professors of philosophy, a doctor, a bachelor and licentiate of divinity, together with eight poor scholars. There are three silver maces belonging to this college as ancient as the foundation; one of which, weighing seventeen pounds, is gilt and curiously chased. This building was repaired and augmented by Dr. Skene, one of the principals of the college, who likewise founded a library, which by liberal donations soon increased: and a fund was established by the earl of Caillis for the maintenance of a professor of philosophy.

St. Leonard's College was founded by James Hepburn, prior of St. Andrew's, before the Reformation, and afterwards endowed by the earl of Lenox. It consists of a principal, four professors of philosophy, and eight poor scholars, who are maintained upon the foundation. Sir James Scot afterwards established a good salary for a professor of philosophy, and made considerable additions to the library, which in a short time was augmented by a great collection of books bequeathed to it by Sir John Wedderburn, doctor of physic; and it now contains the manuscript of Herdun's *Scoti Chronicon*. The students of this college, who are more numerous than in the other two colleges, shoot annually with bows for the prize of a silver arrow.

St. Mary's, or New College, was founded by the famous cardinal archbishop James Beaton, who was assassinated by Norman Lelty. It consists of two professors, doctors in divinity, and a professor of mathematics. Here the students of the other colleges, having passed through a course of philosophy, may be permitted to finish their education. An observatory is erected in

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the college garden by Mr. Gregory, the mathematical professor, who, assisted by a public contribution, furnished it with proper instruments. According to the statutes of this college, the rector, who is chosen annually, must be one of the three principals. The students of all the three colleges are distinguished by wearing different gowns.

The principal fortifications in Scotland are the castles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dunbarton, besides which are Fort William, Fort George, and Fort Augustus; but neither of these is capable of sustaining a regular siege by an enemy furnished with a proper train of artillery. They serve as places of arms, and to bridle the inhabitants of the country, on any insurrection; for which purposes they are kept in sufficient repair, and are furnished with garrisons.

Stirling, with its castle, may be considered as a miniature of Edinburgh, being built on the ridge of a hill, or rock, rising out of a plain, with the castle situated at the upper end. Within the walls of the fortress was the palace of several of the Scottish kings, a square building, ornamented on three sides with pillars resting on grotesque figures projecting from the wall, and on the top of each pillar is a statue, seemingly the work of fancy. Near it is the old parliament-house, a vast room, 120 feet long, very lofty, and had formerly a gallery running round it. A considerable battery of cannon commands the bridge, and in this, added to its advantageous situation, its principal strength consists.

Dunbarton-Castle is situated a little to the southward of the town, on a double-pointed rock of a stupendous height, rising in a strange manner out of the sands, and totally detached from all other objects. On one of the summits are the ruins of an old light-house, and on the other, a magazine of powder: in the hollow between them is a large well of excellent water, fourteen feet deep. The sides of the rocks are immense precipices, and often overhang, except on the side where the governor's house stands, which is defended by ramparts mounted with a few cannon, and garrisoned by invaders.

Fort William was erected in king William's reign, on the site of a small fortress, built by general Monk. It is a triangular work, has two bastions, and is capable of admitting a garrison of eight hundred men. It lies on a narrow arm of the sea, called Loch-Yell, which runs some miles higher up the country, where, making a bend to the north, it extends westward 24 miles, towards the isle of Mull.

Fort George is a small but strong and regular fortress, built since the rebellion in 1745, as a place of arms. The barracks are very handsome, and form several regular and good streets; but, since the happy change that has taken place among the Highlanders, it is almost deserted.

Fort Augustus is a small fortress, situated on a plain at the head of Lough-Ness, between the rivers Taarf

and Oich. It consists of four bastions, and barracks for 100 men.

With respect to the fortifications, though they were formerly thought places of great strength, yet it is affirmed by competent judges, that they could not hold out 48 hours, if besieged by regular troops with proper artillery; owing perhaps to the confidence the ancient Scots placed in their own valour, rather than to castles, for the defence of their country—a maxim, which has been deemed more heroic than prudent, as they have often experienced.

The rivers of Scotland are navigable to a very considerable distance from their mouths, and most of the trading towns are situated on their banks, near enough to the ocean to enjoy the benefit of navigation; but there is no art used in any of the rivers in that kingdom; they flow on in their natural channels, and join their parent waters in the ocean. By the navigable canal cut between the Friths of Forth and Clyde, under the direction of the ingenious Mr. Smeaton, the goods imported by the sea-port towns on one side of the kingdom are carried at a very small expence to those on the other; and the advantages of both situations are, by means of this canal, shared in common by both parts of it.

Roman antiquities are found in great numbers in various parts of Scotland; but the most remarkable now remaining, is the pretenture, or wall, originally marked out by Agricola, and finished by Antoninus Pius. Agricola erected a chain of forts, and Antoninus connected them with turf walls guarded by mounds and ditches, some parts of which are still visible. This wall extended from Carron upon the Frith of Forth, to Dunglas upon the Frith of Clyde, somewhat more than 37 English miles in length. The foundation was stone, and it had conduits which at once kept it dry, and supplied the ditch which accompanies it with water. The thickness of the wall, which inclined towards the north, and was, as much as possible, carried along the brows of the eminences, was about four yards. We learn from the inscriptions on this wall, which are still extant, that the whole of the legion called *Secunda Augusta*, and the vexillations of the twentieth and the sixth legions, were employed in completing this pretenture, which, according to the same inscriptions, extended 39,726 paces. It was built while Antoninus Pius was the third time consul. The country people call this work *Graham's-Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name was the first that broke over it.

Near the iron founderies, on an eminence above the river Carron, stood that celebrated antiquity, called *Arthur's Oven*, which the ingenious Mr. Gordon supposes to have been a small chapel, a repository for the Roman insignia or standards. Buchanan supposes it to have been a Roman temple, and dedicated to the god *Terminus*. There is no reason to doubt of its being a Roman work; but by whom it was erected, is not certainly

certainly known, though it is generally imputed to Agricola. It was built in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St Paul's at London. It was twenty-two feet in height, and its external circumference at the base eighty-eight feet, and was, upon the whole, one of the most complete Roman antiquities in the world: but, to the mortification of every curious traveller, this matchless edifice is now no more. In the year 1742 its barbarous owner, a Gothic knight, caused it to be demolished, in order to make a mill-dam with the materials, which in less than a year the Naiades, in resentment for the sacrilege, came down in a flood, and entirely swept away.

The coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans in Scotland, are very numerous; many of them were found at a great distance to the northward of the wall. Roman camps are also found in various parts; but the most perfect piece of military antiquity is that called the camp of Agricola, at Ardoch in Perthshire, near the foot of the Grampian hills. It is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola before he fought the bloody battle, so finely described by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was totally defeated. No less than five rows of ditches, and six ramparts, are still visible on the south side; and of the four gates which led into the area, three of them are still plain and distinct.

Historical monuments of various kinds are found in several parts of this kingdom, erected by the Scots themselves to preserve the memory of some remarkable action or event. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, are four or five ancient obelisks, called the Danish Stones of Aberlemno, having been erected in commemoration of the defeat of that people by the Scots. They are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematic figures and hieroglyphics, now unintelligible, and executed by the rude hand of some untaught artist. But one of the most stately monuments of this kind is a stone near the town of Fortrose in Murray. It rises about twenty-three feet in height above the ground, and is said to be no less than twelve or fifteen below the surface; so that the whole height is, at least, thirty-five feet, and its breadth near five. It is one single and entire stone, adorned with a great variety of figures in relieve, some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury done by the weather has obscured those towards the upper part. This monument has by some antiquaries been attributed to the Danes, and by others to the Scots; but on what occasion, or to commemorate what event, it was erected, is unknown.

Druidical monuments are also found in different parts of Scotland, but none of them equal to Stonehenge on Salisbury-Plain hereafter described. Besides these there is a very remarkable barrow in Perthshire, thought to have been formed by the ancient Britons, but when, or on what occasion, is not known. It

exactly resembles the figure of a ship with her keel upwards, and is called by the inhabitants Ternay, perhaps a contraction of "terra navis," the ship of earth.

The columnar rocks, situated between the harbour and castle of Dunbar, may be reckoned among the natural curiosities of Scotland. These rocks form a very surprising stratum of stone, in some respects resembling that of the Giant's Causeway in Ireland: it consists of large columns of red grit stone, either triangular, quadrangular, pentangular, or hexangular; their diameters are from one to two feet, and their length at low water thirty, dipping or inclining a little to the south. They are jointed, but not so regularly or so plainly as those that form the Giant's Causeway. The surface of several that have been torn off, form a kind of pavement, consisting of numbers of convex ends, probably answering to the concave bottoms of other joints, once incumbent upon them. The spaces between the columns are filled with thin septa of red and white sparry matter, and veins of the same pervade the columnus transversely. This range of columnar faces the north, with a point to the east, and extends in front about two hundred yards. The breadth is inconsiderable, the rest of the rock degenerating into shapeless masses of the same sort of stone, irregularly divided by thick septa.

There is hardly in the world a curiosity of the artificial kind, which may be compared to the parallel roads of Glen-Roy Lochabar. The Glen itself is extremely narrow, and the hills on each side very high, but not remarkably rocky. On the declivity of these hills, on both sides of the Glen, are three roads at small distances from each other, and directly opposite on each side. These roads have been measured in the completest parts of them, and their breadth is to be twenty-six paces of a man five feet ten inches high. The two uppermost roads are pretty near each other, not above fifty yards distant, but the lowest more than double that distance from the nearest to it. They are carried along the sides of the Glen with the utmost regularity, nearly as exact as line drawn with rule and compass. Where deep burns or gullies of water cross these roads, they avoid both the descent and ascent in a very curious manner; so that on the side where the road enters these hollows they rather ascend along the slope, and descend on the opposite side, until they come to the level, without the traveller being sensible of either the ascent or descent. Other small Glens fall into Glen-Roy. The parallel roads surround all these smaller ones; but where Glen-Roy ends in the open country, there are not the smallest vestiges of them to be seen. The length of these roads in Glen-Roy are about seven miles.

There are two other glens in the neighbourhood where these roads are equally visible, called Glen-Gly and Glen-Spean, the former running north-west, and the latter south from Glen-Roy. Both these roads are of nearly the same length with those of Glen-Roy. These

These roads are no earth. There are a few of these paths; but it is not on each side, keeping the roads are inaccessible; well; but for what purpose they were designed, is not known. Some of the Druidical works of the Drus are religious or other monuments, which would not be designed for the rites of religion. It is thought they were designed for sacrifices were made from the wood, to the deity, being roused, within reach of the deity, and below.

In many parts of the mountains are to be seen, and the hills of the hills, is another, yet a species of different kind, and species with the same name.

Among our natural curiosities, the most remarkable is that of the parallel roads of Glen-Roy. The hills on each side are very high, but not remarkably rocky. On the declivity of these hills, on both sides of the Glen, are three roads at small distances from each other, and directly opposite on each side. These roads have been measured in the completest parts of them, and their breadth is to be twenty-six paces of a man five feet ten inches high.

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Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeshire, and
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and have been the scenes of inhuman cruelties.
Besides the above, other natural curiosities, belong-
ing to Scotland, which their descriptions and histories;
they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to
the credulity of the vulgar, and vanish when they are
critically examined.

With respect to commerce and manufactures, Scot-
land has for some years past been in a very improving
state. Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the administra-
tion in England, after the extinction of the rebellion
in 1745, was the first minister who discovered the true
state of Scotland, which then became a more consi-
derable object of governmental inquiry than ever.
Mr. Pitt pursued Mr. Pelham's wise plan, and jultly
voted in parliament, that he availed himself of the
bravery, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in car-
rying on the most extensive war that Great-Britain
ever was engaged in; and it may be said, to the hon-
our of the British government, that the Scots have
been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of
commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in

These roads are not causeways, but levelled out of the
earth. There are a few small rocks in the compass of
these paths; but it is not known in what manner they
were passed, no vestige of roads remaining; they begin
on each side, keeping the regular line as before. These
roads are inaccessible at the east end, but open at the
west; but for what purpose they were made, cannot
now be known. Some have imagined that they are the
works of the Druids; but as there are no traces of
religious or other structures, or circles of stones, they
could not be designed for any oconomical purpose, or
the rites of religion. The country people are persuaded
that they were designed for the chase, and that these
terraces were made after the spots were cleared in lines
from the wood, to tempt the game into the open parts,
after being roasted, in order that they might come
within reach of the bow-men concealed in the woods
above and below.

In many parts of Scotland, the traces of ancient
works are to be seen. The hill of Finchaven is one
instance, and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffnage-
Castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumices, or
scoria of different kinds, many of which are of the
same species with those of the volcanic Iceland.

Among other natural curiosities, mention is made
of white stones, most of them clear like
crystal, together with great plenty of oyster and other
shells, that are found on the top of a mountain
called Stroma Lappich, in Ross-shire, twenty miles
west from the sea.

Stains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable
for a perishing cave, called The Dropping Cave,
where water, oozing through a spongy porous rock at
the top, quickly consolidates after it drops to the
bottom.

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tion in England, after the extinction of the rebellion
in 1745, was the first minister who discovered the true
state of Scotland, which then became a more consi-
derable object of governmental inquiry than ever.
Mr. Pitt pursued Mr. Pelham's wise plan, and jultly
voted in parliament, that he availed himself of the
bravery, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in car-
rying on the most extensive war that Great-Britain
ever was engaged in; and it may be said, to the hon-
our of the British government, that the Scots have
been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of
commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in

right of their former independency, the treaty of union,
or by acts of parliament since that period. This is
manifest, from the extensive trade they lately carried
on with the British settlements in America and the
West-Indies, and with all the nations to which the
English themselves trade; so that the increase of their
shipping within these thirty years past has been very
considerable. The exports of those ships are composed
chiefly of Scots manufactures, fabricated from the pro-
duce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In
exchange for these, they import tobacco, rice, cotton,
sugar, and rum, from the British plantations, and also
the products of other countries, to the immense saving
of their nation. Their connexion and trade with Vir-
ginia hath greatly contributed to the prosperity of Glas-
gow and its neighbourhood.

The military roads, by rendering the Highlands ac-
cessible, have greatly contributed to their present im-
provement, and were owing to the industry of the sol-
diery. They were begun in 1723, under the directions
of general Wade, who forced his way through rocks,
before supposed to have been unconquerable. Many of
them hang over the capacious lakes of the country, and
formerly afforded no other road to the natives, than the
paths of sheep or goats, where even the Highlander
crawled with difficulty, and kept himself from tumbling
into the far subjacent water, by clinging to the plants
and bushes of the rock. Many of these rocks were too
hard to yield to the pick-axe, and the miner was obliged
to have recourse to gunpowder; and often, where na-
ture had denied him footing, and where he was forced
to begin his labours, suspended from above by ropes,
on the face of the horrible precipice. The bogs and
moors had also their difficulties to overcome, but all
were at length constrained to yield to the perseverance
of the English troops.

In some parts the soldiers, in imitation of the Ro-
mans, left engraven on the rocks the name of the regi-
ment to which each party belonged, who were em-
ployed in these works. Nor were they less worthy of
being immortalized than the vexillatio's of the Roman
legions; for civilization was the consequence of the
labour of both.

These roads begin at Dunkeld, are carried on through
the noted pass of Killcrankie, by Blair, or Dalnecar-
doch, Dalwhinnie, and over the Coryarich to Fort Au-
gustus. A branch extends from thence eastward to In-
verness, and another westward over High-Bridge to
Fort-William. From the last, by Kinloch Lven, over
the Black Mountain, to the king's house at Teindum,
and from thence by Glen-Urquhie to Inverary, and so
along the beautiful boundaries of Loch-Lomond to its
extremity.

Another road begins near Crieff, passes by Abertay, and
crosses the Tay at Tay-Bridge, and unites with the
other road at Dalnacardoch; and from Dalwhinnie a
branch passes through Badenoch to Inverness.

Mr. Riddel, in his account of the ancient mode of
fortification.

fortification in this country, observes, that "In Scotland, the most ancient remains of fortifications now to be traced consist of an area, surrounded by a strong rampart formed of earth and stones, and generally situated upon the top of a mountain, where the barbarous inhabitants sheltered their cattle, and in huts or wigwams lodged themselves and their corn, perhaps in a similar manner as the wretched inhabitants of New Holland do at present. At this period, their arms seemed to have consisted of spears and arrows, headed with barbed flints and stone battle-axes, several of which have been found in sepulchral tumuli or cairns.

"Upon the Mollach hill, on the estate of Dalswinton, the remains of a fortress, answering this description, still exist.

"I shall say nothing of Mr. Williams's witrified forts, having great doubts whether they are not the effects of volcanoes, but shall pass on to what I conceive to have been the first improvement upon the mode of fortification already described, which are those conical towers, accurately described, first by Mr. Gordon, and afterwards by Mr. Pennant. They must have required more art, and afforded a more comfortable shelter, than the tops of hills simply enclosed with a strong rampart.

"In Glenbeg are still to be seen several of these venerable ruins, as also in Skye; but the largest, and by far the most perfect, is situated in Lord Rae's country, and is called Dun Dornadilla. This building is near fifty yards in circumference, and its inner area twenty-seven feet diameter. On the outside, the wall tapers like a line, but the inner wall is perfectly perpendicular; in the heart of which, are the three distinct tiers of apartments, communicating with each other by rude flights of steps. These apartments are lighted by apertures, which look into the circular court. The door or entrance from without is placed about six feet above the base of the building. What had been the height of this tower when entire it is now impossible to say, but its present remains are about thirty feet high, and built of stones entirely without mortar, which are regularly formed into what masons call course and gage. Tradition ascribes the building of this tower to Dornadilla, king of Scotland, who, according to Lelley, was a great hunter, first established the laws of the chase, reigned twenty-eight days, and died in peace with all his neighbours, two hundred and thirty-three years before the Christian era.

"I am much in doubt whether the use of iron was known in Scotland before the arrival of the Romans. The introduction of this most useful of all metals must have made a very great change in the buildings, arms, and other implements of the Scots: and it is highly probable, that square towers, built with cement, succeeded the conical ones. The most ancient of these are generally to be met with on projecting cliffs overhanging the sea, perhaps intended to repel the invasions, first of the Romans, and afterwards of the savage and barbarous inhabitants of Denmark and Norway.

"Oldwick-Castle upon the coast of Caithness is perhaps one of the oldest square towers in Scotland. It seems to be but a small improvement upon the conical ones before mentioned, and is built of stone and lime. The walls, which are enormously thick, contain small chambers, with narrow stairs of communication between the lower and upper apartments, which are lighted by windows looking into the square area, or middle of the tower. Some small apertures are to be seen high up, upon the outside wall, probably intended to watch the motions of an enemy.

"An improvement in the constructing of square towers next took place, which was covering in the inner area with a strong roof of stone vaulted: and this kind of building was called in Scotland a peel, and in England a keep, or dungeon. Many ancient towers of this kind still remain in Scotland, such as, Dunstaffnage in Argyle, Dunnolly in Lorn, Rothfelm in Bute, Clagg in Isla, Dunvegan in Skye, and others too tedious to mention. Several of these venerable ancient towers were built upon an island in a deep lough, such as Elanftalker in Lochlinne, Kilchurn in Lochaw, the castle of Rive in Galloway, Lochmaben in Annandale, Closeburn in Nithisdale, and many others.

"It is highly probable the Caledonians learned from the Romans the art of constructing vaulted chambers; which improvement must have made a wonderful change in the comfort as well as stability of their strengths and fortresses. And it is probable the castle of Dunstaffnage was the first that underwent this material alteration of having a tower built, the middle area of which was covered with arches of stone. This place is supposed to have been the residence of the Scottish kings, from the period that Dun Dornadilla was deserted by them, until the capture of Scone from the Picts, which then became their favourite residence.

"As the improvements in the art of war, from time to time, called for additional modes of defence, we find the original tower or peel was aided by strong walls flanked with masonry towers, the gates of which were secured by the portcullis. The barnakin or outer ballium was also added, which was surrounded by a strong rampart and wet ditch. Of this kind were the castles of Down, Borthwick, Home, and many others. And this was all that was necessary before the general use of heavy battering artillery.

"Before James VI. succeeded to the crown of England, the situation of Scotland was such as rendered it necessary for every baron there to have his residence more or less fortified, according to his power and consequence in the country, or according as his castle was situated. If it stood near Edinburgh or Stirling, where the inhabitants were more polished in their manners, and overawed by the neighbouring seat of government, all that was necessary in such a situation was a fortified capable of resisting the cursory attacks of robbers and thieves, who, so near the royal authority, never dared to stop to make a regular incursion, but only pillaged by surprise.

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surprise, and, if repulsed, instantly fled. The houses
Dean, Niddry, Melville, Allva, and many others, fell
under this description. But when the feat of a baron
was more remote from the royal protection, as in the
shires of Perth, Ross, or Caithness, then it was neces-
sary, in addition to the ancient peel, to call the aids of
tower walls, turrets with a rampart and wet ditch, to
enable the owner to resist the formidable attack of a
powerful adversary.

"The history of Scotland, so late as the reign of
James VI. affords a number of melancholy instances
of inveterate feuds that raged with unrelenting fury
among the great lords and lesser barons of that period;
and every mode of fortification then in use proved often
of little avail in defending the castle against the storm
or blockade of the enraged and relentless foe. Of this
kind were the castles of Duffus in Moray, Dunrobin
in Sutherland, Dunotter in the Mearns, and a great
many others.

"But the happy period is now arrived, when inter-
nal fortification against the domestic foe is of no use.
The nobles and barons of the land have deserted their
strong and gloomy castles for the more refined modern
houses of the eighteenth century, and the ancient and
venerable remains of the great insecurity of former
times are now fast falling to decay, and shortly scarce a
trace will be left, but in history, of their former ex-
istence."

The most remarkable herring fishery carried on in
the lochs of Scotland, is that of Loch Fyn, which is
above sixty-three miles in length, but in breadth scarce
four; the depth is from sixty to seventy fathoms.
This loch is noted for vast shoals of herrings, which
appear in July, and continue till January. The highest
season of the fishery is from September to Christmas,
when near six hundred boats, with four men in each,
are employed. A chain of nets is used (for several are
witted) of one hundred fathoms in length. As the her-
rings swim at very uncertain depths, so the net is sunk
to the depth the shoal is found to take. The success
therefore depends much on the judgment or good for-
tune of the fishermen in taking their proper depths;
for it often happens that one boat will take multitudes,
while the next does not catch a single fish, which causes
the boatmen to be perpetually inquiring of each other
with regard to the depth of their nets. These are kept
up by buoys to a proper pitch; the ropes that run
through them are fastened with pegs, and by drawing
up or letting out the rope (after taking out the pegs)
they adjust their situation, and then replace them.
Sometimes the fish swim in twenty fathoms water,
sometimes in fifty, and oftentimes even at the bottom.

It is computed that each boat gets about forty pounds
in the season. The fish are either salted and packed in
barrels for exportation, or sold fresh to the country
people, two or three hundred horses being brought
every day to the water-side from very distant parts. A
barrel holds 500 herrings, if they are of the best kind;

at a medium 700; but if more (for sometimes a barrel
will hold 1000) they are reckoned very poor. The late
price was 11. 4s. per barrel, but there is a drawback
of the duty on salt for those that are exported.

The great rendezvous for the vessels employed in the
fisheries of the western islands, is at Cambel-Town, in
Caithyre, where they clear out on the 12th of Septem-
ber, and sometimes 300 buffis are seen there at one
time. They must return to their different ports by the
13th of January, where they ought to receive the pre-
mium of 21. 10s. for each ton of herrings; but this
bounty is said to be very ill paid,—a great discouragement
to the fishery.

The principal salmon fisheries in Scotland are those
of the Tweed, the Tay, the Spey, Castle-Hill, and in
the sand bays below Slains. The salmon fisheries in the
Tweed are very considerable, and bring in vast sums.
They lie on each side of the river, and are all private
property, except what belongs to the dean and chapter
of Durham, which in rent, and tythe of fish, brings in
450l. per annum; all the other fisheries are liable to
tythes. The common rents of these fisheries are fifty
pounds a year, for which the tenants have as much
shore as is sufficient for shooting and landing their
nets: the limits of each are staked; and the fishermen
never fail going as near as possible to their neighbour's
limits. One man goes off in a small flat-bottomed
boat, square at one end, and, taking as large a circuit as
his net will admit, draws it on shore at the extremity
of his boundary, where others assist in landing it. The
best fishery is on the south side. Very fine salmon trout
are often taken, which come up here to spawn from
the sea, and return in the same manner with the salmon.

The chief salmon fishery in the Tay is near Perth,
where great abundance of that fish is taken; 3000
have been caught in one morning, weighing one with
another 18 pounds, the whole capture amounting to
48,000lb. The fishery begins on St. Andrew's Day, and
ends on the 26th of August, old style. The rents of the
fisheries amount to 3000l. per annum. The salmon
fishery in the Spey is very great; about 1700 barrels
full are caught in a season, and the shore is rented for
about 1200l. per annum. Great quantities of salmon
are caught at Castle-Hill, Dunet, Wick, and Thurso.
The miraculous draught once made at the last place
is still remembered, not less than 2500 having been
taken in one tide within the memory of man. A very
successful salmon fishery has, for some years, been
carried on below Slains. This is performed with very
long nets carried out to sea by boats; a great compass
taken, and the nets hawled on shore. It is remarked of
these fish, that they swim against the wind, and are
much better tasted than those taken in the fresh waters.

On the same coast is a large fishery of sea dogs,
which begins the last week of July, and ends the first
in September. The livers are boiled for oil; the bodies
split, dried, and sold to the common people, who come
from great distances for them.

Near the mouth of the Tay, there was some time since a very valuable fishery for pearls, taken out of the fresh water muscles. From the year 1761 to 1764, ten thousand pounds worth were sent to London, and sold from 10s. to 30s. per ounce. It is said that a pearl was found there weighing 33 grains. But this fishery is at present exhausted, from the avarice of the undertakers of it.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coasts: they have a considerable share in the whale-fishery carried on at Spitzbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government some time ago allowed them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of shipping employed in that article. They also take great quantities of cod on the banks in the north seas, and export it to different parts of Europe.

Several useful manufactures carrying on by the Scots at land are perhaps equally beneficial to those on the sea, particularly their iron, linen, and woollen manufactures. Their thread manufacture is equal to any in the world, and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. Some years ago the exports from Scotland to England and the British plantations, in linens, cambrick, checks, osunaburgs, inkle, and the like, amounted annually to 400,000*l.* exclusive of their home consumption. The woollen manufactures established in Scotland are also in a very promising way; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable. Though the Scots cannot rival the English in their finer cloths, yet they make at present some broad cloth proper for the wear of people of fashion in an undress, and in quality and fineness equal to that called Yorkshire cloth. The Scots have also made vast progress in working the mines, and smelting the ores of their country. They also reap a considerable profit from the coals they export to England, and have lately turned even their stones to account, by their contracts for paving the streets of London.

Many years will probably elapse, before the trade and improvements of Scotland can be brought to maturity: in any event, they never can give umbrage to the English, as the interests of the two people are or ought to be the same. Some of their manufactures, not yet mentioned, are, however, yet in their infancy. The town of Paisley also employs an incredible number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a reasonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works of every kind, delft-houses, and paper-mills, are erected every-where. The Scots carpeting makes neat and lasting furniture; and some essays have been lately made, with no inconsiderable degree of success, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as is found in any part of Europe.

After all that has been said, it may not be amiss to mention the prodigious disadvantages under which

both the commercial and landed interest of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment to England and foreign countries, where they spend their ready money. This is one of the evils arising to Scotland from the Union, which removed the seat of her legislature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the resort of volunteer absentees to that capital. While this partiality subsists, the Scots will probably continue to be distressed for a currency of specie. How far paper can supply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be in some measure lessened, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vast manufactures and works now set on foot in Scotland.

There is but one order of knighthood peculiar to Scotland, which is styled the order of the Thistle, instituted, according to some of the Scotch writers, by king Achaius, on his making an offensive league with Charlemagne, king of France, in the eighth century. It consists of the sovereign and twelve companions. They wear a green ribbon over their shoulder, and on their breast an embroidered star, representing St. Andrew, the tutelary saint of Scotland, irradiated, and this motto, *Nemo me impunè læsset*, "None shall provoke me with impunity." This order, after laying dormant for many years, was revived by James V. a prince of great taste and magnificence, but dropped about the time of the Reformation, and was again restored to its former lustre by queen Anne.

In the reign of Edward II. there was no difference between the value and denomination of the coins of England and Scotland. About the end of the reign of James II. a Scotch shilling was equal to no more than an English six-pence; and in the reign of Mary, queen of Scotland, was only worth a groat. Soon after the accession of James I. to the crown of England, the Scotch shilling was equal to no more than an English penny; their crowns and marks, which are only imaginary money, fell in the same proportion. A Scotch penny is now rarely met with; and the bodle, by which its use was supplied, though of double the value, begins to be scarce. There are still halfpennies, or babies, current in Scotland; but the English coin is now most common, and the currency in Scotland and England is the same: few make use of the Scotch computation.

As to the laws and constitution of Scotland, the ancient form of government appeared excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it must be allowed, that the power of the king was thereby greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority: but their government was too much of the aristocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppress their tenants and the com-

mon people. The voice in parliament, or conclusion of peace, without the consent of the people. The prerogative that he was not excluded from the government of the government. James IV. who was succeeded by his son Henry VII. of whom it appears by the constitution was rather the laws of Scotland, and partly from the highest court of justice, the college of justiciary lords of session, according to the constitution of this court is not the House of Lords, originally instituted by the French parliament, of the commons.

Every in all matters of the commons. All matters are determined by the commons. come within the jurisdiction of the kingdom. The highest court of equity is the justice court, and five judges. These, assisted by the assizes yearly decided by a majority of the commons. The Scots have, the same power, authority, and revenue of the commons in England, a court of equity, and the commons, are likewise common: but certain of the Exchequer in Scotland, to the treasury, and the commons.

In the reign of Charles II. Scotland was, in all respects, declared a high admiral is acknowledged general upon the commons, and creeks of the commons, and navigable rivers, and water-mark, for the commons can be improved by the lordship.

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mon people. The king of Scotland had no negative
voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make
peace, or conclude any other public business of impor-
tance, without the advice and approbation of parlia-
ment. The prerogative of the king was so bounded,
that he was not even intrusted with the executive part
of the government: and so late as the minority of
James IV. who was cotemporary with, and son-in-law
to Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed
out to him his duty, as the first servant of the people;
as appears by the acts still extant. In short, the con-
stitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical.

The laws of Scotland are now partly deduced from
the feudal system of government, partly from the civil
law, and partly from the laws of nature and nations.
The highest court of judicature in this kingdom is called
the college of justice, and consists of fifteen judges,
styled lords of session, who sit twice a year to administer
justice according to equity, and determine causes ap-
pealed to them from inferior tribunals. The sentence
of this court is not however final, an appeal lying to
the House of Lords in England. This court was ori-
ginally instituted by James V. on the model of the
French parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee
of the commons. It may be considered as a standing
tribunal in all matters of property that lie before them.
All matters are determined by the civil law, unless they
come within the cognizance of the municipal laws of
the kingdom. The lords of council and session act also
as a court of equity.

The highest criminal tribunal in Scotland is called
the justice court, and consists of a justice-general, jus-
tice-clerk, and five other judges, who are lords of ses-
sion. These, assisted by a jury, or pannel of fifteen,
hold the assizes yearly, when all causes are tried, and
decided by a majority of the pannel, as they are not
obliged to be unanimous.

The Scots have, by the articles of union, a third
court, called the court of Exchequer; which enjoys
the same power, authority, privilege, and jurisdiction,
over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of Exche-
quer in England, and all matters and things compe-
tent to the court of Exchequer in one of these king-
doms, are likewise competent to the Exchequer of the
other: but certain powers are vested in the judges of
the Exchequer in Scotland, which formerly belonged
to the treasury, and still appertain to that board in
England.

In the reign of Charles II. the court of admiralty in
Scotland was, in all causes competent to its own ju-
isdiction, declared to be a supreme court. The lord
high admiral is acknowledged the king's lieutenant and
justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, har-
bours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters,
and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within
low-water-mark, so that nothing competent to his ju-
isdiction can be interfered with, in the first instance,
but by the lord high admiral, and the judges of his

court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admi-
rally may be brought again before this court, but no
appeal lies from it to the lords of session, or any other
court, unless in cases not maritime. In this court
causes are tried by the civil law, which in such cases
is likewise the common law of Scotland. The office
of lord admiral of Scotland is now little more than no-
minal, though the salary annexed to it is supposed to
be about one thousand pounds per annum. The judge
of the admiralty is generally a person of distinction,
and there are considerable perquisites belonging to him.

The college, or faculty of advocates, are within
themselves an orderly court, having under their subor-
dination a body of inferior lawyers, or attorneys, who
term themselves writers to the signet, because they alone
can subscribe the writs which pass the signet. This
college, in some degree, answers to the English inns
of court, and no candidate can be admitted without a
strict examination.

A sheriff's court is held in every county, in which
he, or his deputy, presides, and administers justice in
all causes civil and criminal. Formerly the office of
sheriff was hereditary; but by a late act of parliament
it is enacted, that all high sheriffs, or stewards, shall
for the future be nominated and appointed annually by his
majesty, his heirs and successors. It is also enacted,
in regard to the sheriff's deputies, and steward's depu-
ties, that there shall be only one in each county, or
stewartry, who must have been an advocate seven years
at least. These deputies are to be nominated by the
king for the term of seven years, with such further
continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which
they are to enjoy their offices for life, unless guilty of
some great offence.

The baron courts of Scotland, in civil matters, ex-
tend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling;
and in criminal causes, to petty actions of assault and
battery. These courts belong to every person who
holds a barony of the king; and they had formerly the
power of life and death; but at present they can only
inflict a fine, not exceeding twenty shillings, or set the
offender in the stocks for three hours in the day.

The commissaries courts in Scotland are similar to
those of the English diocesan chancellors. The highest
of these is kept at Edinburgh, wherein four judges pre-
side, who hear and determine all causes relative to wills
and testaments, the right of patronage to ecclesiastical
benefices, tithes, divorces, &c.

The justices of peace in Scotland possess much the
same power as those in England.

The royal burghs form a sort of commercial parlia-
ment, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, and con-
sists of a representative from each burgh, to consult
upon the common good of the whole. The trade be-
tween Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their
regulation; and they fix the staple-port, which has been
removed from Dort to Camphere. Their conservator
is nominated by the crown, but then they regulate his
power,

power, approve his deputies, and appoint his salary; so that in fact the whole staple trade is subject to their management.

The constitution of Scotland has varied at different times, according as the power of the king, the nobles, or the commons happened to be most prevalent; but at last it settled in a limited monarchy. The Scots enjoyed their own parliament, consisting of king, lords, and commons, though differently modelled from that of England; but the two nations being incorporated by the act of Union, the Scottish parliament ceased of course, and that kingdom is now represented by sixteen peers, and forty-five commoners, who sit and vote in the British parliament. These peers are elected every parliament from the whole body of the Scotch nobility; and the commons are chosen by the shires and certain boroughs classed for that purpose. The great offices of the crown are still maintained and bestowed upon the noblemen of North-Britain.

By an article of the treaty of Union, the land-tax of Scotland is settled at a certain sum; but the customs and other branches of the revenue, are on the same footing there as in England.

A COMPENDIOUS HISTORY OF S C O T L A N D.

THE ancient history of Scotland, like that of most other nations, is obscured by fables and uncertain traditions. All we know is, that at the time of the Roman government in Britain, that kingdom was inhabited by three different kinds of people, distinguished by the names of Caledonians, Scots, and Picts. The Caledonians were the original inhabitants of the country; the Scots, most probably, were a nation of adventurers from ancient Scythia; and the Picts were the original natives of Britain, and driven out by the Belgic Gauls. Christianity was planted in Scotland about the two hundredth year of the Christian æra, by Donald I.

We have very little account of Scotland till the time when the famous Agricola commanded in Britain. That great general totally defeated the combined army of these northern people, led against him by a powerful prince, called Galdus, or Galgacus.

When the Romans left Britain, in the year 448, the Picts and Scots invaded the northern parts of that country, and practised such inhuman barbarities on the inhabitants, that they called in the Romans to their assistance. Reinforced by these foreign auxiliaries, they attacked, routed their enemies, and drove them back to their own country.

About the year 843, the Picts, who had long subsisted as a separate nation, were totally subdued by Kenneth Mac Alpin, king of Scotland, and obliged to incorporate themselves with their conquerors, by taking their name, and adopting their laws.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore,

who mounted the Scottish throne in the year 1057, married Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling, the true heir to the English crown. Alarmed at this alliance, and the popularity of Edgar, William the Conqueror, who then swayed the English sceptre, invaded Scotland at the head of a powerful army, and forced Malcolm to pay him homage. This peace introduced a total alteration of manners among the Scots, in which queen Margaret, at once the pattern of piety and politeness, laboured incessantly. She began with her own court, which the new-modelled, by introducing into it the offices, furniture, and modes of life, which were usual among the more polite nations of Europe. She dismissed from her service all who were noted for impiety and immorality; and charged Turgot, her confessor, under pain of her displeasure, to give her his real sentiments upon the state of the kingdom, after the best inquiry he could make. Turgot's report was by no means favourable to the reputation of the Scots. He informed Margaret, that faction raged among the nobles; rapine among the commons; and incontinence among all degrees of men. Above all, he complained that the kingdom was destitute of a learned clergy, capable of reforming the people by their doctrine and example. This report, however, did not discourage the queen; she soon made her husband sensible how necessary it was for his glory and safety, to second her efforts for reforming his subjects. She represented to him particularly the corruption of justice, and the insolence of the soldiery; and found in him a ready disposition for reforming all abuses. He began the good work, by setting the example in his own person, and obliging his nobility to follow it. But superstition had too great a share in these reformations: Malcolm wanted the riches of his kingdom in founding hospitals, building churches, monasteries, and other ecclesiastical structures, adorning them with vessels of gold and silver, and endowing them with ample privileges and revenues.

Malcolm soon after invaded England, and laid siege to the castle of Alnwick; but before he could reduce it, he was attacked by Robert de Mowbray, earl of Northumberland, at the head of an army, and killed in the contest; and his excellent queen, Margaret, who was then ill at Edinburgh, survived him only four days. These events happened in the year 1093, in the thirtieth year of Malcolm's reign.

Donald VII. the uncle of Malcolm, mounted the throne of Scotland, on the death of his nephew. He expelled all the foreigners out of the kingdom, though in the interest of Edgar Atheling, and obliged them to seek refuge in England. But finding himself unable to defend his territories against the opposition formed in favour of Edgar, Alexander, and David, the brothers of Malcolm, he invited the Danes and Norwegians to his assistance; offering to cede to them the Orkney and Shetland islands, by way of indemnification. The offer was accepted; and Magnus, king of Norway, after taking

possession of the alliance of Denmark, who complained of becoming a province of William Rufus, in the late Malcolm; and the Scots on the throne was obliged to let the Scots soon instead of investing the throne, repaired to Scotland. He did not take being slain by Malcolm Donald upon the throne. Rufus now sent an army, assisted from obliged Donald he was not now overtaken and brought to be put out of imprisonment, which Soon after the throne, his sister Margaret was married to Edgar and Scotland after a reign of nine Dundee in 1107. Alexander, his son, succeeded himself in power. He afterwards applied in the year 1120 and twenty-one days brother

David, who, having been educated in the daughter of Waltham the Conqueror; and great earldoms of Scotland, the He cultivated his having early foreseen the empress Matilda by the death of her he took an oath to succeed.

Accordingly when seized the crown, hospitable reception of which he made like and Newcastle north of England the empress and her

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possession of the islands, marched an army to
the assistance of Donald. These barbarians soon be-
came so insolent, that they were detested by the Scots,
who complained that their country was in danger of
becoming a province to Norway.

William Rufus, who then filled the throne of Eng-
land, sent, in the mean time, Duncan, a natural son
of the late Malcolm, at the head of an army, against
Donald; and the Scots, imagining he was come to place
Edgar on the throne, joined his standard. The usurper
was obliged to fly to the islands for protection.
But the Scots soon perceived their mistake; Duncan,
instead of investing Edgar with the insignia of govern-
ment, repaired to Scone, where he was solemnly crown-
ed. He did not however long survive his exaltation,
being slain by Malpedir, earl of Mearns, who replaced
Donald upon the throne.

Rufus now sent Edgar into Scotland, at the head of
an army, assisted by his uncle Edgar Atheling, and
soon obliged Donald to seek his safety in flight; but
he was not now fortunate enough to escape; he was
overtaken and brought back to Edgar, who caused his
eyes to be put out, and condemned him to perpetual
imprisonment, where he died.

Soon after the accession of Edgar to the Scottish
throne, his sister Matilda, who had been carried by
her aunt Christiansa into the monastery of Wilton,
was married to Henry I. by which the crowns of
England and Scotland were strongly cemented. Edgar,
after a reign of nine years and three months, died at
Dundee in 1107.

Alexander, his brother, ascended the throne, and ex-
erted himself in punishing the enormous crimes com-
mitted by his nobility in every part of the kingdom.
He afterwards applied himself to works of piety, and
died in the year 1124, after a reign of seventeen years
and twenty-one days, and was succeeded by his younger
brother

David, who, with his sister queen Matilda, had
been educated in England. He married Maud, the
daughter of Waltheof, by Judith, the niece of William
the Conqueror; and afterwards became possessed of the
great earldoms of Huntingdon and Northumberland; so
that he was, at the time of his accession to the throne
of Scotland, the most powerful subject in England.
He cultivated his family friendship with Henry I. and
having early foreseen the opposition which his niece,
the empress Maud (heirress to the crown of England
by the death of her elder brother) would encounter,
he took an oath to maintain her and her issue in that
succession.

Accordingly when Stephen, on the death of Henry,
seized the crown, he not only gave all her friends an
hospitable reception, but raised an army, at the head
of which he marched into England, seized upon Car-
lisle and Newcastle, and obliged the nobility in the
north of England to give hostages for their fidelity to
the empress and her young son, afterwards Henry II.

He was however soon after obliged to make a peace
with Stephen, and his son did homage for his English
estates.

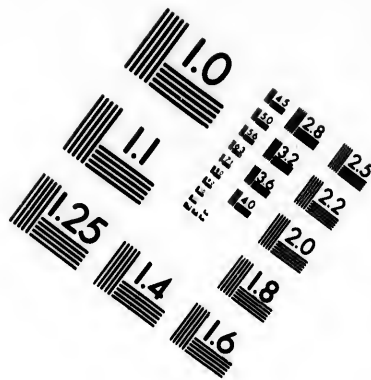
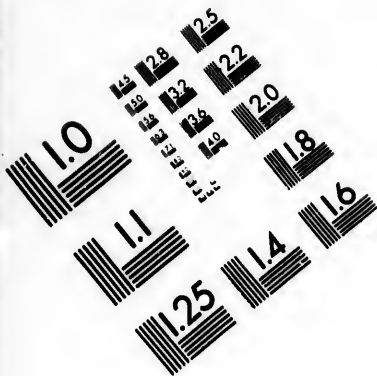
About two years afterwards he again invaded Eng-
land, where his army committed the most shocking bar-
barities, which neither David nor his son could restrain.
This conduct so exasperated the northern barons against
the Scots, that they marched at the head of an army
against David, and advanced towards Northallerton,
where they erected their famous standard. Its body
was a kind of box placed upon wheels, in the centre
of which the mast of a ship was erected, surmounted
by a silver cross, and round it were hung the banners
of St. Peter, St. John de Beverly, and St. Wilfred:
The English placed the utmost confidence in the for-
tune of their standard, and its supernatural efficacy.
Both armies met on a plain called Catton-Moor, and
after a dreadful contest the Scots were defeated, and
David and his son saved themselves in Carlisle. The
Scottish monarch, however, still continued to be the
principal support of Maud, and, in conjunction with
the earl of Gloucester, would in all probability have
placed the crown on her head, had not her own haugh-
tiness and imprudence frustrated every attempt made
in her favour. After a reign of twenty-nine years two
months and three days, David died at Carlisle, and was
buried with his ancestors at Dumferling, in the year
1153. He was succeeded in the throne by his grand-
son

Malcolm IV. This prince attended Henry II. in a
campaign in the county of Thoulouse, where he gave
sufficient proofs of his valour; but soon after applied
himself to the founding and endowing of religious
houses, and died in the year 1165, being the twelfth of
his reign, and the twenty-fifth of his age. He was
succeeded by his brother

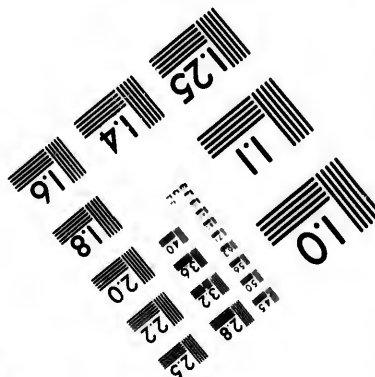
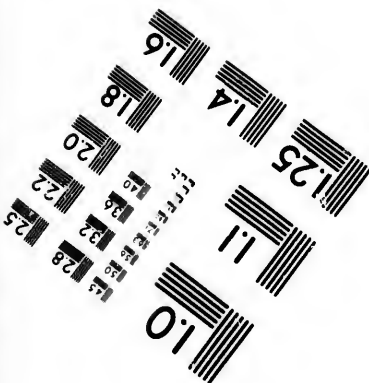
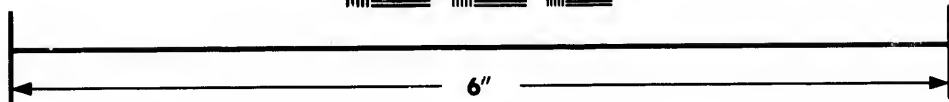
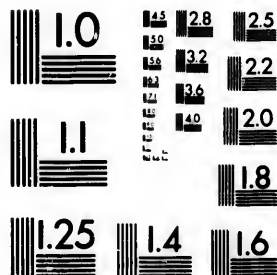
William. He invaded England, and was taken pri-
soner, while he was besieging the castle of Alnwick.
Henry sent him, with other state prisoners, to the castle
of Falaise in Normandy; but afterwards set him at li-
berty, on his doing homage for the crown of Scotland,
and acknowledging that he held that kingdom as a
fief of England. But this was afterwards abrogated
by Richard I. He died in the year 1214, in the 43^d
year of his reign, and the 74th of his age. He was
succeeded by his son

Alexander II. who died in 1249, leaving the crown
to his son Alexander III. a very good prince, who
made the happiness of his people his chief care. He
first married Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of Eng-
land, by whom he had Alexander (who married the
daughter of the earl of Flanders), David, and Margaret.
The last married Hangowan, or, as some writers call
him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway. That
princess was delivered of a daughter, named Margaret,
generally called the Maiden of Norway; by whose
death, without issue, all the posterity of William failed;
and the crown of Scotland returned to David, earl





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of Huntingdon, brother both to William and Malcolm IV.

Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, great grandson to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce, grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The decision was referred to Edward I. of England. After a long discussion, Edward awarded the crown to Baliol, who agreed to do homage for it to the king of England. Baliol was accordingly crowned at Scone, and soon after surrendered his crown to Edward, who detained him prisoner in England.

Having thus secured the person of Baliol, Edward obliged the Scots to sign instruments of their subjection to him, and carried off or destroyed all the historical records of their kingdom, taking with him the fatidical stone on which the kings of Scotland had long been crowned, and deposited it in Westminster-Abbey, where it still remains. Enraged at the loss of every thing they valued, the Scots determined to perish rather than wear the chains of the victor. Edward perceiving his mistake, changed his measures; he treated them on the footing of subjects, and projected an union between the two kingdoms. Happy had it been for both had this treaty took place, but the Scots patriots treated it with disdain. They united themselves under Sir William Wallace, one of the greatest heroes of that or perhaps any other age. Under this intrepid leader they performed actions which will be handed down to the latest posterity; but he being only a private gentleman, his success soon caused him to be envied by the Scotch nobility. Violent cabals were formed against him, and his popularity daily declined.

In the mean time Edward prepared another formidable army for the invasion of Scotland. It consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horse, and 4000 light armed troops, and was attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. This army, when joined by the troops already in Scotland, formed an irresistible body. Edward divided it into two parts, one of which, consisting of 40,000 men, he commanded in person. Wallace was at the head of the Scotch army, encamped at Falkirk; but before the English appeared, the general was deserted by Cummin, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Betrayed by his friends, and abandoned by a large part of his army, Wallace made but a feeble stand against Edward, who obtained a complete victory. Wallace, however, made an orderly retreat, and found means to cross the Carron, along whose banks he marched in safety.

Bruce (who was then but a youth, and had hitherto served in the English army, where he had given proofs of his aspiring genius) appeared on the opposite banks; and distinguishing the Scottish chieftain, as well by his majestic port as by the intrepid activity of his behaviour, called out to him, and desired a short conference. He

represented to Wallace the fruitless and ruinous enterprise in which he was engaged, and endeavoured to persuade him to bend at last his inflexible spirit to submission under superior power and superior fortune. Wallace laboured to convince him of his error in joining with the enemy of Scotland; adding, that as the interests of his country, no more than those of a brave man, could never be sincerely cultivated by a sacrifice of liberty, he was determined, as far as possible, to prolong his freedom, and was desirous that his own life, as well as the existence of the nation, might terminate, when they could no longer be preserved but by receiving the chains of the haughty victor. Fired by these noble sentiments, Bruce determined to pursue the same path of glory, and either free his country from their ignoble state of servitude, or perish in the glorious attempt. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the invaders of his country; but being at last betrayed by one of his pretended friends, he was carried to London, and executed as a traitor. Bruce did not live to put his resolutions in practice; he died soon after the battle of Falkirk, conjuring his son, with his last breath, to revenge the injuries of his bleeding country, and support her independence till victory or death should put an end to the contest.

Young Bruce obeyed the dying injunctions of his father, and making his escape from the English court, where he was detained a prisoner at large, repaired to Scotland, and killed Cummin with his own hand, for his attachment to Edward. This murder afforded the seal to a conspiracy already formed by the Scottish nobility: they had now no resource left but to shake off the yoke of Edward, or perish in the conflict. Bruce flew to different quarters, excited his partisans to arms, attacked with success the dispersed bodies of the English, and drove them once more out of the kingdom. Exasperated at this unexpected attack of the Scots, and the death of Cummin, Edward vowed revenge against the whole Scottish nation, and assembled a very powerful army, in order to make the defenceless Scots the victims of his severity. In the mean time he sent Aymer de Valence with a considerable force to check the progress of the insurgents; and that general, falling unexpectedly upon Bruce, at Methven in Perthshire, threw his army into such confusion, that a total defeat was the consequence. Bruce himself, attended with a few of his followers, had the good fortune to escape the dreadful carnage, and took shelter in the western isles. Edward soon after marched his powerful army to Carlisle, in order to enter the Scottish kingdom, and carry his threats into execution: but death put a period to his expedition and his life, after having destroyed, according to the best historians, 100,000 of the Scots. He however conjured his son and successor, with his dying breath, to prosecute the enterprise, and never to desist till he had totally subdued the kingdom of Scotland. His death happened on the 7th of July, 1307.

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Bruce soon afterwards quitted his retreat in the western isles, where he had suffered inexpressible hardships, and appeared again at the head of a small army of his friends and followers. His first exploit was an important advantage which he obtained by surprise over Aymer de Valence, who commanded the English forces; so that the Scots began to entertain hopes of recovering their independence, especially as the feeble conduct of young Edward had greatly abated the terror of the English arms.

On the other hand, Edward II. perceiving at length the necessity of acting with vigour, accordingly assembled a powerful army, in order to finish this important enterprize by one dreadful blow. He entered Scotland at the head of a numerous body of forces, and advanced towards Bruce's army, encamped near Stirling. His chief officers were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Those under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, his nephew Randolph, earl of Murray; and the young lord Walter, high steward of Scotland. The Scottish general, knowing that he was unable to face the English in the open field, without some advantageous circumstances in his favour, drew up his army near Bannockburn, having a hill on his right flank and a morass on his left. In the front of his army was a wide rivulet, on the banks of which he caused deep pits to be dug, and sharp stakes to be planted in them, and the whole to be carefully covered with turf. These precautions had the desired effect; the English cavalry, eager to engage the enemy, fell into the pits, and were driven off the field of battle, before they had time to rally. This unfortunate accident struck the army of Edward with a panic, and Bruce obtained a complete victory. The Scotch writers make the loss of the English to amount to 50,000 men, and their own to 4000. The flower of the English nobility were either killed or taken prisoners; their camp, which was immensely rich, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himself, with a few followers, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing-boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314, and became a subject of great triumph to the victors.

Bruce was by this fortunate acquisition established on the Scottish throne, and the remainder of his reign was a series of the most glorious successes. He sent his brother Edward into Ireland, at the head of a considerable army, who obtained very great advantages over the natives, but was at last slain in battle. Robert, who knew that the events of war are always uncertain, made peace with England, and died in the year 1328, leaving his country in the greatest prosperity.

David II. the son and successor of Robert Bruce, was a virtuous prince; but his abilities as a king were greatly eclipsed by those of Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. The English monarch espoused the cause of John Baliol, son to the original com-

petitor for the Scottish throne, and defeated David's forces in several bloody battles. That prince himself was taken prisoner at the battle of Darham. After eleven years imprisonment in England, he obtained his liberty, on paying a ransom of 100,000 marks, and died without issue, in the year 1371. By the death of David, the last of the Brucean line, the crown devolved upon the Stuart family, whose chief had married the niece of Robert Bruce. The first monarch was

Robert II. a wise and brave prince. He was an excellent judge of mankind, and always employed generals of the most distinguished abilities. He was fifty-seven years of age when he mounted the throne, and seventy when the first war broke out against England, so that he had very little opportunity of displaying his courage. He died in 1390, and was succeeded by his son

Robert III. a prince of a slender capacity, though extremely innocent and inoffensive in his conduct. But Scotland was at that time very ill inclined to cherish, or even to endure, sovereigns of that character. The duke of Albany, Robert's brother, a prince of more abilities, at least of a more boisterous and violent disposition, assumed the government of the state; and, not satisfied with his present authority, entertained the horrid purpose of extirpating his brother's children, and of fixing the crown in his own family. Accordingly he threw David, his eldest nephew, into prison, and suffered him there to perish with hunger. James, the younger brother of David, now only stood between the tyrant and the throne; and Robert, sensible of his son's danger, embarked him on board a ship, with a view of sending him into France, and intrusting him to the protection of that friendly power. Unfortunately the vessel was taken by the English. Prince James, a boy about nine years of age, was carried to London; and though there subsisted a truce at that time between the two kingdoms, Henry refused to restore the young prince to his liberty. Robert, worn out with cares and infirmities, was unable to bear the shock of this last misfortune, and soon after paid the debt of nature, leaving the government in the hands of the duke of Albany.

James I. being set at liberty in the year 1424, on paying an exorbitant ransom, ascended the throne of his ancestors; and having received an excellent education in England, determined to abridge the overgrown power of his nobility. He was also desirous of recovering the crown lands which had been unjustly wrested from his family during his residence in England. But these attempts cost him his life; some of the chief nobility formed a conspiracy against him, and he was murdered in his bed, in 1437, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

The death of James I. was succeeded by a long minority, attended with all the distractions too common in those events. When the young prince became old enough to hold the reins of government, these

these distractions subsided, and James gave many indications of his inheriting the noble spirit of his great ancestors. Soon after his accession to the throne, the quarrel commenced between the houses of York and Lancaster, and became absolutely incurable but by the extinction of one party. This was too great an advantage not to be seized by James, who hoped now to recover those places the English had formerly conquered. In the year 1460, he laid siege to Roxborough, and had provided himself with a small train of artillery for the enterprize: but his cannon was so ill framed, that one of them burst as he was firing it, and put an end to his life in the flower of his age.

James III. his son and successor, was also a minor. The usual distractions ensued in the kingdom: the queen-dowager, Anne of Gueldres, aspired to the government, and the family of Douglas opposed her pretensions. Nor was the nation greatly relieved when James came of age to take the government into his own hands. Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to favourites, with many other errors of a feeble mind, too plainly mark the reign of this weak prince. His turbulent administration was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, and he was slain in battle, in the thirty-sixth year of his age, in the year 1488.

James IV. who ascended the throne of Scotland, upon the death of his father, was one of the most accomplished princes of his age: he was naturally generous and brave, loved magnificence, delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He at once encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, who soon became the rivals of the English. In the year 1502, he married Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. and it was hoped that this alliance would remove all source of discord between the two kingdoms. But this flattering idea was deceitful: James still cherished the fatal error of his family, a predilection for the French. He joined that nation against Henry VIII. led an army into England, and was slain, together with the flower of his nobility, in the battle of Flodden, which happened in the year 1513.

James V. was very young when his father fell in the field of honour, and a minority both long and troublesome ensued. He imitated his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrine of the Reformation beginning to gain ground in Scotland, he listened to the instigations of his clergy, and gave way to a religious persecution. In the year 1552, a war broke out with England, and the duke of Norfolk, at the head of a numerous army, entered the Scottish territories, and committed some disorders; but hearing that James was at the head of a strong body of forces, retreated into England. Inflamed with a desire of military glory, and determined to revenge the affronts he had received, James gave the signal for pursuing them, and carrying the war into England.

But his nobility opposed this resolution, and refused to attend him in his projected enterprize. Enraged at this defection, he reproached them with cowardice and threatened them with the effects of his anger. He however determined to pursue his purpose, and entered England at the head of a few forces that adhered to him. He had not advanced far, before his troops were seized with a panic, on hearing that a small detachment of the English was approaching, and fled in the utmost confusion. This disaster deeply affected James, who was of a melancholy disposition, as well as endowed with a high spirit, that he lost all command of his temper. Rage against his nobility, who he believed had betrayed him; shame for a defeat by such unequal numbers; regret for the past, and fear for the future, so wrought upon him that he would admit of no consolation, but abandoned himself wholly to despair, and died soon after, in the flower of his age.

Mary, the daughter and successor of James, was only a few hours old when her father died. She was sent to France when an infant, and married, during her minority, to the dauphin, who died before she ascended the throne of Scotland. This princess, famous at once for her beauty and misfortunes, soon after she obtained the crown of her ancestors, married James Darnly, whose untimely death produced a rebellion in her kingdom. Mary's forces were defeated, and she herself obliged to take refuge in England, where she was detained a prisoner eighteen years by queen Elizabeth, and afterwards beheaded by order of that princess, in the year 1586-7, and in the forty-sixth of her age.

James VI. succeeded his mother on the Scottish throne; and, after the death of queen Elizabeth, ascended that of England, after shewing great abilities for governing in Scotland. By this means the two crowns became united, and the independency of Scotland in consequence destroyed.

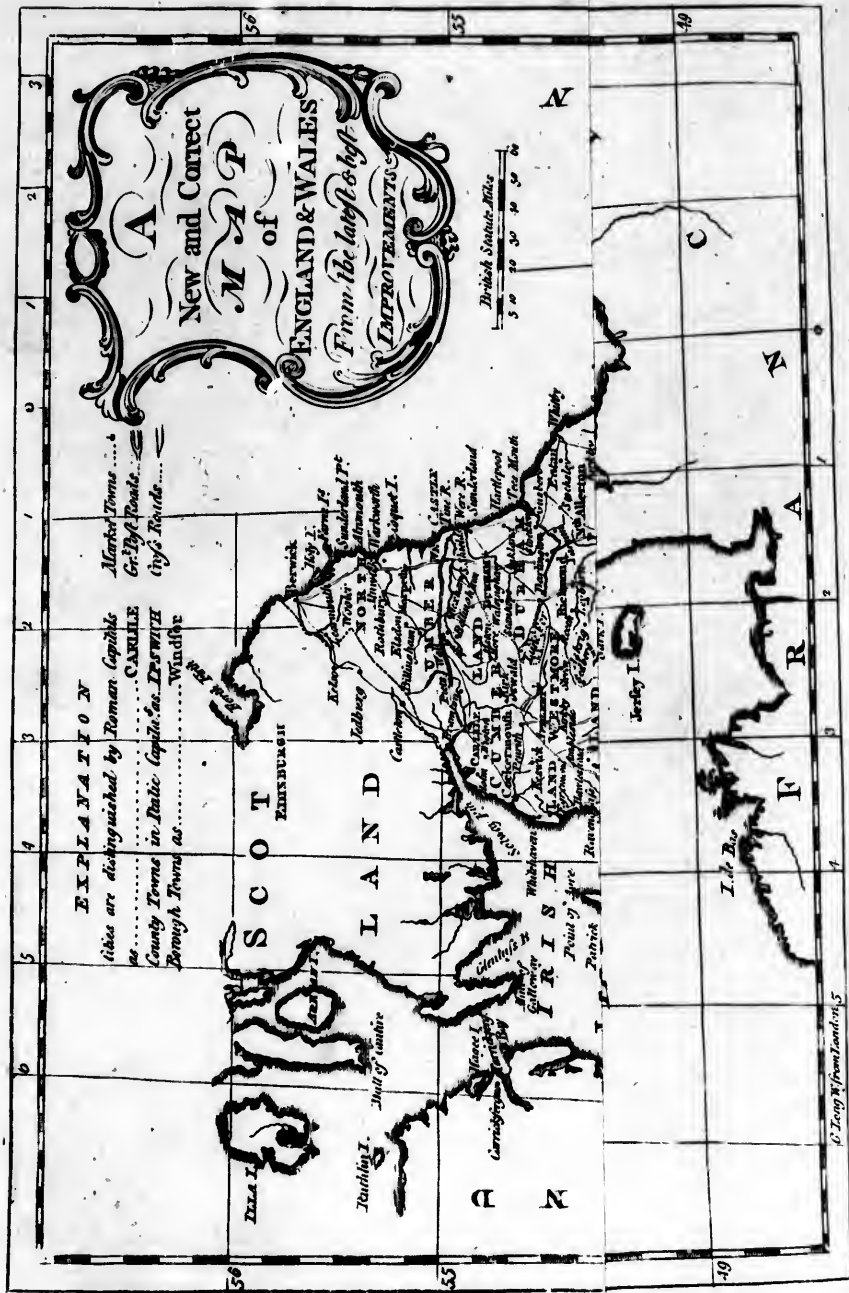
James, after a splendid but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his arbitrary principles and conduct, induced both his Scottish and English subjects to take up arms against him; and indeed, the sword was first drawn again Charles in Scotland. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army, who at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000*l.* to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several bloody but unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. who was finally 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.

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A
New and Correct
MAP
of
ENGLAND & WALES
From the latest & best
IMPROVEMENTS

British Statute Miles
 5 10 20 30 40 50 60

EXPLANATION
 Cities are distinguished by Roman Capitals
 as ... **CARLISLE** ...
 County Towns in Italic Capitals, as *Derby*
 Borough Towns as ... *Windsor*

Marked Towns ...
City of London ...
City's Roads ...

C. Long W. Smith Lond. 1715

[GROPER.]

At the accession of King James VI of Scotland, the White Union, which had been used by the Scots, and offered to the incorporation of the two kingdoms, was rejected by a majority of the Scottish nobles, and the two kingdoms remained on to agree to a union, partly by the desire of the nobles; since which Scotland became one kingdom with England. Sir John Sinclair's map of Scotland (1793) at the time of the union. The armorial bearings of the two kingdoms, with a crown, were lowered; the crest

C
 EN
 Boundaries, Extent of Produce, Fisheries, History, &c.

SOUTH BRITAIN
 called ENGLAND, lies on the north, by the North Sea; on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south, by the English Channel; and on the east, by the North Sea. It is bounded on the south, by the English Channel, from France. It contains 94,350 square miles, and 300 in breadth, north latitude, and between 10 and 15 degrees west longitude. It is bounded in Cornwall, on the borders of France.

England is a country where it joins to the continent, liable to the inhabitants on the coast, by agues and fevers, vapours which are the natural sharpness of the air, be clothed with flowers in March, covered with blossoms, continues; so that the spring of vernal bloom, are frequently of the sphere. However, it renders it friendly to the general, especially in the time of

At the accession of queen Anne to the crown of England, the Whigs again made application to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now stands. The majority of the Scots parliament for a considerable time rejected the proposal; but were at length persuaded on to agree to it, partly from conviction, and partly by the distribution of money among the needy; since which the histories of England and Scotland become one and the same.

St. John Sinclair computes the present population of Scotland (1793) at 1,700,000.

The armorial bearing of Scotland is, a lion rampant, gules, with a double tressure flowered and counter-flowered; the crest, a lion crowned imperial.

C H A P. X.

E N G L A N D.

Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Soil, Climate, Rivers, Produce, Fisheries, Manufactories, Religion, Learning, History, &c.

SOUTH BRITAIN, or that part of Great-Britain called ENGLAND, including WALES, 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. This part of Great-Britain contains 94,450 square miles. It is about 380 miles in length, and 300 in breadth; situated between 50 and 56 deg. north lat. and between 2 deg. east, and 6 deg. 20 min. west longitude. It is of a triangular form; the Land's End in Cornwall, Dover-Head in Kent, and Caithness on the borders of Scotland, forming three angular points.

England is washed by the sea on all sides, except where it joins to Scotland; which situation renders the country liable to great uncertainty of weather, so that the inhabitants on part of the sea-coasts are often visited by agues and fevers; but at the same time the warm vapours which continually arise from the sea, qualify the natural sharpness of the air, and cause the earth to be clothed with a perpetual verdure. The spring begins in March, and in May the whole country is covered with blossoms. The cold, however, too often continues; so that while the trees display all the pomp of vernal bloom, they, as well as the human nerves, are frequently chilled with the coldness of the atmosphere. However, the situation of England near the sea renders it friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, especially those who live on a dry soil.

In the time of the Romans, the whole island went

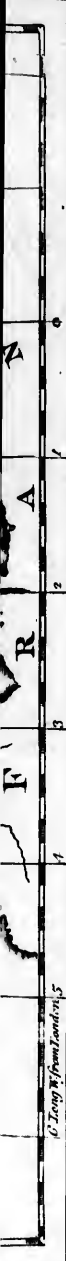
by the name of Britannia. The word Brit, according to Mr. Camden, signified painted or stained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies; though some antiquaries do not agree on this etymology. Some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country; but we prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which furnished a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island.

England has been differently divided at different periods of time. When the Romans first landed in Britain, it was inhabited by seventeen tribes, viz. the Danmonii, Durotriges, Belgæ, Atrebatii, Regni, Cantium, Trinobantes, Juni, Caticuchlani, Dobuni, Silures, Dimetæ, Ordovires, Cornavii, Coritani, Brigantes, Ottadini: but they afterwards becoming masters of it, divided it into the four following provinces: 1. Britannia Prima, comprehending the southern parts of England. 2. Britannia Secunda, comprehending the western parts, and Wales. 3. Maxima Cæsariensis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde. 4. Flavia Cæsariensis, comprising the middle counties. To each of these tribes a certain number of counties were allotted, with their chief cities.

About the year 450, when the Saxons invaded England, and when they were established in the year 582, they divided the island into seven unequal parts, called kingdoms, generally styled the Saxon heptarchy; each leader appropriating to himself the parts he had conquered.

THE SAXON HEPTARCHY.

KINGDOMS.	COUNTIES.	CH. TOWNS.
1. Kent, founded by Hengist, in 457, and ended in 823 ..	} Kent	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella, in 491, and ended in 600		Sussex
	Surrey	Southwark.
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa, in 575, and ended in 793	Norfolk	Norwich.
	Suffolk	Bury St. Edmunds.
	Cambridge	Cambridge.
	Isle of Ely	Ely.
	Cornwall	Launceston.
	Devon	Exeter.
4. West Saxons, founded by Cerdic, in 519, and ended in 1060 ..	Dorset	Dorchester.
	Somerfet	Bath.
	Wiltshire	Salisbury.
	Hants	Winchester.
	Berks	Abingdon.



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 New and Correct
M A P
 of
ENGLAND & WALES
 From the latest & best
IMPROVEMENTS

O C E A N

British Statute Miles
 5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 5



Markets Towns ...
 Great Roads ...
 County Towns in Shire ...
 Wines

EXPLANATION
 Cities are distinguished by Roman Capitals
 as ...
 County Towns in Shire ...
 Wines

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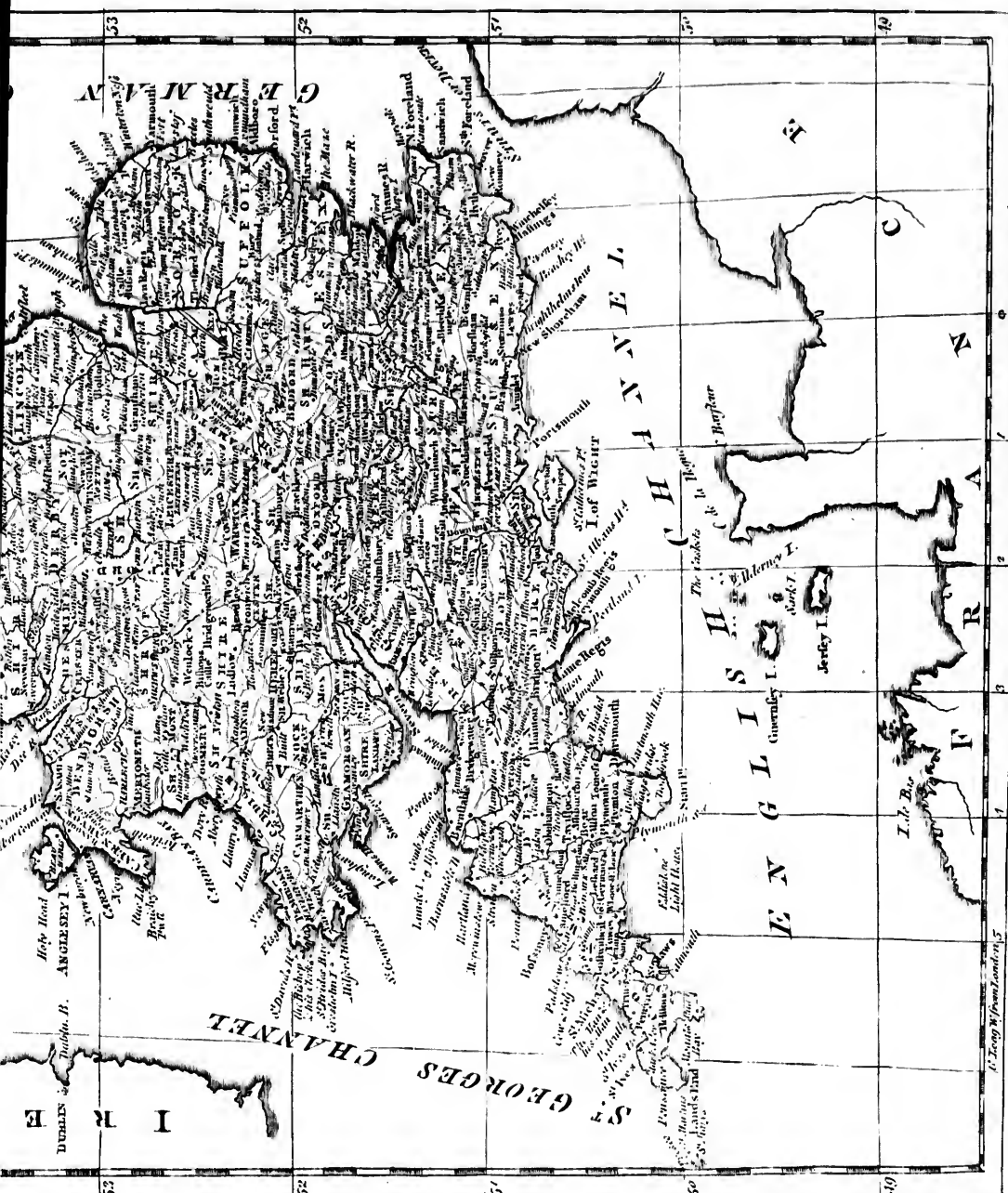
DUBLIN

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DUNDON IRE

GERMAN

ST GEORGES CHANNEL

ENGLIS

CHANNEL

IRISH

C. Jeay W. Jones London 1855

KINGDOMS.	COUNTIES.	CH. TOWNS.
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida, in 547, and ended in 792...	Lancaster.....	Lancaster.
	York.....	York.
	Durham.....	Durham.
	Cumberland.....	Carlisle.
	Westmoreland..	Appleby.
6. East Saxons, founded by Erchewin, in 527, & ended in 746.	Northumberland & Scotland, to the Frith of Edinburgh.....	Newcastle.
	Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertford..	London.
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda, in 582, and ended in 874.....	Gloucester.....	Gloucester.
	Hereford.....	Hereford.
	Worcester.....	Worcester.
	Warwick.....	Warwick.
	Leicester.....	Leicester.
	Rutland.....	Oakham.
	Northampton..	Northampton.
	Lincoln.....	Lincoln.
	Huntingdon....	Huntingdon.
	Bedford.....	Bedford.
	Buckingham....	Aylesbury.
Oxford.....	Oxford.	
Stafford.....	Stafford.	
Derby.....	Derby.	
Salop.....	Shrewsbury.	
Nottingham....	Nottingham.	
Chester, the other part of Hertford, }	Chester. Hertford.	

The great Alfred divided England into counties; and, since the Norman conquest, it has been divided into six circuits, each circuit containing a certain number of counties. Two judges are appointed for each circuit, which they visit annually, in order to administer justice to the inhabitants of each respective county, without the trouble and expence that must attend their coming to the capital. These circuits are as follows:

1. HOME CIRCUIT.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Essex.....	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
Hertford.....	Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishops-Stortford, Berkhamsted, Hemsted, and Barnet.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Kent.....	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Wealdwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Faversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Margate, Gravesend, and Milton.
Surrey.....	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wandsworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagshot, Egham, and Dorking.
Suffex.....	Chichester, Lewes, Horsham, Ryde, East-Grinstead, Arundel, Winchester, Battel, Brightelmston, New Shoreham, Petworth, Midhurst, and Haslings.
2. NORFOLK CIRCUIT.	
Bucks.....	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High Wickham, Great Marlow, Newport-Pagnel, and Stuy-Stratford.
Belford.....	Bedford, Amptill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
Huntingdon....	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, St. Neots, Godmanchester, and Ramsey.
Cambridge.....	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Woburn, and Royston.
Suffolk.....	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leiston, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Walsworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stow-Market, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long Milford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.
Norfolk.....	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
3. OXFORD CIRCUIT.	
Oxon.....	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitley, Dorchester, Tame, and Woodstock.
Berks.....	Reading, Abingdon, Windsor, Wallingford, Newberry, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, Oakingham, and Hungerford.
Gloucester.....	Gloucester, Tewkesbury, Cirencester, Berkley, Dursley, Lechlade, Camden, Newham, Stow, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, Marlborough, and part of Bristol.

EUROPE.]
COUNTIES.
Worcester.....
Monmouth.....
Hereford.....
Salop.....
Stafford.....
4. MID
Warwick.....
Leicester.....
Derby.....
Nottingham.....
Lincoln.....
Rutland.....
Northampton.....
5. WES
Hants.....

CHIEF TOWNS.

Canterbury, Chatham, Greenwich, Woolwich, Deal, Deptford, Dartford, Romney, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Gravesend, and Milton.

Kingston, Guildford, Epsom, Richmond, Bath, Battersea, Putney, Godalmin, Baginbun, and Darking.

Wexham, Horsham, Reading, Arundel, Winchester, Bournemouth, Southampton, Portsmouth, and Havant.

CIRCUIT.

Buckingham, High Wycombe, Great Marlow, Newbury, and Stony Stratford.

Northampton, Northallerton, and Biggleswade.

St. Ives, Kimbolton, and Godmanchester.

Wells, Newmarket, and Weymouth.

Worcester, Sudbury, Leiston, and Bury.

Southwold, Brandon, Mildenhall, Buntingford, Stow-Market, Lavenham, Hadham, Milford, Stratford, and Holt.

Sturton, Lynn, and Yarborough.

CIRCUIT.

Bury, Chipping-Norwich, Burford, Whitchurch, Tame, and Woodstock.

Windsor, Waltham, Maidenhead, Wantage, Oakington, and Hungerford.

Weymouth, Cirencester, Dursley, Lechlade, Newnham, Stow, Tetbury, Wotton, and Marlborough.

COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.

CHIEF TOWNS.

- Worcester Worcester, Evesham, Bewdley, Droitwich, Stowbridge, Kidderminster, Bromsgrove, Pershore, and Tidbury.
- Monmouth Monmouth, Abergavenny, Caerleon, Chepstow, Newport, and Pontpool.
- Hereford Hereford, Lempster, Weobly, Kyneton, Ross, Pembridge, Ledbury, and Bromyard.
- Salop Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgenorth, Bishopscastle, Whitechurch, Wenlock, Wem, and Oswestry.
- Stafford Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle-under-Lyne, Burton, Penkridge, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Uttoxeter, and Stone.

4. MIDLAND CIRCUIT.

- Warwick Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Atherton, Aulceter, Tamworth, Nuncaton, and Colehill.
- Leicester Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Bosworth, Harborough, and Ashby-de-la-Zouch.
- Derby Derby, Chesterfield, Worksop, Ashbourne, Bakewell, Balfour, and Buxton.
- Nottingham Nottingham, Newark, East and West Redford, Southwell, Tuxford, Worksop, Blithe, and Mansfield.
- Lincoln Lincoln, Boston, Stamford, Grantham, Great Grimby, Gainsborough, Spalding, Stanton, Crowland, Louth, and Horn-castle.
- Rutland Oakham and Uppingham.
- Northampton Northampton, Peterborough, Brackley, Daventry, Oundle, Towcester, Wellingborough, Thrapston, Kettering, Rockingham, Ferringers, and Rothwell.

5. WESTERN CIRCUIT.

- Hants Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Ruffey, Aylesford, Christchurch, Newport, Yarmouth and Cowes, in the Isle of Wight.

COUNTIES.

CHIEF TOWNS.

- Wilts Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, Warminster, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Chippingham.
- Dorset Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftesbury, Pool, Blandford, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, Winburn, and Bridport.
- Somerset Bath, Wells, part of Bristol, Taunton, Bridgewater, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glastonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunster, Yeovill, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croftcomb, Frome, Wincanton, Ilchester, and Watchet.
- Devon Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple, Bideford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Oakhampton, and Topsham.
- Cornwall Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Lescard, Lestwithiel, Helston, Penzance, and Redruth.

6. NORTHERN CIRCUIT.

- York York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Northallerton, Sherbourn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Boroughbridge, Gifborough, Heydon, Pickering, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnesley, Ripley, Heydon, Thirsk, Yarm, and Wetherby.
- Durham Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Hartlepool, Anklad, and Darlington.
- Northumberland Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Berwick, Tinnmouth, Morpeth, Alnwick, Hexham, North-Shields, and Wooller.
- Lancaster Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Warrington, Clithero, Ormskirk, Wigan, Rochdale, Kirkham, Hornby, Hawkthhead, Newton, and Poulton.
- Westmoreland Appleby, Kendal, Longdsale, Burton, Ambleside, Kirbysteven, Orton, Milthorpe, and Brough.

COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Cumberland	Carlisle, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Penrith, Kewick, Brampton, Holm, Egremont, Longtown, Ravenglass, Workington, and Wigton.

Middlesex and Cheshire are not comprehended in the above circuits; the former being the seat of the supreme courts of justice, and the latter a county palatine. The same may be said of Wales.

COUNTIES NOT INCLUDED IN THE CIRCUITS.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Middlesex	London, Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Barnet, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Staines, Enfield, Edgworth, Hackney, & Hampton-Court.
Chester	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Congleton, Norwich, Frodsham, Stockport, Sandwich, Malpas, Haulton, Middlewich, Sandbach, and Knotsford.

Besides the county palatine of Chester, there are two others, Lancaster and Durham; but the two latter are now included in the circuits. The chief governors of all these counties were formerly empowered by charter to administer justice as absolutely as the king himself. There is still a court of chancery in Lancaster and Durham, with a chancellor; and there is a court of exchequer at Chester, of a mixed kind, both for law and equity, of which the chamberlain of Chester is judge; there are also other justices in the counties palatine to determine civil actions and pleas of the crown.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

NORTH-EAST CIRCUIT.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Flint	Flint, St. Asaph, Holywell, and Caerwys.
Denbigh	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthin.
Montgomery	Montgomery, Llanidlos, Llanvillling, Machynleth, and Welch-Pool.

NORTH-WEST CIRCUIT.

Anglesey	Beaumaris, Llanrickmead, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
Caernarvon	Bangor, Caernarvon, Aberconway, and Pulheli.
Merioneth	Bala, Dolgelhe, and Haerlech.

SOUTH-EAST CIRCUIT.

Radnor	Radnor, Prestlin, and Knighton.
Brecon	Brecknock, Bealt, and Hay.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Swansea, Neath, and Penrice.

SOUTH-WEST CIRCUIT.

Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Fishguard, Killgarnie, Newport, Tenby, and Whitland.
Cardigan	Cardigan, Aberllynny, Llanbadarnawr, Llanbador St. Peter, and Tregarron.
Caermarthen	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Llanidlovr, Llanidlovr, Llanidlovr, and Llanidlovr.

Besides the above fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are now divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a county are granted by charter from the king. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex; and the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester, Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle upon Tyne, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie. Ely, though not a county distinct from Cambridgeshire, is yet a royal franchise, with a privilege of holding pleas like a county palatine, and has also a chief justice.

IN ENGLAND ARE,

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

W A L E S .

12 Counties	12 knights.
12 Boroughs (Pembroke 2, Merioneth none) one each	12 burgesses.

S C O T L A N D .

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

Total of the British House of Commons. 558

EUROPE.]

By a recent and authentic description of Great-Britain, valued at 500 millions of Sterling; the value of Great-Britain is reckoned worth 50 millions of the port of which is about one hundred, which the value of the shipping is ten pounds per ton and goods imported without one value of manufactures, 20,000 which deduct the additions of increase almost increased. The soil of England, differs in each of which the art of the very wool of England. Many have been drained and produce excellent, formerly introduced into the by the English families, rye, oats, pease, every year in this some computation wheat are annual England. Nor productions of the perfection, that cultivated here would need only be manured, though inhabitants, is plentiful and vegetable distance. The soil adapted for rearing and the plantation men and gentlemen lightful and astonishing. Though the waited from the yet they are so in this country is even to foreigners. It is chiefly owing that the seasons great irregularity of them, are no famine, and ver

passing by the capital, it divides Kent from Essex; and widening as it approaches the ocean, falls into the Sea at the Nore, being navigable for large ships from its mouth to London-Bridge.

The principal stream of this river is generally called the Isis, before its junction with the little river Thame; and it is said, that from Thame and Isis, the name Thames or Thames is formed. But notwithstanding this opinion is embraced by writers of great credit, it is undoubtedly erroneous. It has always been called the Thames by the common people from its very source; and in an ancient charter granted to abbot Aldhelm, certain lands bordering on the eastern bank of the river are particularly mentioned, "Cujus vocabulum Temis juxta vadum qui appellatur Summerford;" and as Summerford is in Wiltshire, it is evident that the river was then called Temis or Tems, far above its junction with the Thame. The same thing appears in every charter and authentic history where this river is mentioned, particularly in several charters granted to the abbey of Malmesbury, and some old deeds relating to Cricklade, both of them situated in Wiltshire. The Saxons called it Temese from its source to its mouth; and from Temese, our Tems or Thames is immediately derived.

Formerly there were but few bridges over the Thames, and even those constructed on very bad principles; but both these defects are now in a great measure supplied. London-Bridge indeed is still suffered to remain almost in its primitive condition with regard to the navigation, but the new bridges of Westminster and Black-Friars are built in a different manner: they serve all the purposes of bridges, and add dignity and grandeur to the capital, without giving the least obstruction to the navigation of the river. Besides these, there are many other bridges over this noble stream, in the neighbourhood of London, particularly those of Battersea, Fulham, Kew, Kingston, Hampton-Court, Walton, &c.

The river Medway rises in the Weald of Sussex, but soon after enters Kent, runs N. E. by Tunbridge to Maidstone, where, changing its course to the N. W. it flows on to Rochester and Chatham, about eight miles below which it divides into two streams, one of which runs to the north, till it falls into the estuary of the Thames, and the other directing its course to the eastward, falls into the same estuary: the former is called the West, and the latter the East Swale; while the county included between these two arms of the Medway is called the Isle of Sheppey. First rate ships of war come up to Chatham, and the river is navigable for small craft to Maidstone. Prodigious floats of timber are brought down this river from the woods in the Weald of Sussex, and conveyed to the royal yards of Chatham and Deptford for the use of the navy.

The Severn, esteemed the second river in England, rises on the east side of a vast mountain, called Plinlimmon, situated in the south-west part of Montgomeryshire in North Wales; whence, after a variety of winding, it passes by Welsh-Pool, and continuing its serpentine course, and being augmented with the wa-

ters of several streams, enters Shropshire, passes by Shrewsbury, about four miles below which it receives the waters of the Rodan and the Tern. Thence it continues its course to Bridgenorth, and enters Worcester near Bewdley, in the forest of Wire, about two miles below which it receives the waters of the Stour. Thence increased, it flows on to Worcester; and about four miles below that city is joined by the Teme or Tems. Augmented by the waters of all these rivers, it pursues its course, and enters the county of Gloucester near Tewkesbury, and is there joined by the Upper Avon. From Tewkesbury it continues its course, washes the walls of Gloucester, and falls into that part of the Western Sea called the Bristol Channel. The tide flows up the Severn as far as Tewkesbury, which is near seventy miles from its mouth; and at Newnham, a town twenty miles below Tewkesbury, it has rather the appearance of a sea than a river; the flood-tide runs up with such impetuosity, that at one swell the water often rises above four feet. Vessels of considerable burden pass up to Shrewsbury, and small craft to Welsh-Pool. It is said to be the most rapid river in England, and is very subject to floods, by which the low lands are often overflowed.

The third great river in England is the Trent, which rises from two or three springs in the north-west part of Staffordshire, and, continuing its course to the south-west, is joined by the Thame near the eastern borders of the county. Then directing its course to the north-east it enters Derbyshire near Burton upon Trent, and is soon after joined by the Dove. Near the eastern borders of Derbyshire it receives the waters of Derwent and Erewash, and enters Nottinghamshire near Trumpington, after its junction with the Soar. Augmented by all these rivers, it runs through the whole county of Nottingham, and for some distance divides it from Lincolnshire, passes through part of the latter, and falls into the mouth of the Humber, properly an estuary or arm of the sea, which receives many of the principal rivers of the counties of York and Lincoln. The Trent is navigable to a great distance from the Humber. Small craft pass up this river from its mouth into Staffordshire, but the navigation in many places is but indifferent.

Besides those above mentioned, there are several other noted rivers in England, viz. the Ouse (a Gallic word signifying *water* in general) which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German Sea at Tinmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from east to west on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German Sea at Bewick. The Eden runs from south to north through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway-Firth below that city. The lower Avon runs well through Wiltshire to Bath, and then, dividing the counties of Somerset and Gloucester, falls into the Severn about six miles below Bristol. The Derwent, which rises in Bor-

rowdale,

Shropshire, passes below which it receives the Tern. Thence it comes and enters Worcester. The Vire, about two miles from the Stour. The Temese or Tems, these rivers, it pursues of Gloucester near by the Upper Avon. Its course, washes that part of the West. The tide flows up the river is near seventy miles, a town twenty miles, the appearance of the river is up with such impetuosity often rises above four feet. It is said to be the only subject to floods, overflowed.

The Trent, which is the north-west part of its course to the south-eastern borders of the north-east. Upon Trent, and is near the eastern borders of the north-east. The Trent divides it from Lincoln. The Trent from the Humber, its mouth into the sea, in many places is but in-

there are several other rivers (a Gallic word) falls into the Humber. many other rivers, falls into the sea near from west to east into the German Sea. The Tees runs of Scotland, and falls into the Solway-Firth. The Eden runs from the north-west into the Solway-Firth. The Tyne runs west through the counties of Northumberland and the Severn about five miles, which rises in Ber-

rowdale, runs from east to west through Cumberland, passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish sea a little below. The Ribble rises in Yorkshire, runs from north to west through Lancashire, and, passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey rises in the mountains of Derbyshire, runs from the south-east to the north-west through Cheshire, and then, dividing Lancashire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish sea a little below that town. The Mersey rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish Channel below Chester. A canal cut from Chester, through marshy grounds, is ten miles in length, ships of considerable burden pass up to the quay with safety.

There are but very few lakes, or rather meres in England; the principal are Soham-Mere, Wittlesham-Mere, and Ramsay-Mere, in the Isle of Ely in Cambridgeshire, and Winander-Mere in Westmoreland. Winander-Mere, which is much the largest of those in England, is about three miles in length, and one mile and a half in breadth; but when the fens are overflowed in a rainy season, the whole forms one vast lake, and is 40 miles in circumference. Winander-Mere is the principal lake in England; it is ten miles in length from north to south, and two miles in breadth from east to west. There are several small islands in it; the largest is one continued rock.

In ancient times, England contained no fewer than 100,000 acres of forests; of which the principal now remaining are the forests of Windsor, Epping, Dean, Sherwood, New Forest, Exmoor. There were formerly in this country large woods, if not forests of chestnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpose of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chestnut-beams and roofs remain still fresh and undecayed, though some of them are above 1000 years old. But the whole kingdom is so shaded by woods and plantations as give it almost the appearance of one continued forest.

The most considerable mineral produced in England is tin; and Cornwall has been famous for producing it ever since the Phœnicians traded to Great-Britain. Since the English have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, their mines have become of immense benefit to the nation. An ore, called Mundic, is found in the beds of tin, which was little regarded till, above 70 years ago, Sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it; and it is said now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making brass. Those tin works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws, and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners are said to amount to 100,000. Free-stone is plentiful in Derbyshire, and marble in the neighbourhood of Plymouth. Immense quantities of coals are dug out of the

pits in Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the bishoprick of Durham. The exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article, and this trade furnishes a great number of seamen for government service. Northumberland and Cheshire produce a great deal of alum and salt; and the kingdom abounds with fullers earth, which being of the utmost importance to the cloth manufactory, its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties.

The vegetable and animal productions of England are very numerous, and excellent in their kind. Indeed, the improvements in agriculture have been so many, and made in so rapid a manner, that the value of lands, in several parts of England, has been trebled within a few years. Noblemen, and gentlemen of the greatest property in the kingdom, have nobly lent their assistance to the improvement of this useful art. Several societies are founded for the same laudable purpose; and the example, interest, and great weight of the nobility and gentry, have at last, in a great measure, prevailed over the obstinacy of the farmers, lessened their bigotry to the old methods of cultivation used by their forefathers, and rendered them attentive to the dictates of reason, experience, and truth. They are convinced, from ocular demonstration, that agriculture is still capable of improvement, and therefore ready to profit by the discoveries of others: they acknowledge, that those who have deduced the practice of agriculture from the principles of a rational theory, founded on experiments, are better cultivators than themselves. Hence agriculture is every day making large strides towards perfection; and corn, and other useful vegetables, are raised on soils formerly thought incapable of cultivation.

With regard to timber, England seems to be its native soil. It flourishes wherever it is planted; and if the proper care had always been taken for propagating it, we should not hear the many complaints that are daily uttered by shipwrights and others, with regard to its scarcity, particularly that of oak. Nor is the soil friendly to one species of timber only: the ash, the elm, the beech, and the fir, flourish equally with the oak; and besides these, here are plenty of walnut-trees, poplars, maples, sycamores, horn-beams, hazles, willows, birch-trees, and many other species. Prodigious plantations of hops are seen in Kent, Surrey, and Hampshire; and the finest saffron in the world is raised in Essex, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire. Hemp and flax are also cultivated in some counties, and madder and woad for dyeing, in others. The artificial grasses, particularly lucern, saintfoin, trefoil, cinquefoil, and clover, are now sown to great advantage. The orchards of England, particularly those of Herefordshire, Devonshire, Worcesterhire, and Kent, produce incredible quantities of apples, pears, and cherries; and the cyder and perry made from the apples and pears in some counties, are equal to the French white wines.

In England, gardening is carried to very great perfection:

fection: there is hardly a plant in the known world but may be found in some of the curious gardens of England. Even the fruits of the torrid zone are here brought to perfection. The pine-apple, formerly so difficult to be met with, is now plentifully produced in almost every gentleman's garden in England. Apricots, peaches, nectarines, plums, gooseberries, currans, and raspberries, are so common, that the bare mentioning their names must be sufficient: in short, the English gardeners are such masters of horticulture, that they perform things almost incredible; roses and other flowers, fully and finely blown at Christmas, are not uncommon in some of their gardens; cherries and other fruits, fully ripe, are also produced in that dreary season. The common gardens, even those of the peasants, abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and salads in perfection, particularly, artichokes, asparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, spinach, lettuce, celery, endive, mushrooms, turnips, carrots, potatoes, radishes, leeks, onions, shallots, &c. &c.

Among the animal productions of England, the horse stands foremost. That noble and generous animal is found in this country in great perfection: indeed, all the valuable qualities of the Arabian, the Turkish, the Spanish, and other foreign horses, are united in that of England, owing to the incredible pains taken by all ranks of men, from the prince to the peasant, for improving the species. Vast numbers of horses are bred in England, and so many sold into foreign countries, that their exportation is now become a considerable branch of commerce. The strength, courage, swiftness, and intrepidity of the English horse is so well known on the continent of Europe, that every prince is desirous of having them in his army. Those which draw equipages in the streets of London are often particularly beautiful. The English oxen are large and fat, and their flesh has a delicious flavour, though some prefer that of the small breed of Wales and Scotland. The sheep are of two kinds, one bred on the Downs and upland pastures, and the other in the low lands of Essex and Lincolnshire: the flesh of the former is preferred, and the fleeces of the latter. Wool is one of the most valuable articles of the produce of this country, and constitutes the original staple commodity of England. The fleeces of the Lincolnshire species of sheep are remarkably large, and it has been computed, upon very rational principles, that above twelve millions of fleeces are annually manufactured in England, besides those clandestinely sent out of the kingdom to supply our neighbours.

We must not omit to mention, among the animals peculiar to England, the mastiffs and bull-dogs, as being far superior to those of any other country, both with regard to strength and courage. They will engage any animal, and generally come off victorious. The lion himself is unable to intimidate them; and two of these dogs being, by order of king James I. turned

loose upon one of the most dreadful lions in the Tower, they laid him on his back; but a still more surprising circumstance attending these creatures, is that this innate courage degenerates in foreign countries. Nor is this change peculiar to these dogs; the same is observed with regard to the English game-cocks, so famous here for their ferocity and courage. The rest of the animals of England are nearly the same with those of other countries, as asses, mules, deer, hares, rabbits, hogs, foxes, squirrels, cats, ferrets, weasles, newts, otters, badgers, hedge-hogs, pole-cats, rats, mice, moles, &c.

All kinds of poultry are here in great plenty and perfection, as turkeys, peacocks, geese, swans, common poultry of various kinds, ducks, and tame pigeons. England also abounds in different sorts of wild fowl, as bustards, wild geese, brent geese, wild ducks, widgeon, teal, pheasants, plovers, partridges, woodcock, quails, snipes, landrails, wood-pigeons, hawks, buzzards, kites, owls, ravens, herons, crows, rooks, jackdaws, magpies, jays, thrushes, blackbirds, nightingales, goldfinches, bullfinches, larks, linnets, and a prodigious variety of small birds; among which is the wheat-ear, a bird peculiar to England, the flesh of which is by many preferred to that of the ortolan, and is reckoned a great delicacy.

Few countries in the world can boast of greater variety of fish. The rivers and ponds abound in salmon, trout, eels, pike, carp, tench, barble, perch, gudgeons, smelts, roach, dace, plaice, flounders, and craw-fish. In some of the lakes or meers of Cumberland and Wales, is found a very delicate fish called a char; it is of the trout kind, and thought to be peculiar to England. The seas which surround the kingdom are full of cod, mackerel, mullets, hake, guard-fish, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchard, skate, turbot, soles, hallibuts, and what are preferred to all others by the voluptuous, John Dories, and red mullets. Shell-fish are also found in plenty, as lobsters, crabs, prawns, shrimps, oysters, scallops, cockles, muscles, wilks, periwinkles, &c. The coasts are sometimes visited by whales, and by vast numbers of porpoises; in some parts a few seals are seen upon the rocks, but not frequently. The principal reptiles of this country are adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; the insects are, bees, humble-bees, hornets, wasps, beetles, ants, gnats, flies in great variety, and many other small insects common to other parts of Europe.

The fisheries of England, though capable of being carried on to the greatest advantage, are sadly neglected, notwithstanding their utility has been so often pointed out (particularly by reducing the high price of butcher's meat) and large sums have been subscribed by the nobility, gentry, and merchants. The whale-fishery is, however, prosecuted with advantage, but not with a spirit equal to that of the Dutch, who send more ships to the Greenland seas than all the other nations of Europe put together. In the western coun-

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ries of Devon and Cornwall, the pilchard fishery is
nursed with great spirit and success; but that for
bermings, which might prove a great national benefit,
anguishes to such a degree, that it can hardly be said
to exist. The turbot-fishery, which might also be very
advantageous to the nation, is wholly neglected; so
that the large quantities of that fish, daily seen in the
markets of London, during the season, are caught by
the Dutch on our own coasts, and sold to English boats
sent off for that purpose, which easily accounts for its
scarceness, whereby the lower class of people are entirely
deprived of that agreeable food. Some years ago, in-
deed, there was a pleasing prospect that the herring-
fishery would be carried on with a spirit adequate to its
importance. Large sums were subscribed, a company
was formed, nets were made, buflers were fitted out,
and every method adopted for rendering the attempt
successful; but by some unexpected events, yet un-
known, this national undertaking miscarried, though
some ascribed the failure of it to the expence of bring-
ing the commodity to market. However, we still hope,
that other projects for carrying on this fishery, and
those on our coasts in general, will be formed, to
which every lover of his country will wish success.

With respect to the population of England, politi-
cal calculations must be very fallible; which is owing
to the prodigious influx of foreigners hither, the emi-
grations of inhabitants to America and the islands,
their return from thence, and the great number of
hands employed in shipping. It will appear that Eng-
land must be extremely populous, when we consider,
that the war with France and Spain, before the last,
annually employed about 200,000 Englishmen, exclu-
sive of Scots and Irish, by sea and land, and its pro-
gress carried off, by various means, near that number.
The decay of population was indeed sensibly felt, but
not so much as it was during the wars in queen Anne's
reign, though not half of the numbers were then em-
ployed in the sea and land-service. If, with some, we
calculate the inhabitants from the number of houses
in England, which are reckoned at near a million, and
allow only seven or eight persons to each house, there
will then appear to be seven millions, or perhaps more.
Some, however, will suppose this to be too large a
calculation; and it must be admitted, that England has
been exceedingly drained both of men and money by
the late unhappy and destructive war with the colonies.
Respecting London, the bills of mortality have been
of little service on this head, because about 100,000
inhabitants, at the very gates of that city, do not come
within their cognizance, not to mention the great
number of dissenters, who keep registers of their own
births and burials.

The English, with regard to their persons, are in
general of a proper size, have good shapes, regular
features, and florid complexions. The women are re-
markably beautiful; their elegant shape, their graceful
air; and their delicate features and complexions, form

an assemblage of beauty superior to that of any other
kingdom in Europe. In point of cleanliness, the Eng-
lish excel all the nations in the world. At the same
time, their nerves are so remarkably delicate; that they
are susceptible of the least impression, and are often
very strongly, too frequently mortally, affected by ima-
gination only. They feel the whole weight of the evils
they fear, and sometimes sink beneath the burden of
mental suggestions. Yet, when real danger approaches,
they meet it with an astonishing intrepidity and con-
stancy of mind. Fearless of death, because they prefer
it to slavery, they advance against the enemy in the
field with a noble alacrity, and stand the most violent
attacks with unshaken firmness. With regard to the
English seamen, they are confessedly more active, skilful,
and intrepid, than any other mariners in the world.

This remarkable sensibility of the nerves produces
another particular almost as general as the former; they
feel for every object in distress, and participate in the
sufferings of others. Hence those generous subscrip-
tions, so frequently set on foot, and munificently filled,
for the relief of others. Even their enemies partake of
their benevolence; and the generous instance they gave
during the war in the reign of the late king, of their un-
bounded charity for the support of the French priso-
ners, will be transmitted with applause to posterity by
future historians.

The honour and integrity of the English merchants
in their dealings are known in every part of the com-
mercial world. The word of an eminent merchant is
considered as sufficient for any sum of money; and
many thousand pounds worth of goods are every day
bought and sold on the Royal-Exchange, without any
other security. But this ingenuous method of carrying
on their commerce, too often lays them open to the arts
of designing men. Honest and candid themselves, they
expect to find the same virtues in others, and never
suspect that a fair and plausible behaviour can ever form
the deceitful surface of villany and design, till dear-
bought experience convinces them of their mistake, and
makes them sensibly feel the effects of their ill-placed
credulity.

The works of the English mechanics are superior to
those of the same kind of any other handicrafts-men in
Europe. They are not indeed famous for invention,
but they never fail of improving upon those of others.
Nor is this want of invention general; many of the
English artists excel in both, and some of the most
capital discoveries of the last and present centuries owe
their birth to the inhabitants of this country: among
which may be reckoned the steam-engine, the horizon-
tal watch, the quicksilver and gridiron pendulums, the
artificial magnets, the speculum top, the quadrant for
taking the sun's altitude at sea by reflection, &c. &c.
No people in the world think so closely as the English
upon any subject. Blessed with a clear apprehension,
and fearless of difficulties, they fix the attention on a
single point, and pursue it with astonishing perseverance.

Foreigners have represented the English as cruel, and changeable in their disposition. Perhaps there is little foundation for these censures at present: the former, which was gathered from the encouragement given to prize-fighters and boxers, is turned into another channel; and, with regard to the latter, it seems to have been founded upon a mistake. That the conversation of the English is irregular, will be very readily granted; sometimes it is dull and phlegmatic; sometimes solid, ingenious, and argumentative; sometimes sprightly, replete with wit and humour; and, probably, these diversities in discourse were imputed to a change in sentiment.

Another charge, of a very odious and disgraceful nature, has too justly been brought by foreigners against the English, namely, that of suicide, too frequently the pernicious fruit of the gaming table; and, though this propensity in the English is generally imputed to the air, yet, perhaps, there is another cause which will bid fair for removing the difficulty—the false method of education generally practised. Perhaps there cannot be a more improper method to qualify persons for an active life than ours; though that particular should, from the very genius of the people, and the nature of our constitution, be its chief end. When persons, born with a restless, active disposition, do not find sufficient employment, or are engaged in such as is not suitable to their genius, life becomes a burden; gaming and dissipation are substituted for employment, and the consequences are often fatal to the poor deluded mortals. This is surely a more rational method of accounting for the frequency of that crime, than to attribute it to the peculiar qualities of our air. Why is so fair a plea offered? Why are any reasons offered to palliate so atrocious a crime? Why is the climate arraigned, and Providence blasphemed, to excuse self-murder, upon a principle contrary at once to scripture, reason, and fact? The climate has certainly been always the same, and yet there was a time when that crime was as little known here as in any other country. In the reign of Elizabeth, when all found employment, it was hardly heard of; so that its great frequency is of a very modern date, and may, in a great measure, be ascribed to idleness and dissipation.

It cannot be denied that every day produces strong indications of an alarming change in the manners of the English. A spirit of luxury and gaming seems to have seized, not the effeminate and the idle only, but also the more prudent, and even the commercial ranks of the people; so that it is to be feared the following view of our present situation, drawn by the late Dr. Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne, one of the greatest men this or any other country has produced, is too just. "It must be owned, says that masterly writer, that little can be hoped if we consider the corrupt degenerate age we live in. I know it is an old folly to make peevish complaints of the times, and charge the common frailties of human nature on a particular age. One may

nevertheless venture to affirm, that the present has brought forth new and portentous villainies, not to be paralleled in our own or any other history. We have been long preparing for some great catastrophe. Vice and villany have by degrees grown reputable among us; our infidels have passed for fine gentlemen, and venal traitors for men of sense, who knew the world.

"We have made a jest of public spirit, and cancelled all respect for whatever our laws and religion repute sacred. The old English modesty is quite worn off, and, instead of blushing for our crimes, we are ashamed only of piety and virtue. In short, other nations have been wicked, but we are the first who have been wicked from principle. The truth is, our symptoms are so bad, that, notwithstanding all the care and vigilance of the legislature, it is to be feared the final period of our state approaches. Strong constitutions, whether politic or natural, do not feel light disorders. But, when they are sensibly affected, the distemper is, for the most part, violent and of ill prognostic. Free governments, like our own, were planted by the Goths in most parts of Europe; and, notwithstanding we all know what they are come to, yet we seem disposed rather to follow their examples, than profit by their errors. God grant the time be not near, when men shall say, This island was once inhabited by a religious, brave, sincere people, of plain uncorrupt manners, respecting inbred worth, rather than titles and appearances; defenders of liberty, lovers of their country, jealous of their own rights, and unwilling to infringe the rights of others; improvers of learning and useful arts; enemies to luxury, tender of other men's lives, and prodigal of their own; inferior in nothing to the old Greeks and Romans, and superior to each of those people in the perfections of the other. Such were our ancestors during their rise and greatness; but they degenerated, adopted epicurean notions, became venal, corrupt, injurious, which occasioned their final ruin."

There is, however, still an innate strength in our constitution, peculiar to ourselves. We are favoured with advantages which no other country ever equally enjoyed; and therefore it will be our own fault, if we do not long continue a happy and flourishing people.

With respect to dress, the custom in England, before the reign of George III. was, to copy the fashions of the French; but so much attention is at present paid to that article of luxury, that the English bid fair, to be themselves the dictators of dress to all Europe, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire. Persons of quality and fortune often appear in flowered and plain velvets, brocades, and embroidery. The ladies in the most costly brocades, satins, and silks, adorned with the finest laces, and glittering with a profusion of jewels. At other times the gentlemen are dressed in a plain, neat suit of superfine cloth, and the best linen. This is indeed the common dress of all persons in general, at least, of those of any property or pretensions to rank above

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The meanest tradesman appears credit-ably dressed on Sundays, and most of the common beggars, are decent in their apparel. The clergyman is distinguished by his gown and cassock, or a frock of grey cloth and plain linen. The physicians in general now dress like other gentlemen, having laid aside the large tye-perriwig which formerly distinguished their profession, and often exposed them to ridicule. Those who follow the sports of the field are generally dressed in a light frock with metal buttons, a laced hat, a round bob wig, short jockey boots, and buckskin breeches.

The diversions and pastimes of the English people may be divided into those of the town, and those of the country; and again subdivided into such as are peculiar to the higher ranks of life, such as are practised by the lower class of people, and such as are common to both. The diversions of the town are operas, ridottos, mafcherades, concerts of music, theatrical performances, and card assemblies, for persons of fashion. The pastimes of the country, peculiar to the same degree, are horse-races, stag, fox, and hare hunting. The game has been taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the selfish purposes of the rich: for the farmers and country people destroy the game in their nests, which they dare not kill with their gun. A spirit of gaming prevails with such violence at a horse-race, that one would imagine the spectators were actually possessed. Hunting is the sport of country gentlemen; and those whom the world distinguish by the appellation of fox-hunters seem to be infatuated with the diversion. The common people have likewise their town and country pastimes, which they enjoy with great eagerness. Among these are number cock-fighting (that disgrace to humanity), pugeling, wrestling, duck-hunting, bowls, skittles, or nine-pins, archery, prison-bars, cricket, shuffle-board, poits, divers games of chance, and spectacles of various kinds, such as tumbling, balancing, vaulting, feats of legerdemain, bear and bull-baiting, as races, collections of wild beasts, music, dancing, drolls, puppet-shews, and bell-ringing, a Gothic diversion, which cannot be enjoyed without disturbing several parishes.

Christianity, according to Eusebius, was planted in England by the apostles and their disciples, and this country and our heathen ancestors are supposed to have been visited by the apostle St. Paul, whose diligence, zeal, and fortitude were abundant. After a long interval of Popish ignorance and superstition, John Wickliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted those erroneous doctrines which had prevailed so many ages; since his time, the established religion in England approaches nearer to the primitive Christianity, being equally removed from superstition and indelicacy in its worship, and as void of bigotry as of licentiousness in its practice.

The constitution of the church is episcopal, and it is governed by bishops, each of whom, as a temporal baron, has a seat and vote in the House of Peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but in many places their tythes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are at present in a most flourishing situation, because the value of their tythes increases with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The government of the church is vested in two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops, besides the bishop of Sodor and Man, who, not being possessed of an English barony, does not sit in the house. The two archbishops are those of Canterbury and York, who are both addressed by the appellation of "Your Grace." The former is the first peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the English church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of state. Besides his own diocese, he has under him the bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester; Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor. The yearly revenue of Canterbury is 2682l. 12s. 2d. of York, 1610l. of London, 2000l. of Durham, 1821l. 1s. 3d. of Winchester, 3124l. 12s. 8d. of Ely, 2134l. 18s. 6d. of Salisbury, 1383l. 5s. of Worcester, 929l. 13s. 3d. of Landaff, 894l. 18s. 1d. of Norwich, 834l. 11s. 7d. of Hereford, 768l. 11s. of Chichester, 677l. 1s. 3d. The rest are from 559l. and upwards, to 131l. and upwards. The bishoprics of London, Durham, and Winchester, take precedence of all others, and the rest according to the seniority of their consecrations.

Other ministers of the church are deans, archdeacons, rectors, or vicars, deacons and curates.

There is a dean and chapter in every cathedral church. The dean is installed by virtue of the king's letters-patent; and the chapter consists of a certain number of prebends.

The state of the inferior part of the clergy, is truly melancholy, and worthy the consideration of our legislature. The abolishment of dispensations would be striking at the root of this evil; for thereby a few, who have interest, are rendered capable of holding two or three exceeding good livings, besides perhaps a deanery or prebend. But as it is impossible for one person to do the duty of three or four, curates are hired to officiate, whose stipends are so small, that, far from allowing them to keep up the dignity of clergymen, they are scarcely enabled to procure the conveniences of life for their families. This calls loudly for redress.

Certain privileges are granted to the clergy of England, of which the laity are deprived. An ecclesiastic is totally exempt from serving parish offices; he pays

no toll for his goods in either fair or market; and is likewise discharged from customs, unless he deals largely: he is not to be disturbed or molested in the execution of his function; he is not to be fined or amerced according to his spiritual, but according to his temporal revenues; he is not obliged to serve in war, nor in the courts lect, nor bound to follow the hue and cry; and if a hundred be sued for a robbery, and is taxed to make good the damage, he is to pay no part of the contribution; nor is he affected for watching or warding, or mending the highways.

The convocation is the highest ecclesiastical court; the clergy formerly had the great power in this court, which was always summoned at the meeting of parliament, and continued sitting during the whole session; but having filled the nation with disorder by their violent debates, they were dissolved by royal prerogative in the beginning of the reign of George I. and have not been allowed to sit long enough to transact any business since that period. The convocation is divided into two houses; the higher house, in the province of Canterbury, consisting of twenty-two prelates, the archbishop being president; the lower house is composed of all the deans, archdeacons, and proctors, amounting in all to 166. The archbishop of York may hold a convocation of his own province in the same manner, and, by means of a regular correspondence with the other, debate and determine the same questions which are canvassed in the synod of Canterbury; though the transactions and determinations of one convocation is not determined by those of the other.

The next is the court of arches, so called from the arched church and tower of St. Mary-le-Bow, in London, where it was formerly held; it is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury, and to this, all appeals from the judgment of inferior ecclesiastical courts are usually made. The judge, who is distinguished by the appellation of dean of the arches, sits without any assessors, and determines causes without a jury. He takes cognizance of appeals, in ecclesiastical matters, within the province of Canterbury; and all processes are returnable before him in the common hall of Doctors-Commons. The pleaders and solicitors of this court are called advocates and proctors; the former are doctors of the civil law, and, by the statutes of the court, the pleadings and petitions ought to be both in Latin.

Other ecclesiastical courts are, the court of audience, which has nearly the same authority with the preceding, and to this the archbishop's chancery was formerly joined: the prerogative court, wherein wills are proved, and administrations granted: the court of peculiars, relating to certain parishes, which have a jurisdiction among themselves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the bishop's courts: and the court of delegates, which receives its name from consisting of commissioners delegated or ap-

pointed by the royal commission; but it is no standing court. Bishops, archdeacons, and the dean and chapter of every cathedral, have each their respective courts: those of the former are called consistory courts.

The Dissenters from the established religion in England are so numerous, that it would be difficult to mention even the several appellations whereby they distinguish themselves: but the principal sects are the Puritans, or Presbyterians; the Baptists; the Quakers and the Methodists.

The Puritans were originally a sect of rigid Calvinists, who made their first appearance in the reign of queen Elizabeth, when some bishops, many of the laity of distinction, and numbers of the common people, having joined them, the church and state bore the alarm, and endeavoured, in vain, to suppress this schism; for, like all other religious persecutions, it only served to strengthen the evil it wished to remove. At first these Dissenters had no distinct form either of discipline or worship, but every preacher was left to his own discretion. They affirmed, that their scheme of religion was more pure and unexceptionable than any other; and opposed the liturgy and authority of the bishops with great force of argument, alleging that these differed but little from the church of Rome, and they thought themselves obliged to conform to the plan of Geneva. After some time, Cartwright, one of their divines, drew up a body of discipline for them, and this book was esteemed the standard of their public worship. This sect is now better known by the different appellations of Independents and Presbyterians; of whom the latter form the established religion of Scotland, where their tenets have been more particularly considered.

The Baptists, or Anabaptists, sprung up in Germany about the year 1521, and were formerly accused of many inconsistencies and indecencies; but by their confession of faith, published in 1689, they confuted all those aspersions, and plainly proved that they did not differ in any material article from other Protestant Dissenters, except in the single one of baptism, which they maintain infants are incapable of receiving; and when they administer this sacrament, which is only to adults, they plunge them entirely under the water.

The Methodists may properly be distinguished into two classes, the followers of the late Mr. George Whitefield, and those of Mr. Wesley. They received the appellation of Methodists, at the University of Oxford, about the year 1736, from a peculiar method they had adopted there, of living in a very precise, abstemious way, and being much addicted to praying together, reading and expounding the Scriptures, and fasting at particular times appointed by the church. Mr. George Whitefield and his colleagues professed themselves divines of the church of England, and it must be confessed that their doctrines nearly resembled those of that church; but their main plan was, to revive primitive Christianity, and recommend it, both in

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and practice, to persons of all denominations.
Their preaching, for a considerable time after their
settling out, was attended with very good effects,
reforming the morals of many of the lower classes of
people: though the zeal of this sect has of late years
very much abated. Mr. Whitefield uttered his discourses
with great fervour and devotion; he did not strictly
adhere to the form of ecclesiastical worship; and, as
he thought that prayers, whether taken from a com-
mon-prayer-book, or poured forth extempore, was a
matter of indifference, he accordingly made use of
both these methods. His followers are rigid ob-
servers of the doctrines of the church of England, and
regard themselves to be Calvinists. But this sect of
Methodists is now divided, some of them acknow-
ledging Mr. Whitefield, and others Mr. John Wesley, or
their leader. Mr. Wesley and his followers held the
Arminian doctrines, in opposition to the Calvinistic,
particularly those of election, predestination, final per-
severance, &c. but they appear still to retain some of
the Calvinistical. Mr. Whitefield died in America,
1770; but the places of worship erected by him
in London, are still frequented by persons of the
same principles, and they profess a great respect for
his memory. Mr. Wesley died in March 1791, and in
his life-time had erected a very large place of worship
near Moorfields, and had under him a considerable
number of subordinate preachers, who appeared to sub-
mit to their leader very implicitly, and who likewise
propagated his opinions, and made proselytes through-
out the kingdom, with great industry. There is also a
small class of Methodists, many years patronized by
the late Countess of Huntingdon: these hold the same
opinions with the followers of Mr. Whitefield. Their
principal chapel near London is in Spa-Fields, where the
church of England service, with some few omissions,
is used. There are some other sects of Methodists in
London, such as Sandemonians, Antinomians, Sweden-
borgians, &c. but their absurd doctrines render them
unworthy notice.

The Quakers were so denominated from certain un-
usual tremblings and convulsions, with which they
were seized at their first meetings. This sect was
founded, during the Interregnum, by George Fox, a
wool-maker, who, being naturally of a melancholy
disposition, and meditating much on the Scriptures,
at length persuaded himself he saw visions, in con-
sequence of which he set up for a preacher. In his
doctrine he proposed but few articles of faith; in-
sisting chiefly on moral virtue, mutual charity, the
love of God, and a deep attention to the inward
motions and secret operations of the Holy Spirit, whose
directions were to be waited for in the most profound
silence. The novelty of this doctrine, the genius of
the times, and the great appearance of piety and de-
votion in Fox, soon gained him many disciples, who
were at first guilty of some extravagancies, running
about the streets, and interrupting the ministers
in the execution of their office, for which many of

them were imprisoned. George Naylor, one of their
fraternity, was tried, and whipped for blasphemy, and
excommunicated by his brethren. In time, however,
this fanaticism wore off, and the sect settled into a
regular body, the members of which profess great
austerity of behaviour, a singular probity and upright-
ness in their dealings, an affectation of silence, a great
frugality at their tables, and a remarkable plainness
and simplicity in their dress.

Robert Barclay, a Quaker, in an excellent apology
which he addressed to Charles II. has explained the
system of this religion, in fifteen theses; by which we
find the principal doctrines held by these people are,
that "God has given to all men, without exception,
supernatural light, which being obeyed can save them;
and that this light is Christ, the true light, which
lighteth every man that cometh into the world;" that
"the Scriptures were indeed given by inspiration, and
are preferable to all other writings in the world; but
that they are no more than a secondary rule of faith
and practice, in subordination to the light or Spirit of
God, which is the primary rule;" that "immediate
revelation is not ceased, a measure of the Spirit being
given to every one to profit withal;" that "in divine
worship men and women ought to wait in silence the
motions of the Spirit, before they open their mouths
in prayer to God, or in testimony to the people;"
that "all superstitions and ceremonies, of mere hu-
man institution, in religion, ought to be laid aside; as
also, in civil society, the saluting one another by pul-
ling off the hat, bowing, or the like, and the saying
you instead of *thou* to a single person;" lastly, that
"men and women ought to be plain and grave in
their apparel, sober and just in their whole conver-
sation, at a word in all their dealings, and not to
swear, fight, or bear any carnal weapons."

The Quakers entirely set aside baptism and the
Lord's supper, affirming that "they are Jewish prac-
tices, used as types, or significations of something fu-
ture; which being accomplished in Christ, the figures
ought no longer to be used." They reject all ministry
and ordinances; and any one without distinction of
quality or sex, who is of a sober life, and believes
himself to be moved thereto by the Spirit, is allowed
to preach or prophesy in their meetings. It is dif-
ficult to say what their opinions are in regard to their
doctrinal points of Christianity, though it is said they
acknowledge the three persons that bear record in
heaven, but reject the school-terms of Trinity, Hypo-
stasis, &c. as unscriptural. On the other hand, they
have been charged with denying the incarnation, hu-
manity, and even divinity of Christ; and with alle-
gorizing away the crucifixion, resurrection, and as-
cension, of our Saviour. But however this be, nothing
can be better regulated than the assemblies of the
Quakers, of which there are monthly, quarterly,
yearly, and second days meetings; also meetings of
sufferings, and in these the affairs of the whole com-
munity are managed.

The two first of these assemblies are held in their respective counties; to which deputies are sent from particular meetings. Here inquiry is made into the state of each meeting; what persons have violated the rules of the community, who pay tythes, which they esteem repugnant to Christianity, or church-rates; and who suffer for non-payment of either; and accordingly they proceed to approve or censure. Here they excommunicate members, and receive them again into their communion; and here exact registers are kept of all their proceedings. From these meetings, appeals lie to their yearly assemblies, which are always held in London, and consist of three orders or classes, viz. representatives sent from the quarterly-meetings; correspondents for the several counties and foreign countries; and ministers, or preachers. Hither all accounts of what has been transacted in all the monthly and quarterly-meetings are transmitted. Here measures are concerted, and directions given as to the behaviour of their brethren with regard to tythes, rates, &c. and here they compose differences; make provision for their poor; audit the public accounts, and give proper instructions to the deputies, to be observed at their return; and from hence a yearly epistle of admonition is dispatched, to be read in all the monthly and quarterly-meetings: the admonitions contained in these epistles are worthy imitation by the most civilized government. The second day's meeting is a standing committee, consisting of the principal preachers in and near the city, who meet every Monday to settle particular cases and exigencies, which happen between the yearly-meetings. The meeting of sufferings is likewise held every week, and consists of the correspondents for each county. Its business is, to receive and examine complaints from such as have suffered for non-payment of tythes and church-rates, and to procure them relief, either by sending them money, for which they have a settled fund, or by soliciting their cause, or both. Their remarkable charity towards each other is worthy the imitation of those who pride themselves on being more enlightened.

Of late years, the members of this sect have omitted vast numbers of particularities, especially in their dress and stiffness of behaviour, which renders them much more agreeable to the nations among whom they reside; for there are few, when divested of these forms, but are very convertible, and numbers extremely sensible and polite.

After all, the Quakers are universally allowed to be most excellent members of the community, the strictness of their morality makes amends for the oddities of their principles; and the simplicity of their living for the wildness of their opinions. Their oeconomy is admirable; for though none of them pretend to any coercive power, yet their censures are submitted to as implicitly as if they were Romish bigots under an Inquisition. The highest punishment is a kind of excommunication, but which is taken off upon re-

pentance and amendment, and the party is re-admitted into all the privileges of their body. The gross sense for which this sect is remarkable, renders their leaders more respectable than those which royalty or power appoint over other communities. This, with the mildness of their behaviour, sobriety, and good industry, have raised them high in the esteem of the legislature, which has even indulged them by admission of their affirmation, instead of an oath, in civil causes in the courts of justice. Their number in England cannot easily be ascertained. In the beginning of the late reign, they were estimated at 50,000; and I am apt to believe they are increased, though that increase is not perceptible, by their laying aside most of their singularities. See further concerning this people, in our description of Pennsylvania in America, p. 380, 384.

The Roman Catholic religion is still professed by many Roman Catholic families in England, and its exercise under very mild and gentle restrictions. Some of the penal laws against them have been lately repealed, and the Papists now seem to be convinced, that a change of government, instead of bettering, would hurt their situation, because it would increase the jealousy of the legislature; which must expose them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties: the sensible consideration has of late made the Roman Catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous subjects to any his majesty has.

With respect to free-thinkers, deists, or infidels, there is abundant reason to think that this class of men is much more numerous in some Popish countries than in England. Christianity is so much obscured and disfigured by the fopperies and superstitions of the Romish church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced against it, when they see it in a disadvantageous form; and this appears to be in fact very much the case abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of seeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have less cause to be prejudiced against it, and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence against it. The writings of the Deists against Christianity, instead of being any disservice to it, have, on the contrary, caused the arguments in its favour to be used with greater force and clearness, and have been the means of producing such clear defences of it, as all the acuteness of modern infidels has not been able to overthrow or confute.

The English language is compounded of several others, and more particularly of Saxon, Celtic, French, and Latin, but the former predominate. 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 Italian; more copious than the Spanish, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. The inhabitants of different countries vary in the pronouncing

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French, and many of them the Italian and Spanish;
the foreign nations find great difficulty to understand
the few English, who speak Latin, which may per-
haps be owing to their not giving the vowels their
proper tone, that of the English and French, &c.
being very different in this respect.

England may be deemed the seat of the Muses.
Alfred the Great cultivated literature at a period when
barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe;
there has there, since his time, been wanting a succession
of learned men, who have distinguished themselves by
their writings or studies. The industrious and very
learned Leland was the first who published a short
collection of those learned persons who preceded the
reign of his master Henry VIII. among whom he has
inserted several of the blood royal of both sexes.
Roger Bacon, who lived under Henry III. and died at
Oxford about the year 1294, wrote several treatises
upon grammar, mathematics, physics, the flux and
reflux of the British sea, optics, geography, astronomy,
chronology, chemistry, logic, metaphysics, ethics,
medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impedi-
ments of knowledge. The memory of some noble
and royal English authors, who have done honour to
learning and the Muses, have been preserved by the
Hon. Mr. Walpole. Since the Reformation, England
resents a galaxy of literature; and even cardinal
Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate
minister, greatly contributed to the revival of classical
learning in England, and, by his example and en-
couragement, laid the foundation of the polite arts.
Edward VI. during his short reign, did a great deal
towards promoting learning in general, by encouraging
learned foreigners to settle in England, and, had he
lived, would no doubt have cultivated the most useful
parts of learning. But during the bloody, bigotted
reign of queen Mary, learning, as well as liberty,
suffered an almost total eclipse in England. Elizabeth,
her sister, who was herself a learned princess, ad-
vanced many persons of consummate abilities to high
ranks both in church and state. She was, however,
too parsimonious respecting those celebrated writers of
her time, whose works she admired; but her want of
liberality was nobly supplied by her favourite, the earl
of Essex, the politest scholar of his age, and his friend,
the earl of Southampton, who were generous patrons
of genius. Though James I. was no great author,
yet his example had a considerable effect upon his sub-
jects; for in his reign flourished those great masters of
polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible
mines of knowledge. The second Bacon was by him
created viscount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of
England; he was likewise the patron of Camden, and
other historians, as well as antiquaries; and though he
had a very pedantic taste himself, yet English learning,

it must be allowed, is under some obligation to this
prince. Charles I. had a taste for the polite arts,
especially sculpture, painting, and architecture; he
was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and
other eminent artists; and his favourite the duke of
Buckingham imitated him in that respect. The earl
of Arundel, the great Mæcenas of that age, may stand
upon a footing, as to the encouragement he gave to
literature, with the greatest of the Medicean princes.
Many learned men found their situations so easy under
Cromwell; that they followed their studies, to the vast
benefit of every branch of learning. Usher, Walter,
Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and many other great
names, were unmolested even in those times of dis-
traction. Charles II. was a great promoter of natural
knowledge, especially by the institution of the Royal
Society. He loved painting and poetry; and though
irreligious himself, yet England never abounded more
with learned and able divines than in his reign. The
incomparable *Paradise Lost*; by Milton, was published
in his reign, and, though not read or attended to in
proportion to its merit, was far from being disre-
garded so much as has been commonly supposed:
Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple,
Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden,
Wycherley, and Otway, flourished in his reign. To
these we may add that celebrated architect, philo-
sopher, and mechanic; Sir Christopher Wren; also
several excellent English painters. The reign of
James II. is chiefly distinguished, in the province of
literature by several excellent compositions published
by the English divines against Popery. Newton and
Locke adorned the reign of William III. By the
improvements which learning, and all the polite arts,
received under the auspices of queen Anne, her court
was put at least on a footing with that of Louis XIV.
in its most splendid days. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift,
Bolingbroke, Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele,
Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in prose
and verse, need but to be mentioned to be admired:
natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the
polite arts, and even religious and political disputes
contributed to the advancement of learning. Erudition
was patronized by the ministers of George I. and the
reign of his son, George II. yielded to none of the
preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious
men it produced. After the rebellion in 1745, in the
administration of Mr. Pelham, men of genius began
to taste the royal bounty; since which period, a great
progress has been made in the polite arts in England.
The Royal Academy has been instituted, some very
able artists have arisen, and the annual public ex-
hibitions of painting and sculpture have been ex-
tremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit
of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to
works of genius of this kind among the public in
general: but notwithstanding these favourable cir-
cumstances, the fine arts have been far from meeting
with

with that public patronage to which they have so just a claim.

The English also excel in what we call the learned professions. Their courts of justice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than those which any other country can boast of: a remarkable instance of which occurs in the appointments for the last 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the highest and the most uncontrollable judicial seat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accused of partiality in the causes which came before him as chancellor. It must, however, be acknowledged, that neither pulpit nor bar eloquence have been sufficiently studied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The sermons of their divines are often learned, and many of them sound, as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious sects in England require to be opposed, rather by reasoning than eloquence. The latter is not incompatible with the former, as some even of the clergy have boldly asserted, since true eloquence is the first and fairest handmaid of argumentation; and indeed, the preachers of the English church are not destitute of the graces of elocution; so far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them in purity and perspicuity of language; though I think, if they consulted more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect.

On account of the peculiar cast of the English laws, the several pleadings at the bar do not require many of the flowers of speech: the lawyers of this country, however, though they deal little in Ciceronian eloquence, are well versed in rhetoric and reasoning. No nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence as the English senate in its two houses—witness the fine speeches made by both parties in parliament in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. The same may be said of music, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any public encouragement but such as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose. The English hitherto stand unrivalled in ship-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery.

The two universities of Oxford and Cambridge are institutions not to be matched in the world, and were respected even amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. These seminaries of learning can boast of more persons eminent by their erudition, than any other in Europe; and a degree conferred by either is, in foreign coun-

tries, esteemed more honourable than the same degree obtained by any university in Christendom. Their magnificent buildings rival, in splendor and architecture, the most superb royal edifices; the rich endowment, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners who visit them, conceive of literary societies. Each university sends two members to the British parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities.

In Oxford, there are twenty colleges, and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This university is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar. The number of officers, fellows, and scholars, maintained at present by the revenues of this university, is about 1000; and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge, is usually about 2000; there are, besides, a great number of inferior officers and servants belonging to the several colleges and halls. There are four terms every year for public exercises, lectures, and dissertations, and set days and hours when the professors of every faculty read their lectures; and in some of the colleges are public lectures, to which all persons are admitted. The liberal foundations of the respective colleges have encouraged persons of extraordinary merit to embrace the academical life.

The university of Oxford consists of twenty colleges, and five halls. The colleges are, 1. University, situated near, or on the spot where the colleges or halls which were erected by king Alfred stood: the present structure was begun in 1634, at the expence of Mr. Charles Greenwood, carried on by Sir Simon Benner, and completed by Dr. John Radcliff. 2. Balliol, founded by Sir John de Baliol, about 1269. 3. Merton, founded by Walter de Merton, bishop of Rochester, and high-chancellor of England, in 1267. 4. Exeter, founded in 1316 by Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter, and lord-treasurer of England. 5. Oriel, founded in 1324 by Edward II. 6. Queen's, founded by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to queen Philippa, consort to Edward III. and at her desire. 7. New College, founded in 1386 by William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, but finished in 1475 by Thomas de Rotheram, archbishop of York, and lord high-chancellor. 8. All Souls, founded in 1437 by Henry Chichely, archbishop of Canterbury. 9. Magdalen, founded in 1458 by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, bishop of Winchester, and lord-chancellor. 10. Brazen-Nose, founded in 1516 by William Smith, bishop of Lincoln. 11. Corpus Christi, founded in 1516 by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester. 12. Christ Church, founded by cardinal Wolsey in 1515, but completed

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than the same degree of freedom. Their magnificence and architecture are rich endowments enjoyed by those who as which foreigners and many societies. Each of the British parliament have a civil jurisdiction to secure their revenues and their universities. Colleges, and five halls are erected, but in the latter themselves. This university has a considerable place even built three colleges for philosophy, a number of officers, selected by the revenue; and the number of charges, is usually a great number of terms every year for examinations, and set days every faculty read in colleges are public and limited. The libraries have encouraged to embrace the gifts of twenty colleges are, 1. University, where the colleges of Alfred stood; the expense of which was by Sir Simon Radcliff. 2. Balliol, about 1263. 3. Merton, bishop of Rossland, in 1267. 4. St. Stapleton, bishop of Orford, in 1270. 5. Queen's, founded by Philippa, consort of Edward I. 6. New College, founded by Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, in 1362. 7. Thomas Becket, lord high-chancellor, in 1379. 8. Magdalen, founded by William Wainfleet, bishop of Lincoln, in 1428. 9. St. John's, founded by William Bate- man, bishop of Norwich, in 1448. 10. Corpus Christi, founded by Richard Woodlark, bishop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII. 11. Christ's College, founded in 1506 by lady Margaret, countess of Richmond, mother to Henry VII. 12. St. John's College, founded in 1511 by the same lady. 13. Magdalen College, founded in 1519 by Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, and in 1549 patronized by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, and lord high-chancellor in the reign of Henry VIII. 14. Trinity College, founded in 1546 by Henry VII. 15. Emanuel College, founded in 1584 by Sir Walter Mildmay. 16. Sidney College, founded by virtue of the will of lady Frances Sidney, countess of Sussex, by Thomas Radcliff, earl of Sussex, in 1588.

completed by others, and is now the cathedral of the diocese. 13. Trinity, founded by Sir Thomas Pope, soon after the Reformation. 14. St. John Baptist, founded in 1555 by Sir Thomas White, lord-mayor of London. 15. Jesus, begun by Dr. Hugh Price, archdeacon of Rochester, and appropriated chiefly to the Welles. 16. Wadham, so called from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of Somersetshire, Esq. It was begun by him in 1601, but finished after his death, in 1613, by his lady. 17. Pembroke, so called in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord high-chancellor; it was founded in 1624 by Thomas Telfdale, Esq. and Richard Whitwicke, B. D. 18. Worcester, erected into a college by Sir Thomas Cooke, of Ashley in Worcester-shire. 19. Lincoln, founded by two bishops of Lincoln, John Hertsford, formerly Hurl-Hall, but now erected into a college, by patent under the great seal in 1740.

There are libraries for the use of all the colleges; besides which, there are two public libraries, the university library, and the Radcliffe library. The university library is usually called the Bodleian library, from the name of Thomas Bodley, its principal founder. It is a large lofty structure, in the form of a Roman H, and is said to contain the greatest number of books of any library in Europe, except perhaps the Vatican. The Bodleian library has been prodigiously increased by many large and valuable collections of Greek and oriental manuscripts, as well as other choice and curious books. The Radcliffe library is a sumptuous pile of building, and was built at the sole expence of that eminent physician, Dr. John Radcliffe, who bequeathed 40,000*l.* for this purpose.

The theatre of Oxford is also a very magnificent structure, which was erected by Sir Christopher Wren, at the expence of archbishop Sheldon. In this edifice are preserved the public acts of the university; and when the theatre is properly filled, it makes a most august appearance; the vice-chancellor being seated in the centre of the semi-circular part, the noblemen and doctors on his right and left-hand, the proctors and curators in their robes, the masters of arts, bachelors, and under-graduates, in their respective habits and places, together with strangers of both sexes.

The university of Cambridge consists of sixteen colleges, four of which are distinguished by the name of halls, though the privileges of both are in every respect the same. These colleges are, 1. Peter-House, founded by Hugh Balsham, prior of Ely, in 1257, who was afterwards bishop of that see. 2. Clare-Hall, founded in 1340 by Richard Badew, and lady Elizabeth Clare, countess of Ulster. 3. Pembroke-Hall, founded in 1343 by Mary de St. Paulo, countess of Pembroke. 4. St. Bennet's, or Corpus Christi, founded in 1344 by the united guilds, or fraternities, of Corpus Christi and the Blessed Virgin. 5. Trinity-Hall, founded about the year 1548 by William Bate-man, bishop of Norwich. 6. Gonvil and Caius, founded by Edmund de Gonvil in 1448, completed

by bishop Bateman, and additionally endowed, 600 years after, by John Caius, a physician. 7. King's College, founded in 1451 by Henry VI. and completed by his successors. 8. Queen's College, founded in 1448 by Margaret of Anjou, consort of Henry VI. but finished by Elizabeth, wife to Edward IV. 9. Catherine-Hall, founded in 1475 by Richard Woodlark. 10. Jesus College, founded in 1497 by John Alcock, bishop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII. 11. Christ's College, founded in 1506 by lady Margaret, countess of Richmond, mother to Henry VII. 12. St. John's College, founded in 1511 by the same lady. 13. Magdalen College, founded in 1519 by Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, and in 1549 patronized by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, and lord high-chancellor in the reign of Henry VIII. 14. Trinity College, founded in 1546 by Henry VII. 15. Emanuel College, founded in 1584 by Sir Walter Mildmay. 16. Sidney College, founded by virtue of the will of lady Frances Sidney, countess of Sussex, by Thomas Radcliff, earl of Sussex, in 1588.

In the university of Cambridge there are 400 fellows, and 666 scholars, with about 236 officers and servants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation. These, however, are not all the students of the university; there are also two sorts of students called pensioners, the greater and the less; the greater pensioners are the sons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners; because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows: the lesser pensioners dine with the scholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expence. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who wait upon the fellows, scholars, and pensioners, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but as the pensioners and sizars are in a state of perpetual fluctuation, their number cannot be ascertained.

Trinity-College library at Cambridge is a very magnificent structure; and in Corpus-Christi-College library is a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of monasteries, and given to this college by archbishop Parker. The senate-house is also a most elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost 16,000*l.*

It may be proper to insert here a piece of intelligence, respecting this university, transmitted to London in Nov. 1786. The writer observes, that

"The late Mr. Norris having left 9*l.* a year, for a medal and some books, as a premium for the best prose English essay on subjects appointed agreeable to the directions contained in his will, the Norrisian professor gives notice, that the subject for this present year (1786) is one of those mentioned by Mr. Norris, viz.

"The advantages of the knowledge revealed to mankind concerning the Holy Spirit."

"The essays are to be sent to one of the three fellows,

itwards, who are, the master of Trinity-College, the provost of King's-College, and the master of Caius-College, on or before the 10th day preceding the Sunday in passion week 1787, with the names of the respective writers, sealed up.

"Each candidate to be above 20 years of age, and under 30, must be, or have been, a student of the university, and must produce a certificate, under the hand of the professor, that he has attended twenty lectures in the course of some one year. That essay to which the prize shall be adjudged, must be published by the author within two months from the time of his receiving the medal and books. And any opinion advanced in the essay of a candidate for this prize, contrary (in the estimation of the appointed judges) to the articles of the church of England, with respect to our Saviour's divinity, and the personality of the Holy Spirit, is to disqualify such candidate."

There are three royal academies in England; the first is at Woolwich, established for the study of the military sciences and the mathematics, especially those branches which relate to the attack and defence of fortified places. The second royal academy is at Portsmouth, established for the study of navigation, and the other sciences relative to maritime affairs. The third is called the royal academy of painting and sculpture, established by his majesty Geo. III. who has allotted apartments in Somerset-House for their residence. Besides these, there is a royal observatory erected on the summit of a steep eminence in Greenwich-Park by Charles II. who furnished it with the most accurate instruments necessary in astronomical observations. This observatory has been successively the residence of those celebrated astronomers, Mr. Flamsteed, Dr. Halley, and Dr. Bradley. From the first, the observatory took the name of Flamsteed-House, by which it is now commonly known, and now is, or lately was, in the possession of Mr. Nevil Maskelyne, astronomer to his majesty.

At the head of the institutions formed for the propagation of knowledge, is justly placed the royal society, which consists of a president, council, and fellows, incorporated by Charles II. and vested with various privileges and immunities, for the purpose of cultivating and improving natural knowledge. They are governed by a body of statutes, and hold weekly meetings for making experiments, discoursing on different subjects of natural philosophy, reading papers, receiving letters, and answering correspondents. This is the most famous institution of the kind in the world, and can boast of many illustrious members, whose writings have cast a glorious light on every branch of natural philosophy.

We may consider the antiquities of England under four heads, namely, British, Roman, Saxon, and Danish. Among the British antiquities, Stonehenge in Wiltshire is the chief. It is situated near the summit of a hill, and consists of the remains of two circular,

and two oval ranges of rough stones, having one common centre. The outer circle is 108 feet in diameter, and in its perfection consisted of thirty upright stones, of which there are seventeen still standing, and seven more lying upon the ground, some whole, and others in pieces. The upright stones are from eighteen to twenty feet high, from six to seven feet broad, and about three feet thick; and being placed at the distance of three and a half one from the other, and joined at top by imposts, or stones laid across, with mortises fitted to mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Of the imposts, or cross-stones, there are six still standing, each of which is seven feet long, and about three feet and an half thick. The upright stones are slightly wrought with a chisel and somewhat tapered towards the top, but the imposts are quite plain. All the uprights are fixed in a kind of sockets, dug in a chalky soil, with small flints rammed in between the stone and the socket.

The inner circle, which never had any imposts, is somewhat more than eight feet from the inside to the outward one, and consisted originally of forty stones, the general proportions of which are, one half the dimensions of the uprights of the circle every way. Of the forty original stones which composed this circle, there are about nineteen left, and of those only eleven standing. The walk between these two circles is 21 feet in circumference; and from this walk the structure has a surprising and awful effect on the beholder.

At the distance of about nine feet from the inner circle, is the outer oval range, which is supposed to be the principal part of the work, and by most writers is called the cell, and the adytum. The stones that compose it are stupendous, some of them measuring thirty feet in height. This range consists of five compages or trilithons, as they are sometimes called, being formed of two uprights, with an impost at the top like the outer circle; and of these compages three are entire, but two somewhat decayed. The inner oval is composed of twenty stones, each about six feet high; and near the eastern extremity of this oval is a stone of coarse blue marble, about sixteen feet long, and four feet broad, which lies flat on the ground, is somewhat pressed into it, and is supposed to have been an altar.

This work is enclosed by a deep trench, near thirty feet broad, and upwards of an hundred feet from the outward circle. Over this trench there are three entrances, the most considerable of which faces the north-east. At each entrance, on the outside of the trench, there seems to have been two huge stones set up in the manner of a gate; and parallel to these, on the inside, two other stones, of a smaller size. The whole number of stones of which this structure consisted, is computed to be just 140.

The rude magnitude of Stonehenge has rendered it the admiration of all ages; and as the enormous stones which compose it appear too big for hand-carriage, and as Salisbury-Plain, for many miles round

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ance affords any stones at all, it has been the opinion
of some antiquaries, that these stones are artificial, and
were made on the spot; and they are inclined to this
opinion, from a persuasion that the ancients had the
art of making stones with sand, and a strong lime, or
cement; but most authors are agreed, that those stones
are all natural, and that they were brought from a
quarry of stones, called the grey wethers, on Marlbo-
rough Downs, near the town of that name, at the
distance of fifteen or sixteen miles from Stonehenge.

The use and origin of this work have been the sub-
jects of various conjectures and debates; and it is an
unfortunate circumstance, that a tablet of tin, with an
inscription, which was found here in the reign of
Henry the Eighth, and might probably have set these
opinions in a clear light, was not preserved; for as the
characters were not then understood by such as were
consulted upon the occasion, the plate was destroyed,
or, at least, thrown by and lost. The common tra-
dition is, that Stonehenge was built by Ambrosius
Aurelianus. Others will have it to be a funeral mo-
nument, raised to the memory of some brave com-
mander, perhaps Hengist, the Saxon general; but this
structure is probably more ancient than the Saxon
times. Somner, in his Antiquities of Britain, con-
jectures it to have been a work of the Phœnicians;
and the famous Inigo Jones, in a treatise called Stone-
henge Restored, attempts to prove that it was a temple
of the Tuscan order, built by the Romans, and dedi-
cated to the god Coelum, or Terminus, in which he
is confirmed by its having been open at top. Dr.
Charleston, physician in ordinary to Charles the Sec-
ond, wrote a treatise called, Stonehenge restored to
the Danes, attempting to prove that this was a Danish
monument, erected either for a burial-place, as a tro-
phy for some victory, or for the election and corona-
tion of their kings. Soon after the publication of Dr.
Charleston's treatise, Mr. Webb, son-in-law to Inigo
Jones, published a vindication of the opinions of his
father-in-law upon this subject.

Antiquaries have agreed, that it was an ancient
temple of the Druids, built, as Dr. Stukely thinks,
before the Belgæ came to Britain, and not long after
Cambyses invaded Egypt, where he committed such
horrid outrages among the priests, and inhabitants in
general, that they dispersed themselves to all quarters
of the world, and some of them, no doubt, came
into Britain. At this time, the doctor conjectures,
the Egyptians introduced their arts, learning, and reli-
gion, among the Druids, and probably had a hand
in this very work, being the only structure of the Druids
where the stones are chiseled, all their other works
consisting of rude stones, untouched by any tool, after
the Patriarchal and Hebrew mode. He thinks such a
transmigration of the Egyptians at that time the more prob-
able, because then the Phœnician trade was at its height,
which afforded a ready conveyance into this country.

Around this supposed temple, there are a great num-

ber of barrows, or monumental heaps of earth, thrown
up in the form of a bell, and each enclosed with a
trench, from 105 to 176 feet in diameter. These
barrows extend to a considerable distance from Stone-
henge; but they are so placed as to be all in view of
the temple. In such barrows as have been opened,
skeletons, or the remains of burnt bones, have been
found. In one of them was an urn, containing ashes,
some bones, and other matters, which the funeral pile
had not consumed. By the collar-bone, and one of
the jaw-bones, which were still entire, it was judged
that the person there buried must have been about
fourteen years old; and from some female trinkets,
and the brass head of a javelin, it was conjectured to
have been a girl who had carried arms. The trink-
ets consisted of a great number of glass and amber
beads, of various shapes, sizes, and colours, together
with a sharp bodkin, round at one end, and square at
the other. In some barrows were found human bones,
together with those of horses, deer, dogs, and other
beasts and birds; in others, some bits of red and blue
marble, and chippings of the stones of the temple;
and in others were found a brass sword, and an ancient
brass instrument called a celt.

Great numbers of remarkable British antiquities are
found in Wales, particularly in the island of Angle-
sey, the last retreat of the Druids, and where a vast
number of them perished, many of whom were burnt
upon their own altars by Julius Agricola, the Roman
general. Vast numbers of the monuments of these
early ages also still subsist in Cornwall.

Some of these monuments consist of a large orbicu-
lar rock, supported by two other rocks, between
which there is a passage. This sort of monument in
Cornwall and Scilly, is commonly called Tolmen,
which in the Cornish language signifies the hole of
stone. These are supposed to have been deities in the
time of the Druids; and the most surprising monu-
ment of the kind now remaining, is at Men, between
Falmouth and Hellston; it consists of one vast oval
pebble, placed on the points of two natural rocks, so
that a man may creep under the incumbent rock, and
between its two supporters, through a passage of three
feet wide, and as many high; the longest diameter of
the incumbent stone, which points due north and south,
is thirty-three feet, the circumference is ninety-seven
feet, and sixty feet cross the middle; and it is thought
to be at least 750 tons weight. The whole surface
on the top is wrought into basons, and resembles an
imperfect or mutilated honeycomb. Most of these
reservoirs discharge their contents into two principal ba-
sons, one at the south, and the other at the north end
of the rock. There are two other tolmens of the
same structure, though not quite so large, in the Scilly-
Islands, one in St. Mary's-Island, at the bottom of
Salakee-Downs, and the other in the little island of
Northwethel, each of which is situated on the decli-
vity of a hill, near a large pile of rocks.

Another

Another kind of Druidical monuments is found at Karn Boscawen, near St. Burién, about five miles from Penzance. It consists of one large flat stone, one end of which rests upon the natural rock; and the other end on three large stones placed one on the other, in order to raise a proper support for the weight of the horizontal stone. Between this canopy and its supporters, there is an opening seven feet wide at the top, but closing gradually into an acute angle at the bottom. The top stone is too nicely supported to be the work of nature; and the opening underneath is supposed to have been designed for the seat of one of the chief priests among the Druids, from whence he might issue his edicts and decisions, his predictions and admissions to noviciates; and indeed the mind can scarcely frame to itself a scene more striking and awful than this, which consists of vast rocks on either side, the same tremendous appearance above and below fronting an immense ocean.

It was also the custom of the Druids to erect a very peculiar kind of monuments, called by the common people rocking-stones, or logan-stones, some of which are supposed to be natural, and others artificial. Near the southernmost point of the Land's End there is a promontory called Castle Treryn, which consists of three distinct piles of rocks. On the western side of the middle pile, near the top, lies a very large stone, so exactly poised, that the slightest touch will rock it; and yet the extremities of its base are at such a distance from each other, and so well secured, that it is impossible any lever, or indeed any force, however mechanically applied, could remove it from its present situation.

On a rock, adjoining to a place called the Giant's-Castle, in the island of St. Mary, in Scilly, is an area of a circular figure, 172 feet from north to south, and 138 from east to west; on the edges of the rock are nine vast stones still remaining, planted in a circular line; several others perfected the round, but from time to time have been removed. This has been a capital work of its kind; the floor is of one rock, the stones round the edges are of an extraordinary size, and a stone, possibly a rock-idol, makes one of the ring.

Some of these circles have altars in the centre, while the area of others is entirely open, and therefore seems never to have been appropriated to religion. There is one of the former on the island of Irelcaw, in Scilly. The altar consists of one rude stone nineteen feet long, and shelving on the top; round the bottom there is a hollow circular trench, thirty-six feet in diameter, and the brim of the trench formed with a line of rude and unequal stones. Another of these circles is on a high hill called Karn-Menelez, in the wilds of Wendron, not far from Penryn. The altar consists of four flat thin stones, placed one above another; the upper stone is circular, and its diameter nineteen feet; it has a circular trench at the bottom, the diameter of which is thirty-five feet and a half.

This seems to have been appropriated to religious ceremonies; but it must not however be supposed that all the monuments of a circular kind had no other use but those of religion, government, and election, the names by which some of them are still called; the singular construction of others; as well as the particular customs recorded in the history of the ancients will suggest some other very different uses to which monuments of this figure were applied. Where these stone enclosures are semicircular, and distinguished by seats and benches of like materials, there is no doubt but they were designed for the exhibition of plays. There are several theatres of this kind in different parts of Britain; but though this form is best adapted for the instruction and information of the audience, yet as they cannot be supposed, in these illiterate times, to have consulted the delight and instruction of the ear so much as the pleasure and entertainment of the eye, it is not so commonly met with among the remains of antiquity, as the amphitheatrical form, which, being more capacious, had generally the preference of the former. In these amphitheatres of stone, not broken as the circles of erect stones, the Britons usually assembled to hear plays performed, and to see sports and games. Of these circles there are a great number in Cornwall, where they are called *plan au guare*, which signifies a plain of sport and pasture. The benches round were generally of turf, but there are some at Cornwall, which are of stone. The most remarkable monument of this kind is near the church of St. Just, north-west of Penzance, not far from the Land's End; by the remains it seems to have been a work of more than usual labour and correctness. It was an exact circle of 126 feet diameter, the perpendicular height of the bank from the area within is now seven feet; but the height from the bottom of the ditch without, ten feet. The seats consist of six steps, fourteen inches wide, and a foot high, with one on the top, where the rampart is about seven feet high.

There are found in various parts of England another species of monuments erected by the ancient Britons, and called Cromlech, which signifies a crooked stone, the upper surface of the incumbent stone being generally convex, and the whole stone lying in an inclined or crooked position. The situation commonly chosen for this monument, is the summit of a hill, doubtless in order to render it as conspicuous as possible; sometimes it is mounted upon a barrow or tumulus, consisting either of stones or earth; sometimes it is placed in the middle of a circle of erect stones, in which case it is supposed to have been erected on some extraordinary occasion. The elevation of this monument is generally six, eight, or more feet from the ground, though some of them are quite enclosed, and, as it were, buried in the barrow. It is not easy to determine the nation, sect, or religion to which this monument ought to be ascribed, as cromlechs are found in Denmark, France, and Germany, in the

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appropriated to religious purposes, however be supposed of any kind had no other use, and election of them are still called; the same as well as the particular history of the ancient nations, different uses to which they were applied. Where they were used, and distinguished by their materials, there is no doubt an exhibition of play, of a kind in different parts of the world is best adapted for the use of the audience, for these illiterate times, the construction of the ear for the enjoyment of the eye, is among the remains of the most ancient form, which, being the preference of the materials of stone, not broken by the Britons usually used, and to see sports and games are a great number in the *plan au guare*, which is still in use. The benches are not there are some at the most remarkable church of St. Juliano, near the Land's-End, which has been a work of great correctness. It was an obelisk, the perpendicular within is now seven feet high, the bottom of the ditch consist of six steps, high, with one on the seven feet high. The parts of England noted by the ancient British signifies a crooked incumbent stone being the stone lying in an inclined situation commonly the summit of a hill, conspicuous as possible; a barrow or tumulus, earth; sometimes it is a pile of erect stones, in which have been erected on some elevation of this monument more feet from the ground quite enclosed, and so on. It is not easy to determine to which religion they were dedicated, as cromlechs are found in Germany, in the islands

islands in the Mediterranean-Sea, in Ireland, Britain, and the British isles; they are therefore supposed to be of Celtic, and are doubtless very ancient, as appears from their simplicity. But however this be, they are sepulchral monuments, as human skeletons, single bones, &c. have been found under several of them.

The Roman antiquities in England consist of a great variety of particulars, as altars, monumental inscriptions, tessellated pavements, baths, camps, military ways, fortifications, arms, coins, fibulae, trinkets, and other particulars. The Roman camps, which are of a square form, and found all over England, are generally so well chosen with regard to situation, and so completely fortified, that it is reasonable to think they were rather the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers, than the temporary stations of a few days. At the same time it is evident from the baths, tessellated pavements, &c. found in different parts; that their officers and magistrates resided in towns or villas. But the most amazing monument of the Romans in England, is the remains of Hadrian's vallum, and the wall of Severus, running parallel to each other from the Solway-Frith beyond Burgh on the sands near Carlisle to the neighbourhood of Newcastle upon Tyne, an extent of sixty-eight English miles. Hadrian's vallum is a rampart of earth with a large ditch to the southward, which seems to have served as a military way. The wall of Severus was built of stone, twelve feet high, and eight in thickness, of such materials, and so disposed, as to render it as solid as a rock: it was strengthened by a deep ditch to the northward, by towers and castella at certain distances, and was accommodated with a paved military way on the south side, though not always parallel to the range of the wall, being in breadth about seventeen feet. Hadrian first raised his vallum, and Severus afterwards built the wall with those castella, for the same purpose of defending the Roman province from the incursions of the Scots and Picts; and that the wall was built by the legionary soldiers, appears from a great number of inscriptions upon stones, found through the whole length of the presenture. Hadrian's vallum reached no further than Newcastle, but the wall of Severus is carried through that town, and ends at Stationary-Fort, near Couzen's-Howse, about three miles to the eastward, where the ruins of a Roman station and town are still discernible. Large portions of the wall are standing in different parts of Northumberland and Cumberland, as well as the foundations of several castella, which appear to have been sixty-six feet square, built on the south side adjoining to the wall, at the distance of about a mile from each other.

The military ways of the Romans convey a noble idea of the civil as well as military policy of that celebrated people. Their vestiges are numerous, in almost every part of the kingdom. One extended from Dover through Kent to London; thence to Verulam, Dunstable, Stratford, Towcester, Littleburn, St. Gil-

bert's-Hill, near Shrewsbury, then by Stratton, and thence through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The Hermen-Street, or great military way, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it from Pomfret to Doncaster strikes off to the westward, passing through Tadcaster, and thence to Aldby, where it again joins Hermen-Street. The vestiges of this celebrated road may still be easily traced from Cattle-froth, a village about two miles from Pomfret, to Aberforth. The cause-way in many places is entirely perfect, though it has doubtless been finished near 1600 years. In some spots where it is broken up, it appears to be composed of different materials; the bottom is clay or earth, upon which is laid a bed of chalk; upon that another of gravel; the gravel is covered by a stratum of stone, and is itself covered by another bed of gravel. The course of it is very easily traced over moors and broken grounds which have not been cultivated; but there are few remains on the enclosed lands. The Romans had doubtless communications of this kind between all their stations; but time and neglect, during so many years, have rendered it difficult to trace them in many parts: those however that remain are astonishing monuments of Roman industry. It would be endless to enumerate here the Roman coins, altars, &c. that have been found in various parts of the kingdom, many of which are preserved in the museums of the curious; a prodigious number of them are described by authors who have professedly written on the antiquities of this country; and many have escaped their most assiduous inquiries.

With respect to Saxon antiquities, those found in England consist principally of edifices dedicated to religion, and places of great strength, particularly camps, of which numbers are found in various parts of this country. Several of the cathedrals of England were built by the Saxons, and that of Winchester was the burial-place of several of their kings, whose bones were collected by bishop Fox, and deposited in six large wooden chests. In the British Museum are preserved many specimens of Saxon learning, though it was certainly confined to a few persons. The charters, of which several are still preserved, are written in a neat and legible hand; but the signatures are nothing more than a plain cross, the name and quality of the donor being added by the writer of the charter. Near Wimbledon, about four miles north-east of Kingston upon Thames, is a military work called Benbury, of an orbicular form, where Cheaulin, king of the West Saxons, fought and defeated one of the Kentish generals, in the first battle of the Saxons among themselves. But the most remarkable antiquity of the Saxons, is the rude figure of a white horse, cut on the side of a green hill, a little to the north of Upper Lambourne, in Berkshire. This figure takes up near an acre of ground, and, according to some antiquaries, was made by Hengist the first Saxon king, a white horse being the standard of the Saxons. Others however bring

bring various arguments to prove its having been made by order of Alfred, in the reign of his brother Ethelred, as a monument of his victory over the Danes in the year 871, at Ashdown, now called Athbury-Park, the seat of lord Craven, in the neighbourhood of White-Horse-Hill. Saxon coins have been found in various parts of England.

Danish antiquities so nearly resemble those of the Saxons, that it is difficult to distinguish the one from the other: the camps of both were of the orbicular form; but there is one on the summit of Rook's-Hill, a few miles to the north of Chichester, in Sussex, allowed to have been thrown up by the Danes. It is of an orbicular form, and something more than a quarter of a mile in diameter.

In Essex, Kent, Surrey, and some other counties, are several artificial excavations; but it is not known whether they were made by the ancient Britons, the Saxons, Danes, or Normans. The most remarkable is that under the old castle at Rygate in Surrey. It contains an oblong square room, round which runs a bench cut out of the same rock. Tradition tells us, that in this cavern the barons, in the time of king John, held their meetings.

The most remarkable natural curiosities of England are those found in Derbyshire, and known by the appellation of the Wonders of the Peak. The following are the most extraordinary: Mam-Tor, or Mother-Tower, the name of a mountain in the Peak, which, though it is perpetually mouldering away, and the earth and stones are falling from the precipice above in such quantities, as to terrify the neighbouring inhabitants with their noise, is yet of such an enormous bulk, that the decrease is not to be perceived.

Eden-Hole, near Chapel in the Frith, is a vast chasm in the side of a mountain, twenty-one feet wide, and more than forty feet long. In this chasm, or cave, appears the mouth of a pit, the depth of which could never be fathomed. A plummet once drew eight hundred and eighty-four yards, which is something more than half a mile, of line after it, of which the last eighty yards were wet, but no bottom was found. Several attempts to fathom it have been since made, and the plummet has stopped at half that depth, owing probably to its resting on some of the protuberances that stand out from the sides. That such protuberances there are, is proved by an experiment constantly made, to shew its great depth to those that visit the place, by the poor people attending them, who always throw some large stones down into it, which are heard to strike against the irregularities of the sides with a fainter and a fainter sound, which is at length gradually lost. The earl of Leicester, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, hired a poor man to venture down in a basket, who, after he had descended two hundred ells, was drawn up again; but to the great disappointment of the curious inquirer, he had lost his senses, and in a few days after died delirious. The cavern in which this

pit is found, is contracted within the rock, and water is continually trickling from the top, where it also forms sparry concretions.

Tidewell is another curiosity of the Peak; it is situated near a market-town of the same name. The well is about three feet deep, and three feet wide, and the water, at different and uncertain periods of time, sinks and rises with a gurgling noise, two-thirds of the perpendicular depth of the well. Many conjectures have been formed to account for this phenomenon. Some have thought that in the aqueduct a stone stands in equilibrium, and produces the rise and fall of the water, by vibrating backwards and forwards; but it is difficult to conceive what should produce this vibration at uncertain periods, as what should produce the rise and fall of the water. Others imagine that these regular ebblings and flowings, as well as the gurgling noise, are occasioned by air which agitates or presses the water from the subterraneous cavities; but this does not inform us what can be supposed first to move the air. Many have imagined the spring to be occasionally supplied from the overflowings of some subterraneous body of water, lying upon a higher level, but whether either of these be the true cause of this phenomenon, cannot be determined. There are several springs of this kind in various parts of the kingdom.

Pool's-Hole is a large cave, which is said to have taken its name from one Pool, a notorious robber, who secreted himself here from justice; this is another curious cavern in the Peak, and situated at the bottom of a lofty mountain, called Coitmoos, near Buxton. The entrance is by a small arch, so very low, that such an adventure into it are forced to creep upon their hands and knees, but gradually opens into a vault more than a quarter of a mile long, and, as some have pretended, a quarter of a mile high. It is undoubtedly very lofty, and in appearance not unlike the inside of a Gothic cathedral. In a cavern to the right, called Pool's Chamber, there is a fine echo, though it does not appear of what kind it is; and the sound of a current of water, which runs along the middle of the great vault, being reverberated on each side, very much increases the astonishment of those who visit the place.

There are great ridges of stones on the floor; and from the roof and sides of this vault, water is perpetually distilling, the drops of which, before they fall, produce a most pleasing effect, by reflecting numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides; they also, from their quality, form crystallizations of various forms; like the figures of fret-work; and in some places, having been long accumulated one upon another, they have formed large masses, bearing a resemblance to men, lions, dogs, and other animals. In this cavity is a column, as clear as alabaster, called Mary Queen of Scots' pillar, because it is believed she entered no further. Beyond it there is a steep ascent, for near a quarter of a mile, which terminates in a hollow

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in the roof, called the Needle's Eye, in which, when
the guide places his candle, it appears like a star. If
a pistol be fired near the queen's pillar, the report will
be as loud as a cannon. There is another passage by
which people usually return. No: far from this place
are two springs, one cold, and the other hot; but so
near each other, that the thumb and finger of the same
hand may be put into both streams at the same time.

The last wonder of the Peak, is a cavern, unac-
countably called the Devil's Arse, and sometimes the
Peak's Arse. It runs under a steep hill, about six
miles north-west of Tideswell, by an horizontal en-
trance, sixty feet wide, and something more than thirty
feet high. The top of this entrance resembles a re-
gular arch chequered with stones of different colours,
from which petrifying water is continually dropping.
Here are several huts, which look like a little town,
inhabited by a set of people who in a great measure sub-
sist by guiding strangers into a cavern, which opens
at the extremity of this entrance. The outward part
of this cave is very dark; it is also rendered extremely
slippery, by a current of water which runs across the
entrance, and the rock hangs so low, that it is ne-
cessary to stoop in order to go under it; but having
passed this place, and another current, which some-
times cannot be waded, the arch opens again to a third
current, near which are large banks of sand: after
these are passed, the rock closes. Another cavern of
this kind, called Wokey-Hole, is found in Mendip-
Hills, in Somersetshire, near a place of the same name,
about a mile from the city of Wells. It has a very
strong echo.

Medicinal springs abound in England; these are
justly considered as natural curiosities, and have been
already described; but there are others of a different
kind, which must not be passed over unnoticed. Among
these the Dropping Well near Knarborough, in York-
shire, is not the least remarkable. The water, which
is of a petrifying quality, rises from a spring about two
miles distance, and flows mostly in a subterraneous
passage to what is called the Well, or rather Bason,
into which the water falls from a rock about sixteen
feet high. The summit of this rock projects con-
siderably over its base, so that the water does not run
down the sides, out drops very fast from thirty or forty
places of the top, into the well or bason, hollowed in
the ground, every drop creating a musical kind of
tinkling sound. A great variety of petrifications are
found in the bason.

There is a very remarkable fountain, near Richard's-
Castle in Herefordshire, called Bonewell, which is
generally full of small bones, resembling those of frogs,
or fish, though often cleared out; and it is not easy to
conjecture how they are collected here in such quanti-
ties. The Burning-Well at Ancliff, near Wigan in
Lancashire, has been long famous. The water is
cold and without smell; but so strong a vapour of
sulphur formerly issued out with it, that upon the ap-

plication of a candle, &c. the whole surface was im-
mediately covered with a blue flame resembling that
of burning spirits, and very hot. But a vein of coals
which ran under the well having been lately taken
away, this effect has, in a great measure ceased.

We shall now proceed to give some account of the
chief cities and towns in England, with the most re-
markable edifices, public and private.

London, the metropolis of the British empire, and the
first city for trade in the known world, is situated on the
banks of the Thames, about twenty miles from its mouth,
in the latitude of 51 deg. 32 min. of north latitude,
400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of
Dublin; 180 west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of
Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west
of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east
of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of
Lisbon, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, and 1414
south-west of Moscow.

London, in the extensive sense of the word, com-
prehends the metropolis, properly so called, together
with the city of Westminster, the borough of South-
wark, and part of Middlesex: but though all these are
included under one general name, they have each a
proper government, and distinct corporations; and
each sends members to parliament. The extent of
London from Hyde-park Corner to Poplar, that is
from east to west, is upwards of seven miles. The
breadth varies greatly, being in some places three miles,
in others two, and in others not exceeding more than
half a mile. The circumference of the whole is about
eighteen miles; and the number of its inhabitants are
computed at one million; the number of houses, from
a calculation made in 1784, amounted to 174,000.
It is delightfully and advantageously situated on the
banks of the Thames, a river, which though not the
largest, is the richest and most commodious for com-
merce of any in the world. London rises from this
beautiful river with a gradual ascent. Nor can any
thing be conceived more beautiful than the surrounding
country, consisting of fertile meadows, rich corn-fields,
large tracts of garden grounds, parks, and elegant vil-
las belonging to the nobility and gentry.

London is governed by a mayor, who has the title
of lord, and is chosen annually; two sheriffs; twenty-
six aldermen; a recorder; two hundred and thirty-six
common-councilmen; and other officers. Westmin-
ster is governed by a high steward; a deputy steward;
a high bailiff; sixteen burgessees, with their assistants;
and a high constable. Both these cities abound in
magnificent structures, whose description we'd re-
quire a volume; therefore a few only of the most re-
markable will be particularly described in this article.

The Tower of London was formerly a royal palace,
but now the chief fortress of the city. It is situated
on the margin of the Thames, and is supposed to have
been erected by William the Conqueror, about the year
1076, when it consisted of that part only known by

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the appellation of the White Tower, which was rebuilt in the years 1637 and 1638. It is a large, square, irregular stone building, situated near the centre, and consists of three very lofty stories, under which are spacious and commodious vaults, chiefly filled with salt-petre. It is covered on the top with flat leads, from whence there is an extensive and delightful prospect. In the first story are two noble rooms, one of which is a small armoury for the sea-service, containing various sorts of arms very curiously laid up, sufficient for more than ten thousand seamen: besides several closets and presses filled with warlike engines and instruments of death. Over this are two other apartments, one principally filled with arms, and the other with spades, shovels, pick-axes, chevaux-de-frize, &c. In the attic story are kept match, sheepskins, tanned hides, and various other articles. On the top of one of the Towers is a large cistern or reservoir for supplying the whole garrison with water. It is about seven feet deep, nine broad, and about sixty in length. The water which supplies it is raised from the Thames by means of an engine. Near the south-west angle of the White Tower is the Spanish armoury, in which the spoils of the Spanish Invincible Armada, defeated in the reign of Elizabeth, are deposited.

Northward of the White Tower is a noble building, called the Grand Store-House, extending 245 feet in length, and sixty in breadth. It was begun by James II. and finished by William III. who erected that magnificent room called the New or Small Armoury, which is built of brick and stone. On the north side is a stately door-case, adorned with four columns, with their entablature and triangular pediment of the Doric order. On entering the room the spectator is agreeably surpris'd with the sight of arms sufficient for eighty thousand men, disposed in the most beautiful order imaginable, all bright and fit for service. Upon the ground floor, under the small armoury, is a large room of equal dimensions with that, supported by twenty pillars, hung round with various implements of war.

To the eastward of the White Tower, is the horse armoury, a plain brick building, rather convenient than elegant. Here the sight is entertained with a representation of several English kings and heroes; most of them on horseback, and some in the same armour they wore when they performed those glorious actions which give them a distinguished place in the British annals.

On entering the Tower, on the left hand, is an office appropriated to the coining of money, and called the Mint, which is managed by several officers formed into a corporation, consisting of a warden, a mallet and worker, a comptroller, the king's assay-master, the chief engraver, the surveyor of the meltings, a clerk of the irons, a weigher and teller, a provost, melters, blanchers, moneyers, &c.

About twenty yards to the eastward of the grand

store-house or new armoury, stands the jewel-office, dark strong room wherein the crown jewels are deposited. This office is governed by a master, two yeomen, a groom, and a clerk.

At a small distance from the Tower is the Custom-House, erected for the receipt of his majesty's customs on goods exported and imported. It is a large, handsome, commodious edifice, situated on the banks of the Thames, built with brick and stone, and seemingly calculated to stand for ages. The government of the Custom-House is under the care of nine commissioners, who are intrusted with the entire management of his majesty's customs in all the ports of England, and also the superintending of all their officers. Both they and several of the principal officers under them hold their places by patent from the king; but all others are appointed by warrant from the lords of the treasury.

St. Paul's cathedral is allowed to be one of the grandest structures in the world, and is supposed to have been originally founded by Ethelbert, a Saxon king, in the year 610; but in the succeeding reigns sustained numberless alterations and accidents. In 1666, it was totally destroyed by the fire of London. The first stone of the present church was laid in 1675, by that famous architect Sir Christopher Wren, after whose plan the whole structure was finished in 1710. The length of this structure from east to west, between the walls, is 463 feet, and, including the west portico, 500; the breadth of the west front 180; and in the centre, where it is widest, including the north and south porticoes, it is 311; the height from the ground to the top of the cross is 344 feet; the external diameter of the cupola 145, and the internal 100; the outward diameter of the lantern 18; the height of the turret 208; and that of the body of the church 120. It takes up an area of six acres, including the church yard, which is railed round with iron balustrades, each about five feet and a half high. It is built of fine Portland stone, in form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome. The expence of rebuilding this cathedral, after the fire of London, is computed at a million sterling, and was defrayed by a duty on coals.

The principal edifice devoted to public worship in the city of Westminster, is the abbey church of St. Peter. This church is in form of a long cross; its length being 489 feet, and the breadth of the west front 66 feet; the length of the cross aisle is 189, and the height of the roof 92. At the west end are two towers; and the nave and cross aisles are supported by fifty pillars of Susssex marble, about twelve feet and a half asunder, besides pilasters. There are ninety-four windows, in the upper and lower ranges, all which, together with the arches, roofs and doors, are in the ancient Gothic taste. The inside of this church is much better executed than the out; the perspective, particularly that of the grand aisle, is remarkably good,

[EUROPE.]

and the choir, from steps to a superb white marble, and north side, as many. This church is a depository of our monuments it is crowded

In the cities of the cathedral and parish churches, a belonging to the Protestant chapels, means, Dutch, Da Presbyterian meeting Popish chapels and foreign ambassadors three Jewish synag

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and the choir, from which there is an ascent by several steps to a superb altar-piece, is paved with black and white marble, and contains twenty-eight stalls on the north side, as many on the south, and eight at the west end. This church has been long famous for being the repository of our illustrious dead, with whose monuments it is crowded.

In the cities of London and Westminster, besides the cathedral and abbey above described, there are 103 parish churches, and an amazing number of chapels belonging to the established religion; 21 French Protestant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 33 Baptist meetings; 28 Presbyterian meetings; 26 Independent meetings; 19 Popish chapels and meeting-houses, for the use of foreign ambassadors, and people of various sects; and three Jewish synagogues.

The stately column called the Monument was built of Portland Stone, in 1671, after a design of Sir Christopher Wren, in order to perpetuate the memory of the dreadful conflagration which happened in 1666, and laid almost the whole city in ashes. This pillar was erected near the place where the fire began: it is of the Doric order, 202 feet high, and 15 feet in diameter. It stands on a pedestal, 40 feet high, and 21 feet square, the sides of which are adorned with emblematical figures in alto and basso relievo, representing the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by king Charles II. and his brother the duke of York. Within is a spiral staircase of black marble, containing 345 steps, which lead to a balcony, encompassing a cone 32 feet high, supporting a blazing urn of gilt brass.

The Royal-Exchange is justly esteemed a most noble and useful fabric. It was first erected at the sole expense of Sir Thomas Gresham, but that structure being destroyed by the fire of London, the present fabric was erected by parliament in 1669, and is said to have cost above 80,000l. The whole forms a parallelogram 203 feet in length, and 171 feet in breadth, enclosing an area 144 feet long, and 127 broad.

On the spot where Gresham-College formerly stood (between Bishopsgate and Broad-Street) is now erected a noble pile of building for managing the business of the excise; which office before was held in the Old Jewry.

Newgate having been long complained of as a public nuisance, the city have taken it down, and erected a new prison for the reception of offenders, on a most extensive and excellent plan.

The British Museum is a large and magnificent building, situated in Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury, and formerly belonged to the Duke of Montague; but in the year 1753, the parliament having passed an act for purchasing the Museum of the late Sir Hans Sloane, and the collection of manuscripts of the late Lord Oxford, for the use of the public, twenty-six trustees were appointed and incorporated, in order to provide a repository for these and some other col-

lections, under the title of the British Museum. Montague-house being fixed on for this purpose, the parliament purchased it for ten thousand pounds; and expended fifteen thousand more in repairs, alterations, and conveniences. They paid twenty thousand pounds for the collection of Sir Hans Sloane, consisting of an amazing number of natural and artificial curiosities, valuable remains of antiquity, and a large library. Ten thousand pounds were given for lord Oxford's manuscripts; and thirty thousand pounds vested in the public funds, for supplying salaries for officers, and other necessary expences. This noble collection of curiosities, and excellent libraries, greatly augmented by his present majesty, being chiefly designed for the use of learned and studious men, both natives and foreigners, in their researches into the several departments of knowledge, was opened in the year 1757.

The palace of St. James's is an old building, to which the court removed after the burning of Whitehall in 1697; and ever since that period it has been the royal residence. It was built by Henry VIII. upon the site of an hospital formerly founded for fourteen leprous maids, and dedicated to St. James. This edifice has a mean and irregular appearance when viewed from without, but it contains some excellent and splendid apartments.

The queen's palace, situated on the west side of St. James's park, was originally known by the name of Arlington-House; but being purchased by the Buckingham family, it was rebuilt from the ground in 1703, and called Buckingham-House, till the beginning of 1762, when it was purchased by his present majesty, and presented to the queen. Several alterations and additions have lately been made in the park and gardens. The palace itself has been considerably enlarged, and the apartments decorated with celebrated paintings, executed by the greatest masters, particularly the invaluable cartoons of Raphael, formerly kept at Hampton-Court.

Somerfet-House was originally built by the duke of Somerset, uncle to Edward VI. upon whose attainder it fell to the crown. It was the residence of queen Catharine, dowager of Charles II. and was settled on the late queen Caroline, in case she had survived her royal consort. The apartments are now granted to several of the officers of the court, and its dependents; and lately a considerable part of it has been presented to the royal academy of painting, to which a charter has been lately given by his present majesty.

Other public buildings worthy of notice are the Mansion-House, built at the expence of the city, for the residence of the lord-mayors during their mayoralties. The College of Physicians. The Bank of England. Most of the parish churches, especially that of St. Stephen's in Walbrook. The Banqueting-House at Whitehall, being part of a plan designed by Inigo Jones for a royal palace, but never executed. The Admiralty-Office. The Treasury. The Horse-Guards.

and uniting beauty with magnificence. These delightful villas shew both the elegant taste and affluence of the possessors, and spread plenty over the whole neighbourhood.

The two hospitals of Chelsea and Greenwich, the former for decayed soldiers, and the latter for decayed seamen, are charities which reflect immortal honour on the nation to which they belong.

Chelsea-Hospital, sometimes called the Royal Hospital, and at others Chelsea-College, was built by Sir Christopher Wren, under the auspices of James II. and William and Mary. The principal edifice consists of a large quadrangle, open to the Thames. The number of pensioners in this hospital is between four and five hundred; but the extraordinary, or out-pensioners, are between eight and nine thousand: the latter are allowed seven pounds twelve shillings and six-pence per annum; they wear red coats lined with blue, and perform duty as in garrison; and those in the hospital are provided with clothes, diet, lodging, washing, fire, and one day's pay per week, for pocket money. Formerly, every man admitted into this hospital, was obliged to bring proof of his having been disabled in the service of the crown, or having served twenty years in the king's army; but many now enjoy this bounty who are not entitled to it. To defray the immense charges of this charity, the army pays poundage, and every officer and soldier gives one day's pay every year towards the support of it; and when there is a deficiency, it is supplied by a grant from parliament. This hospital is governed by the president of the council, the first commissioner of the treasury, the principal secretaries of state, the pay-master general of the forces, the secretary at war, the comptrollers of the army, and by the governor and lieutenant-governor of the house.

Greenwich-Hospital is situated where a royal palace formerly stood, but being fallen to decay, Charles II. pulled it down, and began this edifice, of which he only lived to see the west wing finished. In the year 1694, William III. appropriated this wing for a royal hospital for aged and disabled seamen; and in the reign of that monarch the other wing was begun, and carried on by his successors till the reign of George II. when it was completed, and is, without exception, one of the finest buildings in the world. The superb hall was finely painted by Sir James Thornhill. The chapel is one hundred feet long, fifty broad, and fifty high; and the ornaments are all white and gold. The number of disabled seamen in this hospital is now increased to 2000 men and 100 boys. To every hundred pensioners are allowed five nurses, who are the widows of seamen, and are each allowed ten pounds a year, except those who attend in the infirmary, who have two shillings a week more. The pensioners are clothed in blue, with brass buttons; are shod, besides their livery, in stockings, shoes, and linen; and, exclusive of their commons, are allowed one shilling a week as pocket-

money: the common warrant officers have one shilling and six-pence. This hospital is governed by the governor, a lieutenant-governor, and other officers.

The endowments of this house are immense. William III. gave two thousand pounds a year towards finishing the buildings. In the year 1738, the late earl of Derwentwater's forfeited estate, amounting to near six thousand pounds per annum, was given to parliament; and, in 1737, a market was opened in the town of Greenwich, under the direction of the governors of this charity, to which the profits that arise from it are to be appropriated. Besides these the several benefactions to this hospital, which appear upon tables, hung up at the entrance of the hall amount to fifty-eight thousand two hundred and ninety pounds.

Having described several of the most considerable buildings, &c. in the capital and its neighbourhood, some attention must be paid to the other principal towns of this kingdom, most of which are distinguished either by manufactures, naval affairs, or a convenient situation for the trade carried on with the metropolis, and foreign countries. Among the most considerable of these, are the following:

Bristol is situated upon the river Avon, partly in the county of Gloucester, and partly in the county of Somerset, about one hundred and fifteen miles distant from London, to which it is esteemed second in commercial wealth, and number of inhabitants: the last are supposed to amount to at least ninety-five thousand. The city carries on a very large trade to the West-Indies, Guinea, Holland, Hamburgh, Norway, Ireland, and the Streights. The conveniency of its situation near the Severn and the Wye, has enabled it to acquire the whole traffic of South Wales, and great part of that of North Wales. There are considerable manufactures of woollen stuffs at Bristol, particularly of a species called cantaloons; and there are no less than fifteen glass-houses for the manufacture of drinking glasses, bottles, and plate-glass. Large copper-works are also erected in the neighbourhood of this city.

York is the second city in the kingdom, and its chief magistrate has the title of lord-mayor. The cathedral is built in the Gothic taste, and by some thought to be the finest in England, if not in Italy. It is dedicated to St. Peter. The windows are adorned with glass exquisitely painted with scripture history, and other most curious figures in 117 partitions. In the fourth tower there is a deep peal of twelve bells. The nave of this church, which is bigger than any except St. Peter's at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher than that of St. Paul's. The ascent from it through the choir to the altar is by six steps. The entrance of the middle nave of the church at the west door is under the largest Gothic arch in Europe, which binds and supports the two towers. At the fourth end of the cross aisle is a circular window, called the marigold window, from its being stained of that

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officers have one third of the town, and the other two thirds are governed by the king and other officers. The manufactures are immense. Wine is exported a year to the value of 100,000 l. In the year 1738, the last year of the late king's estate, amounting to 100,000 l. was given to the market was opened in the direction of the profits thereof. Besides the hospital, which is at the entrance of the hall, there are two hundred and nine

the most considerable and its neighbourhood. The other principal manufactures of which are distinguished, naval affairs, or carried on with the most success. Among the most famous are the following:

At Avon, partly in the county of Somerset, there are sixteen miles distant from the sea, a second in commerce, the last are supposed to be 17,500. This is the West-Indies, Norway, Ireland, and the rest of the world, enabled it to acquire a great part of the manufactures of considerable manner, particularly of the West-Indies, there are no less than 100,000 l. worth of manufactures of drinking

Large copper-works are situated in the neighbourhood of this city. The cathedral is the cathedral-mayor. The cathedral is adorned with glass windows, and other ornaments. In the south side of the cathedral are twelve bells. The nave is larger than any except St. Paul's. The altar is by six steps, and the church at the west end has two towers. At the west end of the cathedral window, called the organ window, is a

colour; and a large one at the north end, consisting of five lights reaching almost from bottom to top, and as they say, at the charge of five maiden virgins. The painting represents embroidery.

The city belongs to neither of the Ridings, but enjoys its own liberty, and a jurisdiction over thirty-six villages and hamlets in the neighbourhood, on the west side of the Ouse, on which it stands. This liberty is called the Ainstly, or county, of the city of York.

Sheffield, a town in Yorkshire, is also remarkable for its steel manufactures, particularly locks and edge-tools of various kinds. Halifax, another town in the same county, is equally famous for the woollen manufactory, which has rendered this place one of the most flourishing places in England. It has been computed that 100,000 pieces of shalloon are made yearly in this town alone; and that one single dealer has traded by commission for 60,000 l. per ann. to Holland and Hamburg, in the article of kerseys only.

Manchester, the largest village in England, is situated near the conflux of the rivers Ilk and Irwell, about 165 miles from London. It is computed to contain 50,000 inhabitants, and has long been famous for the great manufactures it carries on of velvets, fustians, cottons, ticking, tapes, filleting, linen cloth, and various other articles, too tedious to enumerate, but well known by the name of Manchester goods. Some of the weavers there have looms that work twenty-four laces at a time, an invention for which they are indebted to the Dutch.

Liverpool, situated about 183 miles from London, is of late become a town of considerable trade, and is now, in many respects, the rival of Bristol; for as the merchants of the latter trade chiefly to the south and west parts of Ireland, those of Liverpool have all the trade on the east and north shores; as the former have that of South Wales, the latter have great part of that of North Wales. Bristol has the south-west counties of England, Liverpool has all the northern counties; besides its trade to Cheshire and Staffordshire, by the navigation of the Mersey, the Weaver, and the Dan. It is likewise concerned with Londonderry in the fishery on the north-coast of Ireland, and carries on a considerable trade to all foreign parts, except Turkey, Greenland, and the East-Indies. At the east end of the town there is a wet dock with iron flood-gates, made by act of parliament in the reign of queen Anne, which will contain near 100 sail of ships.

Birmingham, situated 109 miles from London, is a large, well-built, and populous town, equally famous with Manchester for its extensive trade and useful manufactures, which consist of iron and steel small wares, stuff-boxes, buckles, buttons, and other goods of the like kind, which are exported to all parts of Europe. This town has long enjoyed advantages others have never experienced; namely, the assistance of one of the best mechanics England ever produced. This remarkable genius furnished the workmen with 10

many curious and useful engines, that they have carried the iron and steel manufactures to a prodigious height of perfection; and at the same time are enabled to sell them so reasonably, that their productions are purchased in most parts of the world. The assiduity and industry of the inhabitants are also extraordinary: it is no uncommon thing to see a nail-maker on the downs with his portable forge, mounted on a wheel-barrow, tending a large flock of sheep. When these particulars are considered, we shall not be surpris'd that this town has, in a short period of time, carried its trade to such an astonishing height.

Exeter is one of the first cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent and the number of its inhabitants. It has six gates, and, including its suburbs, is above two miles in circumference. The trade of this city in ferges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerseys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to the city by means of sluices. There was a long and very ancient bridge over the river Ex, with houses on both sides, except in the middle, but is now about one half taken down, and an arm turned to join it to the stately new bridge built on a line with the fore-street. Exeter has sixteen parish churches, besides chapels, and five large meeting-houses within the walls.

The town of Plymouth is 216 miles from London, at the influx of the rivers Plym and Tamar into the channel, contains near as many inhabitants as Exeter, and is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to its port, which is one of the largest and safest in England. It consists of two harbours, capable of containing 1000 sail of ships; and is defended by several forts, particularly a strong citadel, of large extent. It is the general rendezvous of ships outward bound; and is very convenient for homeward bound ships to provide themselves with pilots up the channel.

About two miles up the mouth of the river Tamar, in an inlet of the sea, distinguished from Cat-Water by the name of Hamoaze, and commanded by the castle on St. Nicholas Island, is a royal dock for building and repairing ships. Here is a charity-school, four hospitals, and a work-house. Off the entrance of the bay lies the Edystone rock, which is covered at high water, but bare at ebb; where, in 1696, the ingenious Mr. Winstanley built a light-house, which, after standing many violent storms, was blown down by that dreadful one on the 27th of November 1703, when Mr. Winstanley, and all that were with him in it, perished: but another was built in its stead, by the corporation of Trinity-House, by duties on all vessels; but this was burnt down in 1755, the particulars of which disaster are as follow:

An Account of the Destruction of the EDYSTONE LIGHT-HOUSE.

ON the 22d of August 1755, the workmen returned on shore, having finished all the necessary repairs

repairs of that season; between which time and the 2d of December following, the attending boat had been off several times to the Edystone, and particularly on the first of December, and had landed some stores, when the light-keepers made no manner of complaint, and said all was right, except that one or two of the bricks in the kitchen fire place had been loosened by a late storm. What, in reality, might occasion the building first catching fire, it has never been possible fully to investigate; but from the most distinct account, it appears to have commenced in the very top of the lantern, that is, in the cupola.

From whatever cause it originated, it is certain, that when the light-keeper then upon the watch (about two o'clock in the morning of the 2d of December) went into the lantern as usual, to snuff the candles, he found the whole in a smoke, and upon opening the door of the lantern into the balcony, a flame instantly burst from the inside of the cupola; he immediately endeavoured to alarm his companions; but they being in bed and asleep, were not so ready in coming to his assistance as the occasion required.

As there were always some leathern buckets kept in the house, and a tub of water in the lantern, he attempted as speedily as possible to extinguish the fire in the cupola, by throwing water from the balcony with a leather bucket, upon the outside cover of lead: by this time, his comrades approaching, he encouraged them to fetch up water with the leather buckets from the sea; but as the height would be at a medium full seventy feet, this, added to the natural conflagration that must attend such a sudden and totally unexpected event, would occasion this business of bringing up water, at the best, to go on but slow; mean while the flames gathering strength every moment, and the poor man, though making use of every exertion, having the water to throw full four yards higher than his own head, to be of any service, we must by no means be surpris'd that, under all these difficulties, the fire, instead of being soon extinguish'd, would increase; and what put a sudden stop to further exertions, was the following most remarkable circumstance: as he was looking upwards with the utmost attention, to see the direction and success of the water thrown, a quantity of lead, dissolved by the heat of the flames, suddenly rushed like a torrent from the roof, and fell, not only on the man's head, face, and shoulders, but over his clothes, and a part of it made its way through his shirt collar, and very much burnt his neck and shoulders; from this moment he had a violent internal sensation, and imagin'd that a quantity of this lead had pass'd down his throat, and got into his body.

Under this violence of pain and anxiety, as every attempt had proved ineffectual, and the rage of the flames was increasing, it is not to be wonder'd that the terror and dismay of the three men increased in proportion, so that they all found themselves intimidated, and glad to make their retreat from that imme-

diat scene of horror, into one of the rooms below, where they would find themselves precluded from doing any thing; for had they thrown down ever so much water there, it could not have extinguish'd what was burning above them, nor indeed produce any other effect than running down into the room below, and from thence finally through the stair-case, back again into the sea: they seem'd, therefore, to have had no other resource, or means of retreat, than that of retiring downwards from room to room as the fire advanced over their heads.

How soon the fire was seen from the shore, is now very certain; but early in the morning it was perceived by some of the Cawford fishermen, and intelligence thereof given to Mr. Edwards, of Ramsgate, in that neighbourhood, a gentleman of some fortune, and more humanity. This prompt'd him immediately to send out a fishing-boat and men, to the relief of the people he suppos'd in distress upon the Edystone. The boat and men got thither about ten o'clock, after the fire had been burning full eight hours; and in this time the three light-keepers were not only driven from all the rooms, and the stair-case, but, to avoid the falling of the timber and red hot bolts, &c. upon them, they were found sitting in the hole or cave in the east side of the rock, under the iron ladder, almost in a state of stupefaction, it being then low water.

At this time the wind was eastward, and did not blow very fresh, but just hard enough to make a landing upon the rock at the proper landing-place, quite impracticable, or attended with the utmost hazard. It therefore became a difficulty how the men were to be taken off; for the ground swell upon the west side produced so great a surf upon the sloping surface, that no boat could attempt to land there. They, however, fell on the following expedient: having a small boat with them, they moored their principal boat by grappling to the westward, but as near the rock as they dur'd; and then launching their small boat, they row'd it towards the rock, veering out a rope, which they fastened to the large boat, till they got near enough to throw a coil of small rope on the rock; which having been laid hold of by the men, they one by one fastened it round their waists, and jumping into the sea, they were towed into the small boat, and thence deliver'd into the large one; and as they found it was out of their power to do any further service, the boat hasten'd to Plymouth to get the men reliev'd. No sooner, however, were they set on shore, than one of them made off, and has never since been heard of, which, on the first blush, would induce one to suppose that there was something culpable in this man; and if it had been a house on the shore, one would have been tempted to suspect he had been guilty of some foul play: but the circumstance of its being a light-house, situated so as to afford no retreat in the power of its inhabitants, seems to preclude the possibility of its being done wilfully; as he must know he must perish,

or be in extremity the rest.

Such was the whole of which could be made foundation: not but a storm or hurricane out the fire of the building years from its total destruction the builders never against it.

It remains only man, who receiv'd melted lead.

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to the points of the compass, and cut through rocks. These lead to four streets which meet in the centre of the town. The walls and cellars are made in the rock. It is supplied with water by pipes from springs half a mile off, and has a noble stone bridge of 12 arches over the Avon. Here is a castle, the principal ornament of the place, strong both by art and nature: the rock on which it stands is 40 feet from the river, but on the north side it is even with the town. From its terrace, which is above 50 feet perpendicular above the Avon, there is a prospect of the river, and a beautiful country beyond it. The apartments are well contrived, and many of them adorned with original pictures by Van Dyke, not inferior to some in the royal palaces. It was built originally by William the Conqueror. Near the town is Guy's Cliff, a high perpendicular rock, where Guy, Earl of Warwick, is said to have lived a hermit after his defeating the Danish giant Colbrand. His sword and other accoutrements are still shewn in the castle.

The city of Salisbury is large, neat, and well-built; it is situated in a valley, and watered by the river Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are generally spacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1258, at the expence of above 26,000*l.* is, for a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful spire of free-stone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the tallest in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference, and yet the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak in appearance for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is esteemed one of the greatest curiosities in the whole country.

Bedford, a county town, is a clean, well-built, populous place. Here are five churches, of which the chief, and indeed the principal ornament of the town, was founded before the Norman conquest for secular canons. The buildings of this town are pretty good, and the streets broad. The north and south parts are joined by a stone bridge over the Ouse. A famous castle here was demolished in the reign of Henry VIII. and the site is now a bowling-green, reckoned one of the finest in England.

The city of Oxford stands on the conflux of the Charwell and Isis; the name seems to be derived from a Saxon word, which signifies a ford for the passage of oxen. It enjoys a sweet air, in a plentiful country, on a fine plain, and has every way a delightful prospect. The private buildings are neat, the public ones sumptuous, and the river navigable for barges.

Cambridge is so called from its situation on the banks of the Cam, which forms several islands on the

west side, and divides the town into two parts, which are joined by a large stone bridge. It is very ancient, being well known in the time of the Romans by the name of Camboritum. William the Conqueror built a castle here, of which the gatehouse is still standing, and used for the county gaol. The town is divided into 10 wards, has 14 parish churches, contains upwards of 1200 houses, for the most part irregularly built, and about 6000 inhabitants.

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

Nottingham, reckoned one of the neatest places in England, has as good a trade as most inland towns. It stands pleasantly on the ascent of a rock overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the south, and has been made navigable. It has three churches, a grand town-house built on piazzas, a fine spacious market-place with two crosses in it, and a gaol for the town and county; a manufactory for weaving frame stockings, and likewise for glass and earthen-ware.

Colchester, the chief town in the county of Essex, is a large populous place, on the river Colne, which passes through it, and is made navigable for small craft up to the Hithe, a long street, which may be called the Wapping of Colchester, where there is a convenient key; and at Vennoe, within three miles of it, is a good custom-house. This, and all the towns round it, are noted for making of baize, of which great quantities are exported. For the support of this trade, there is a corporation called Governours of the Dutch Bays-Hall; this town is also noted for excellent oylers. It is reckoned about three miles in circumference, has ten parish churches, and five meeting-houses. It had anciently a wall and a strong castle, build by Edward, son to king Alfred, about the year 912; but now few marks remain of either. It is supposed to have been anciently a Roman colony, many ruins, and some buildings of Roman brick, still remaining. The Queen's-Head in the market-place, is thought to be a Roman structure. St. John's-Abbey was erected by Eudo, steward to William Rufus, about the year 1097.

The royal dock-yards, where the men of war are built, repaired, and laid up, are astonishing. They are six in number, viz. Deptford, Woolwich, Sheerness, Chatham, Portsmouth, and Plymouth. The private structures for the officers are all of them well built, and many of them elegant: but the public buildings

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or rather streets of warehouses and storehouses, for lay-
ing up the naval stores, are the most capacious, and
excel in number those of any other nation in the
world. The rope-walks for making cables and cord-
age, and the forges for anchors and other iron-work,
bear a proper proportion to the rest. The wet-docks,
canals, and ditches for keeping masts and yards of the
largest size, where they lie afloat in the water, to pre-
serve them, under the mast-houses; the boat-yards, an-
chor-yards, founderies, &c. are not easily described.
The stores themselves exceed all imagination; the sails,
the rigging, the cannon, bullets, bombs, small arms,
swords, cutlasses, half-pikes, and all the other furni-
ture of the ships out of commission, are laid up in these
cansals, each species in its respective buildings and
storehouses, and in those particular parts appropriated
to each ship; where they are deposited in such order,
that all, or any part, may be taken out on the most
emergent occasion, without the least confusion. Be-
sides these, there are prodigious warehouses for laying
up different species of furniture and stores for ships in
general, for the fitting out ships as soon as they are
built, or for supplying and repairing others, as occa-
sion may require. For this purpose, there are separate
and respective magazines of pitch, tar, hemp, flax,
tallow, or oakum, rosin, oil, tallow, sail-cloth, canvas,
cables, standing and running rigging ready fitted, and
carguage of all kinds not fitted; every species of ship-
chandlery necessaries, such as blocks, tackles, runners,
&c. with the boatswains, gunners, and carpenters
stores, anchors of all sizes, grappels, chains, bolts, and
spikes, wrought and unwrought iron, boats, spare masts
and yards, vast quantities of lead, nails, and other ne-
cessaries, too numerous to particularize here. All the
building-yards, docks, &c. for the use of the royal
navy, resemble well-regulated cities; and though the
business performed in them seems to be often in the
utmost hurry, yet such is the order constantly observed,
that there is not the least confusion among the work-
men.

The English commerce has been improving for a
long series of ages; but since the accession of queen
Elizabeth, it has made the most rapid strides towards
perfection. It was in that reign we began to settle
colonies in America, and watch the improvements of
the European nations with great attention. The Span-
iards and Portuguese were originally in possession of
the trade of both the Indies; but the oppressions of the
former induced the Dutch to throw off the yoke under
which they had long groaned, and, in conjunction
with the English, formed a plan of commerce superior
to any thing known before, and which has hitherto
been prosecuted with amazing success by both nations.

The exports of England consist in the different ar-
ticles of corn, cattle, butter, cheese, pork, beef, bis-
cuit, copper manufactured and unmanufactured, iron,
lead, tin, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, hops,

flax, saffron, hats, shoes, herrings, pilchards, salmon,
cod, oysters, liquorice, watches, ribbons, toys, wool,
broad-cloths, bays, kerseys, rushes, serge, fays, serizes,
tuffs, flannels, rugs, caps and stockings, cannons,
mortars, bombs, guns, pistols, swords, locks, spades,
knives, scissors, razors, and other edge-tools, coppers,
kettles, saucepans, pewter and other household uten-
sils of brass and iron. There is no maritime part of
the habitable globe, to which England has not extended
her commerce, and where her ships are not well known.
Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Hamburgh, Bre-
men, both sides of the Baltic, all the northern parts
of Germany, Holland, Flanders, Portugal, Spain, Sic-
ily, Italy, the Levant, the coast of Africa, the East
and West-Indies, and a vast variety of other places,
are served with the commodities of England; though
with some of those nations the balance of trade is not
in our favour.

The trade to the East-Indies is carried on by a set of
individuals, termed the East-India-Company. Their
exports to that part of the world consist in broad
cloths, and other articles of the woollen manufacture,
all sorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver.
Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw silk,
drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelaine or china-ware,
salt-petre for home consumption, wrought silks, mus-
lins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufac-
tures of India, many of which they export again to
other countries, the consumption of them being pro-
hibited in England. The East-India-Company is one
of the richest and most flourishing in Europe.

We shall now proceed to give the reader a concise
view of the English trade to other countries, two-
thirds of which are supposed to be carried on in the
port of London.

England exports to Turkey, in her own bottoms,
woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron
utensils, clocks, watches, verdigris, spices, cochineal,
and logwood. She imports from thence raw silks, car-
pets, skins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs,
coffee, and some other articles. The balance of this
trade was formerly about 500,000*l.* annually in favour
of England; it was afterwards diminished through the
practices of the French, and is now at a very low ebb
with both nations.

To Italy, England exports various kinds of woollen
goods, poultry, leather, lead, tin, fish, and East-India
goods; and imports from thence raw and thrown silk,
wines, oil, soap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomgra-
nates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other ar-
ticles of luxury; the balance of this trade is annually
about 200,000*l.* in favour of England.

The trade between England and Spain was formerly
much more considerable than it is at present, for they
have of late years set up woollen manufactures at home,
and are supplied from France with many necessaries
which they used to have from us.

The English trade to Portugal was once extremely
beneficial.

beneficial, but of late her ministry have changed their system, and have partly fallen in with the views of the house of Bourbon. Formerly England sent to that country almost the same kind of merchandize as to Spain, and they received in return vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dyeing drugs, and gold coin; but they have of late years established courts which are inconsistent with the treaties between Portugal and England, and defraud the English merchants of great part of their capitals, which they find it impossible to recover. This is the treatment the English meet with from their once favourite ally, whose fleets and armies have repeatedly saved her from destruction.

Our open commerce with France is discouraged by very high duties, and many articles from that country are entirely prohibited; notwithstanding which, England sends to that rival country much tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and sometimes corn, and always much money at the long-run; and brings home, in a smuggling way, a much greater value in wines, brandies, brocades, linens, cambrics, lace, velvets, and many other prohibited fopperies, always very considerably to England's disadvantage.

To Flanders, England sends serges, flannels, tin, lead, sugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linens, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loses annually, upon the balance, 250,000l. sterling.

England sends to Germany cloths and stuffs, tin, pewter, sugars, tobacco, and East-India merchandize, and brings thence vast quantities of linen, thread, goat-skins, tinned plates, timbers for all uses, wines, and many other articles. Before the American war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000l. annually to the prejudice of England; but that sum is now greatly reduced, as most of the German princes find it their interest to clothe their armies in English manufactures.

The trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, we have observed, was formerly against England; but the balance was since much diminished by the great improvements of the American colonies, in raising hemp, flax, making pot-ash, iron works, and tallow, all which used to be furnished to her by the Northern powers.

The balance of trade with Poland may be estimated much in our favour. The goods exported thither by the way of Dantzic are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are sent there, for which there is at present no demand in other countries. Poland consumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hard-ware, lead, tin, salt, sea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country.

England sends to Holland an immense quantity of many sorts of merchandize, such as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, East-India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, rice, and other American pro-

ductions; and imports from thence fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, malder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things, the English are supposed to have the balance much in their favour by this trade.

The trade to the coast of Guinea is at present open to all British subjects without restriction. England sends thither sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen iron, pewter, brass, and hard-ware manufactures; lead shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glass manufactures. The returns are in gold-dust, gum-red wood, Guinea grains, ivory, dyeing and other drugs; and, besides drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately supplied the American colonies with negro slaves, to the amount of above 100,000 annually.

England sends to Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, much foreign silver coin and bullion, sundry woollen goods, lead, iron, and brass, and from those remote regions brings home muslins and cottons of many various kinds, calicoes, raw and wrought silk, chintz, teas, porcelain, gold-dust, coffee, saltpetre, and many sorts of drugs. A great quantity of those various merchandizes are re-exported to foreign European nations: by which means all the silver bullion carried out by England in this trade is very amply compensated.

It having been judged expedient, during the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men in consequence of this, the East-India, South-Sea, Hudson's-Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African Companies were formed and established; but though the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa is now laid open, yet the merchant who proposes to trade thither must become a member of the respective Company, be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a sum on admission, for the purposes of supporting castles, forts, and defraying other incidental expences.

By the general account of England's foreign balance the exports have been computed at seven millions sterling, and the imports at five; of which above one million is re-exported; so that if this calculation be true, England gains annually three millions sterling by trade; but this is a point upon which the most experienced merchants and ablest calculators differ. It is reckoned, however, that our foreign trade does not amount to one-sixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural produce and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and silver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa; but great part of this gold and silver we again export to Holland and the East-Indies.

The following comparative view of shipping will give the reader an idea of the superiority of the English trade to that of all other countries, except Holland. If, then we divide Europe into twenty parts, Great Britain, &c. is computed to have six; the United

Provinces, six; the trading cities, one; Italy, and the rest are employed in commerce of the kingdom, Scotland, many

The prodigious power, unless commodities were every county of quantities of our home

Phoenicians, Romans knew have ever since times of that great Devonshire

in several manufacture is down, but principally the following to clothing trade:

Wool, Buxton, Shropshire, in Somersetshire, Chippenham, Wiltshire, Warminster, Shaftesbury, Dorsetshire, in Dorsetshire, Minchinshire. These

considerable distance with a great number of houses, chiefly in this noble manor, employed here is very ingenious trade

2,350,000 acres. This computation is an ancient inhabitant truth, the whole of the infinite and plains of Wiltshire indeed the cloths their residence; trade was in it want of wool for as the number of has been greatly acres of the cloths the same time clothiers are of the kingdom ties of Northan

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Provinces, six; Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, two;
the trading cities of Germany and the Austrian Nether-
lands, one; France, two; Spain and Portugal, two;
Italy, and the rest of Europe, one. Above 800 large
vessels are employed in the coal trade only; and those
employed in coasting, or carrying goods from one part
of the kingdom to another, are computed at two
thousand, many of which are eighty or ninety tons
burthen.

The prodigious trade of England could not be sup-
ported, unless the sources which supply the necessary
commodities were equally great and inexhaustible.
Manufactures of various kinds are carried on in almost
every county of England. Cornwall supplies amazing
quantities of tin and copper, not only for the supply
of our home manufactures, but for exportation. The
Phoenicians traded thither for tin long before the
Romans knew any thing of Britain; and the mines
have ever since continued to produce very large quan-
tities of that metal, which is found only in Cornwall
and Devonshire; but copper and lead are found plen-
tifully in several counties of England. The woollen
manufacture is carried on in various parts of the king-
dom, but principally in the western counties, where
the following towns are almost wholly employed in the
clothing trade: viz. Frome, Pentford, Philip's-Nor-
th, Bidton, Shepton-Mallet, Castle-Carey, and Wim-
merton, in Somersetshire; Malmesbury, Castlecomb,
Chippenham, Caln, Devizes, Bradford, Trowbridge,
Wellsbury, Warminster, and Mere, in Wiltshire; Gil-
ingham, Shaftsbury, Beminstor, Bere, Sturminster,
Stoneborne, in Dorsetshire; Cirencester, Tetbury, Marsh-
field, Minching-Hampton, and Fairford, in Gloucester-
shire. These towns, as they in general stand at con-
siderable distances from one another, are interspersed
with a great number of villages, hamlets, and scattered
houses, chiefly inhabited by poor, but industrious people,
who perform the greater part of the spinning work of
this noble manufacture. The number of hands em-
ployed here is very great; the circuit where this pro-
digious trade is established, contains 788 parishes,
2,330,000 acres of land; and 374,000 inhabitants.
This computation is founded on the authority of the
ancient inhabitants, and is thought to fall short of the
truth, the whole country being extremely populous.

The infinite number of sheep fed upon the downs
and plains of Wilts, Dorset, and Hants, seem to have
induced the clothiers to choose the above district for
their residence; where, it was imagined, when this
trade was in its infancy, there could never be any
want of wool for carrying on their manufactures. But
as the number of sheep fed on these downs and plains
has been greatly lessened by converting many thousand
acres of the carpet ground into arable land; and at
the same time the manufacture greatly extended, the
clothiers are obliged to have recourse to other parts
of the kingdom for a supply, particularly to the coun-
ties of Northampton, Leicester, and Lincoln; and

several hundred packs are purchased weekly to supply
this prodigious consumption. They have also very
large quantities of wool from Kent, and often from
Ireland.

But though the above district is the principal, it is
not the only place where the woollen manufacture is
established; prodigious quantities of cloth, generally
of the coarser kind, being made in Yorkshire, Essex,
and other counties. Very large manufactures of ker-
seys and shalloons are established at Halifax in York-
shire; 100,000 pieces of the latter are said to be
worked up annually in that town only; and that the
manufacture of kerseys is much larger. Some idea
may be formed of the value of these manufactures
established at Halifax, and the adjacent towns, by
the cloth-market at Leeds, where between twenty and
thirty thousand pounds worth of kerseys, shalloons;
and other species of the woollen manufacture, are sold
every market, which is held twice a week. Pro-
digious quantities of bays and says are made at Col-
chester and the neighbouring villages. About twenty
years ago the returns of this manufacture amounted to
near thirty-thousand pounds a week; but it is now
considerably declined, though still of very great im-
portance.

A worsted manufactory was established at Norwich
in the reign of Edward III. and afterwards carried to
great perfection by the Flemings, who fled from the
duke of Alva's bloody persecution, and settled here in
the reign of queen Elizabeth. These foreigners in-
structed the natives in the art of weaving a great va-
riety of worsted-stuffs, as bays, says, serges, shalloons,
&c. in which they carry on a vast trade; and have
since established large manufactures of druggets, and
crapes, in which they return at least 100,000*l.* a year.
Here is also a stocking manufacture said to amount to
60,000*l.* a year.

Manchester is celebrated for its manufactures, par-
ticularly those of suttan, check, hats, and worsted
small wares. The quality of goods made here may be
imagined from the number of persons employed, who
are supposed to amount to above 80,000. A large
manufacture of serges is established at Exeter, and its
neighbourhood. It is now in a very flourishing con-
dition, and serges to near 100,000*l.* value, have been
weekly sold in the serge-market at Exeter.

The hard-wares for which England has been so long
famous, are made chiefly at Sheffield and Birmingham;
the former now carries on a large manufacture of plated
work; and the latter has improved several branches
of its trade.

The silk manufacture is principally carried on at
London and Canterbury, where it was originally estab-
lished. Spitalfields has been long famous for its
silk-weavers; and it is supposed that there are in that
small district near 10,000 inhabitants, chiefly em-
ployed in manufactures of various kinds. Prodigious
manufactures indeed of all kinds, that of wool ex-
cepted,

cepted, are carried on in London, particularly those of gold, silver, clocks and watches; the two former are equal at least to any in Europe, and the two latter far superior, when the commodities are executed by able workmen. Nottingham is celebrated for its stocking manufacture, which is not however confined to that place; Derby, and several towns in Gloucestershire, as well as Norwich, already mentioned, carry on an amazing trade in the same article. Coventry, Leicester, and many other large trading towns might be mentioned, but what has been observed may be sufficient to convey some idea of the manner how the vast foreign trade of England is supplied with goods for exportation. Several manufactures for making porcelain have been established in England, especially in the counties of Worcester and Derby, where the art is already carried to a very great degree of perfection. At Burslem, in Staffordshire, is a noble pottery in a very flourishing condition, near 10,000 hands being constantly employed. About twelve years since Mr. Wedgwood, the principal manufacturer, introduced what is called the cream-coloured ware, and since that time the increase has been very rapid. Large quantities are annually exported to Germany, Ireland, Holland, Russia, Spain, Portugal, the East-Indies, and some of the finest to France; but the largest orders come from North-America.

The locksmiths of Wolverhampton are reckoned the most ingenious in England; spurs, bridle-bits, stirrups, buckles, &c. are also made there in great quantities. The carpet manufactures at London, Exeter, Wilton, and Kidderminster, greatly exceed those of Turkey in the brilliancy of their colours; they are also very durable. Paper is likewise made in almost every part of the kingdom; this is also the case with hats, there being few towns in England without a manufacture of that kind. The parliament have, of late, given encouragement for reviving the beneficial manufacture of salt-petre.

The great and general utility of inland navigation has been long experienced in foreign countries. Holland by its many canals has the advantage of every other nation in Europe in respect to trade; and it is apprehended most of the inland parts of this kingdom are capable of enjoying equal, if not superior advantages. The navigation of several of the rivers in England were improved many years since; but there was no navigable canal in the kingdom, till the duke of Bridgewater, in the year 1739, began a noble work of that kind, from Wortley, an estate of his own, abounding in coal-mines, to Manchester, for the more easy conveying his coals to so considerable a market. The plan has been since greatly extended. And it is expected that the internal state of England will in a few years experience a considerable improvement, from the inland navigations which have been opened in many parts of it.

Having thus taken a view of the trade, commerce,

and manufactures of England, it remains that we add something with regard to the stocks. Though the word stock originally signified no more than a particular sum of money contributed to the establishing a fund for enabling a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that commerce, and received a share of the profits in proportion to the money advanced; yet the term has been further extended, though improperly, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving an annual interest till the sum is repaid, and consequently makes a part of the national debt; because most of the money advanced to the government was done by the trading companies.

When the national funds were at first established the money borrowed was transferrable at any time either in whole or in part, from one person to another. This necessary clause of transferring stock, has given rise to that pernicious practice of stock-jobbing, which is one of the species of gaming so destructive to this country. The method is this: The persons concerned in this practice, make contracts to buy or sell for some settled price, at a certain distant time, a certain quantity of some particular stock. The contract being made, every art is made use of either to raise or lower such stock, by rumours and fictitious stories, that people may be induced to sell out in a hurry, and consequently cheap, if they are to deliver stock; or become unwilling to sell, and thence raise the price, if they are to receive stock. For the value of stock, as well as that of all other merchandize, will be always proportional to the number of buyers and sellers; if there are more of the former than the latter, a person who is indifferent about selling will not part with his property without a considerable profit to himself: on the contrary, if the sellers exceed the buyers, the value of stock will naturally fall in proportion to the impatience of those who are desirous of selling.

These contracts are generally made by persons who were never possessed of any real stock; so that when the time of delivery arrives, they only pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price mentioned in the contract, and that of the price of stock when the contract is fulfilled. The buyer is called the Bull, and the seller the Bear, in the polite language of Exchange-Alley. It will not be surprising that even false rumours should produce considerable effects in the price of stocks, when it is remembered that every thing which affects the hopes, the fears, and passions of the proprietors, so far as they regard the situation of public concerns, must raise or lower their current value. Public credit depends in a great measure on the supposed stability of the establishments of government: every incident, therefore, that proves unfavourable to the government, will have more or less effect on the public credit, which is the foundation of the stocks, and the security of the proprietors.

when any thing will endeavour to run the risk at a lower price than the commodity. The very reverse happens in favor of the stock.

The word stock also signifies some particular sum of money which can be put to use already for a person to another value of one stock the produce per annum. But it is a stock of a trade of a thousand pounds for so much more of the same sum, not reckoned on at the same time much per annum. It is the profits of their trade.

The first idea in queen Elizabeth's great alterations originally only 800,000. 5s. but dividend to make profits to the cap so that each be 700,000. 10s. profits of the whole stock. The Revolution, the authority of between that and the year 1702,

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when any thing of that kind happens, timorous people will endeavour to make sure of their own private fortunes, by turning their stock into specie; and, rather than run the risk of losing the whole, they will sell it at a lower price; for when the demand is small, and the commodity abounds, the market falls of course. The very reverse is the consequence when any incident happens in favour of the government.

The word stock is not confined to the national debt, it also signifies the capital of a company, raised for some particular purpose, and limited by parliament to some certain sum. When this fund is completed, no stock can be purchased from the company; but the shares already purchased may be transferred from one person to another. Hence we see the reason why the value of one stock is greater than that of another, because the produce per cent. is greater in some than in the others. But it must be observed, that the share in the stock of a trading company that produces any sum, a thousand pounds for instance, per annum, will not sell for so much money as a government annuity producing the same sum, because the security of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government; and, at the same time, the continuance of their paying so much per annum is more precarious, as their dividends are, or ought to be, always proportional to the profits of their trade.

The first idea of the East-India-Company was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has since undergone great alterations. Its shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50l. sterling; and its capital only 200,000l. 5s. but the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the shares were doubled, so that each became of 100l. value, and the capital 400,000l. 10s. to which capital, if 963,619l. 10s. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock will appear to be, 1,703,402l. After the Revolution, a new company was erected, under the authority of parliament, and, after violent struggles between that and the old, they were both united, in the year 1702, by an indenture tripartite.

In the year 1708, the yearly fund of eight per cent, for two millions was reduced to five per cent, by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without any additional interest; for which consideration, the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the East-Indies." A further sum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the interest of their capital, which then amounted to 2,190,000l. was reduced to three per cent; and called the India three per cent. annuities; the proprietors of which, instead of a regular annuity, have a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade: India bonds (erroneously denominated stock) are to be ac-

cepted, they being made payable at six months notice, either by the company or the possessor.

There are twenty-four directors of this company; their meetings are at least once a week; and out of their body are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; 2000l. is the qualification for a director. Formerly 500l. but now 1000l. entitles such a proprietor of stock, whether man or woman, native or foreigner, to be a manager, and gives a vote in the general council.

The company's amazing territorial acquisitions, and other causes, induced the legislature, to lay a restriction on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament in India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and an half, divided the sum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. the capital stock had also been increased 180,000l. In 1773, an act passed, for "establishing certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the East-India-Company, as well in India as in Europe," by which considerable alterations were made respecting qualifications for voting, the courts in India, the governors, judges salaries, &c. This was deemed an extraordinary act, adding an immense power and influence to the crown, without benefiting the company.

In November 1783, Mr. Fox, then Secretary of State, introduced a bill, the intention of which was, to vest the whole powers of the India-Company in seven Directors, by him named, who were to hold their offices four years, removable, like the twelve judges, by an address of either House of Parliament, and not by any other power; and for managing the commercial affairs of the Company, nine gentlemen, moved for and adopted in the same manner, were to assist them, subject to their control, and removable by them. The effect of this was, to vest in these seven Directors the whole influence of the offices of every kind in India, and at home, belonging to the Company; and many other means of influence. This bill passed the Commons; but as the Lords conceived it placed too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and operated against the necessary power of the crown, they therefore threw it out by a majority of nineteen.

The parliament and administration of 1784 seemed disposed to be friendly to the company, whose interests had been greatly injured by their servants both at home and abroad. The nabobs, rajahs, and natives of India have been by turns harassed and despoiled under their management, and many parts of that fine country depopulated. The Company's governors abroad have guards of soldiers, and live in all the state of sovereign princes. These irregularities paved the way for a new bill, which passed at the close of the session 1784, by

which were intended three things: first, The establishing a power of control in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the rest of the empire: secondly, The regulating the conduct of the Company's servants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there: and, thirdly, The providing for the punishment of those persons who shall, nevertheless, continue in the practice of crimes which have brought disgrace upon the country. This famous bill has a plausible aspect, and various opinions have been formed concerning it: some contend that the principle and plan thereof are fair, equitable, and honourable; but the following protest, signed, PORTLAND, CARLISLE, DEVONSHIRE, CHOLMONDELEY, NORTHINGTON, was entered against it in the House of Lords: "Because we think the principle of the bill false; unjust, and unconstitutional: false, inasmuch as it provides no effectual remedy for the evils it affects to cure; unjust, as it indiscriminately compels all persons returning from India to furnish the means of accusation and persecution against themselves; and unconstitutional, because it establishes a new criminal court of judicature, in which the admission of incompetent evidence is expressly directed, and the subject is unnecessarily deprived of his most inestimable birthright, a trial by jury." This bill, like former ones, may be deposited among the archives of the councils of the governments in the East-Indies, to lie in oblivion, or be treated with contempt. Rapacity and violence, it is feared, will still predominate; the most upright may be overpowered by violence; or be sent home loaded with irons, to plead their cause for pretended crimes charged against them by the emissaries of powerful delinquents, whose peculations and rapacity they endeavoured in vain to repress.

The East-India-Company, finding a scarcity of small money in their settlements, have coined under the inspection of a Committee of Directors, a milled copper coin, with their arms stamped on it, which, though nearly the size of a farthing, is only a sixth part of that value.

AS the military affairs of the East-India-Company have of late become peculiarly interesting, we presume it will be deemed acceptable to our readers; and the public at large, if, with a view to render this part of our work more complete, we introduce here a compendious account of the late memorable war, in that quarter, with Tippoo Sultan (or Tippoo Saib), and the advantageous termination of it to the Company, by the bravery of the English forces. In order to this (without entering into the grounds, object, or expediency of this Indian war, respecting which the sentiments of the members in the British House of Commons were greatly divided) we shall give a particular detail of the most remarkable circumstances relating to it, as

they respect its actual commencement, progress, and period.

We may date the commencement of hostilities in this war from the engagement between the troops of the Rajah of Travancore, who were stationed in Cranganore, and for the defence of that fortress, with those of Tippoo Sultan on the 1st of May 1790. This event, which was expected by our government, and possibly concerted with them, was the signal for the most vigorous preparation for war on the part of the British. The grand Carnatic army assembled immediately in the southern provinces. The general plan of the campaign was to reduce the Coimbatore country and all the adjacent territory which lay below the Ghauts, or narrow passes between the mountains, and to advance by the Gijjelhety pass to the siege of Seringapatam, the metropolis of Mysore.

While such were to be the operations of the grand army under general Meadows, the Bombay army under general Abercrombie was to undertake the reduction of the country lying to the west of the Ghauts, and afterwards to co-operate with the main army, as circumstances might direct. In the mean time the safety of the Carnatic was secured by a force under colonel Kelly, and styled, from its position, the centre army, being stationed in the line between Madras and the passes leading to Mysore. The Poonah Maharrats and the Nizam were respectively to penetrate the enemy's territory in the quarter bordering upon theirs; and Seringapatam was established as the common centre, where the whole force was to appear in a collective body.

The movements were executed with such dispatch that general Meadows joined the grand army at Trichinopoly on the 24th of May, and on the 26th this formidable body of finely appointed troops, amounting to 14,000 effective men, marched towards the Coimbatore country. The march, however, of Indian armies cannot be very rapid, as their baggage and provisions are mostly transported upon bullocks. It was therefore the 15th of June before general Meadows entered Tippoo's country; and the first place that surrendered to the British arms was the fort of Carroor, about forty-five miles from Trichinopoly, which was immediately evacuated on the appearance of the British general.

Extraordinary as it may appear, yet Tippoo took scarcely any measures to secure the country below the Ghauts, nor even to remove or destroy the grain in a territory which it was evidently not his intention to defend. Notwithstanding this circumstance, however, so inadequate is such a country to the supply of a considerable force as that of the British, that it was the 3d of July before the army was enabled to move from Carroor, after collecting all the supplies which the country afforded, and after putting the fort on the most tenable footing possible.

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 nate enough to find a very seasonable and plentiful
 supply of grain. Here they learned that Tippoo had
 ascended the Ghauts, leaving at the foot of them,
 between Gajelhetty and Damicotta, a strong de-
 tachment of horse. On the 22d of July the army
 entered Coimbatore, which was also evacuated on
 their approach, though it contained a considerable
 quantity of grain, and some military stores. The
 smaller forts in the neighbourhood of Coimbatore
 were reduced by different detachments in a short time.
 An enterprize of more importance was also attempted
 during the halt of the army of Coimbatore. Soon
 after their arrival at that capital, colonel Floyd, with
 the cavalry, was dispatched towards Damicotta, about
 fifty miles to the north, in the hope of surprizing
 the detachment of cavalry, which, we have just in-
 timated, was stationed by Tippoo below the Ghauts;
 the colonel however only succeeded in capturing about
 fifty horse.

About the latter end of August, colonel Floyd was
 again sent to reduce Sattimungalum and Damicotta.
 The former was garrisoned by a battalion, and, having
 been intended as a depot, considerable quantities of
 provisions were collected there: it, however, surren-
 dered to colonel Floyd without the smallest resistance.
 Being soon after joined by a detachment under colonel
 Oulham, the whole body was computed to be nearly
 equal in strength to one wing of the grand army, but
 without its proportion of arillery. The station which
 this small army occupied after the capture of Satti-
 mungalum, was to the south of the Bowanny river,
 opposite that fortrefs. On the 12th of September,
 Tippoo Sultan descended the Gajelhetty Pass, and on
 the following day commenced a smart cannonade on
 colonel Floyd's detachment. During the night there-
 fore the Colonel thought it necessary to retreat to-
 wards Coimbatore, but during the whole of the suc-
 ceeding day, the 14th, found himself closely pressed
 by the enemy. The severest part of the conflict was
 in the evening near Showoor, when the Mysorean
 force was repulsed with equal valour and judgment on
 the part of the British.

General Meadows having received very early intel-
 ligence of Tippoo's motions, that commander lost no
 time in marching to the relief of colonel Floyd. On
 the 14th at night the general reached Vallady, while
 colonel Floyd was at Showoor about twenty miles to
 the eastward. By some unaccountable mistake, how-
 ever, the army continued to march to the northward,
 and did not join colonel Floyd till the 16th. The loss
 on this occasion amounted to 150 killed and near 300
 wounded, and six guns were left behind, on account
 of the loss of the draft cattle. After halting the whole
 of the 17th, in order to refresh colonel Floyd's detach-
 ment, general Meadows marched to the eastward to
 offer Tippoo battle; but in the mean time the Sultan
 had retreated to Sattimungalum, and the British gene-

ral, from want of provisions, was under a necessity of
 returning to Coimbatore.

The month was nearly ended before general Meadows
 was able to march again in quest of the enemy. The
 wary Indian, however, who never fights but at an
 advantage, was too cautious to be engaged by the
 manœuvres of the general. When the army arrived
 at any post in the evening, the usual report was, that
 Tippoo had quitted it early in the morning; and a
 general ignorance of his motions and designs seems
 indeed, for some time, to have pervaded the camp;
 and it was the 12th of October before any authentic
 intelligence could be gained. It then appeared that
 his object had been to attack Daraporum, which sur-
 rendered to his arms, and the British garrison fired
 in camp on the 17th, under an escort of Tippoo's
 troops, agreeably to the terms of capitulation. The
 garrison spoke in high terms of the honourable treat-
 ment which they had experienced from this prince,
 who has been usually characterized as a cruel and
 impleacable tyrant.

On the 20th Tippoo departed from Daraporum;
 and, probably desirous of placing the Bowanny river,
 which at this season is rough and swelling, between
 his army and the British, proceeded to Sattimungalum.
 He might also have a further view in taking this
 position, viz. to prevent the junction of general
 Meadows with the centre army. The British general
 left Coimbatore on the same day that Tippoo quitted
 Daraporum, but nothing worth recording occurred till
 the 7th of November, when colonel Floyd, who had
 been sent to reconnoitre, brought the intelligence that
 Tippoo had crossed the Cavery to the north-east, in
 the beginning of the month, and was apparently pro-
 ceeding to stop the progress of the centre army, now
 commanded by colonel Maxwell, the former com-
 mander, colonel Kelly, being dead.

After a fatiguing and dangerous march, and after
 taking possession of several forts in the Barramaul,
 colonel Maxwell, on the 3d of November, took a
 strong position at Caveripatam, where probably his
 intelligence led him to wait the approach of Tippoo,
 rather than risk his army in a less favourable position
 by daring to advance.

It afterwards appeared that the conjectures which
 had been formed with respect to the designs of the
 enemy, were well founded. On the 12th, 13th, and
 14th, Tippoo presented himself before colonel Max-
 well in line of battle; but finding the British com-
 mander too well prepared and too strongly posted, and
 conscious that his rear would certainly be pressed by
 the near approach of general Meadows, he retired in
 time to secure himself a favourable position for a timely
 retreat.

After several marches of the grand army in pursuit
 of the enemy;—on the 17th of November the two
 armies (the grand and the centre army) effected a
 junction at Poolampetty; and on the following evening,

as they were pursuing their route to the southward, they came unexpectedly in sight of the rear of the Mysorean army, the advance of which was probably at that moment entering the pass of Tapoor. The rear consisted of the prime of Tipppo's cavalry, drawn up in compact bodies, to favour the retreat of the main body. They were cannonaded and pursued to the foot of the pass, and apparently suffered some loss.

The united armies under general Meadows directed after this their course backwards by the straightest road to Trichinopoly, in order to refresh themselves, and obtain a supply; but the weather proved so unfavourable, that they did not arrive in its neighbourhood till the 8th of December. Here they learnt that Tipppo had arrived at Munfurput, on the banks of the Colaronee, opposite Trichinopoly, on the 28th of November, where he continued encamped till December 6th, but without making any attack upon Trichinopoly, deterred, most probably, by the swollen state of the river. And while such were the movements of general Meadows, a detachment from the Bombay army, under lieutenant-colonel Hartley, rendered effectual assistance to the rajah of Travancore, and on the 5th of December general Abercrombie, with the remainder of the forces from Bombay, arrived at Tellicherry, while colonel Hartley was ordered to Paniani, to keep the communication open between the two armies.

General Abercrombie's first object was the reduction of Cannanore, upon which he marched the 14th of December, and on the 17th the town and garrison surrendered, and the troops engaged not to serve against the British during the war. Colonel Hartley nearly about the same time obtained possession of Perokabad, the capital of the Malabar coast, and the enemy retreated to the Ghauts. These successes were followed, on the 27th, by the surrender of the posts of Barragurry and Cootahpoore, so that the whole district along the coast from Billipatam river to Cape Comorin was now in possession of the British and their allies.

On the 5th of January 1791, the army under general Meadows left Trichinopoly, and proceeded to the right towards Madras, where earl Cornwallis had arrived on the 13th of December. On the 12th of January the right wing of the grand army reached Velout, about eighteen miles from Madras, and on the 29th of the same month earl Cornwallis joined the grand army there, which early in February proceeded in two columns towards Vellore.

It was supposed, from the direction of the march, that his lordship meant to enter the Mysore territory by the Baramaul valley; and so completely was Tipppo deceived by this feint, that his whole attention was directed to the passes in that quarter. The real object, however, of the British general was, the pass of Muglee; and so judiciously had he taken his measures, that no interruption was given to the army till they had proceeded three days march to the westward beyond the pass. It was the 22d of February before the last of

the public stores, and the baggage of the army, were got safe over the pass. The succeeding day was a day of halt. The order of battle was then published, and the bullocks and elephants mustered; of the former 27,000 were found fit for service, and, of the latter, eighty accompanied the army.

On the 24th of February, lord Cornwallis proceeded for Bangalore. After three days march, some parties of the enemy's horse were discovered, which increased as the army advanced; and before the British reached within eighteen miles of Bangalore, they burnt all the adjacent villages, and destroyed the forage. When advanced within ten miles of the fortress, Tipppo's army appeared in excellent order, and, taking possession of the heights, cannonaded the British rear, while his cavalry made an unsuccessful attempt on the baggage.

On the 5th of March, the British general encamped before Bangalore. In the afternoon colonel Floyd with the cavalry, being dispatched to reconnoitre, was tempted to attack Tipppo's rear, which at first appeared to give way; but the enemy being strongly reinforced soon rallied, and compelled the colonel to retreat. On the following day the pettah or town was stormed and taken, with the loss of 100 men; it was found to contain a good supply of grain, forage, and fuel.

Three batteries were opened on the fort by the 12th, but they were too distant to effect a breach; on the 16th therefore, a new battery of nine guns was opened at 550 yards from the works. On the 17th, and again on the 21st, Tipppo drew out his army, but without effect. A breach of some extent was about this time effected, and on the evening of the 21st, the fort was stormed and taken with little loss on the side of the British, but with a dreadful carnage of the unresisting garrison. Not less than 1000 were massacred with the bayonet, and 300, mostly wounded, were taken.

Such is war in its very nature and spirit, that it necessarily destroys the moral feelings; and such are its inevitable consequences, that, however distinguished for humanity the commander may be, he generally finds himself, on such occasions, unable to restrain the intemperance and cruelty of his soldiers. The philosopher, in future and in better times, will peruse these melancholy details with a sigh, and will ask, By what authority men embark from a distant shore, for the express purpose of imbruing their hands in the blood of their offenceless fellow creatures?

After remaining at Bangalore till the 28th of March the army proceeded to the N. N. E. towards Chinnabalarabaram. Nothing of importance occurred till the 7th of April, when they were joined by a party of the Nizam's troops, in number from 14 to 16,000, but in a very bad and irregular state. On the 19th colonel Oldham joined the army, bringing with him a valuable supply of stores and provisions, and a reinforcement of about 700 Europeans, and 4,500 native troops. On the 25th earl Cornwallis declared his intentions of proceeding to Seringapatam; but it was the

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the 3d of May before the army could be sufficiently prepared for so considerable an enterprize, since the march was attended with every inconvenience that could result from a hilly country, heavy roads, and almost continual rain.

The army arrived on the 13th at Arakeery; whence they had a view of their great object the capital of Mysore, then only about nine miles distant. At the same time they observed a large body of troops crossing from the island of Seringapatam to the north side of the river Cavery, and taking a position in the front of the British, at the distance of about six miles. These troops, however, were then considered only as a large detachment, and not as the main body of Tippoo's army, as they really were, a part of them being obscured by the projecting base of a hill, which intervened between the two camps. Tippoo had only arrived at his capital four days before the appearance of lord Cornwallis at Arakeery. As his lordship had received certain intelligence that general Abercrombie had ascended the Ghauts on the Malabar side, the first object was, to form a junction, if possible, with that general. The whole of the 14th, therefore, was employed in endeavours to make a bad ford, which there was across the Cavery, fit for the transporting of artillery; but the depth of the river, and its uneven and rocky bed, obliged them to desist from the design.

On account of the difficulty of approaching the enemy's camp on the side of Arakeery, the British commander determined to march round the ridge of mountains on the right, to endeavour to surprize the Sultan in his camp. At eleven o'clock on the night of the 14th, the whole army was under arms; but the night proved most unfavourable for the purpose. The rain and the darkness, added to some misconception of orders, produced the most deplorable confusion and disorder; and when the day broke, instead of being near the object of their destination, they had only moved a few miles, and the rear of the line had but just passed their own piquets to the right.

At sun-rise, moving round the edge of the hills, the enemy's line was seen from a rising ground in the same strong position they had occupied the day before. Very low ground, intersected by a deep ravine, ran along their front, but a high ground beyond the ravine seemed to offer a fair opportunity of attacking their left flank with advantage. The first European brigade moved on to possess this height, and at the same time a body of the enemy's infantry moved from the left, and soon after a large body of troops and artillery advanced from the Mysorean camp, to occupy the height, which was also the object of the British.

From the superiority of their cattle, this detachment, commanded by Cummur-ud-Deen, gained its summit first, but the British were fortunate enough to prevent them from occupying another strong ridge, which, although lower than the first, was yet of material importance. The army was formed in two divi-

sions. The right, commanded by colonel Maxwell, marched to attack the height which had been pre-occupied by Cummur-ud-Deen, in the manner already related. The left was under the command of general Meadows, and the cavalry was placed out of gunshot, to be in readiness to embrace any advantage that might be presented.

Colonel Maxwell began the action by storming the height; in which having been eminently successful, the left division advanced to the attack of the enemy's main body, and it soon became general along the whole front. The success of colonel Maxwell proved fatal to Tippoo; for after leaving a sufficient force to occupy the height, that officer advanced rapidly to gain the Carigal height, close to the enemy's left flank, while the cavalry under colonel Floyd moved at the same time to attack their right. The consequence was, that Tippoo was obliged to give way, though his retreat was gradual and masterly. One gun only was taken on the field, and three others on the height, by colonel Maxwell. The enemy were pursued till the fire from the island batteries obliged the assailants to desist, and the following day lord Cornwallis encamped partly on the field of battle, and just out of the reach of the island batteries. The loss on the part of the British in this action was inconsiderable.

It is well known that lord Cornwallis was unable to take the advantage of this success, and the principal causes of his miscarriage may be reduced to two—the swelling of the river, and the weakness of the draft cattle, which prevented a junction with general Abercrombie, together with the want of provisions to support them during a protracted siege. After dispatching orders, therefore, to general Abercrombie (who had obtained possession of Periapatam) to return down the pass with all expedition, on the 26th of May, lord Cornwallis moved from his encampment near Seringapatam on his return to Bangalore, having previously destroyed his battering train, and removed every incumbrance.

On the 28th he was joined by the Mahrattas to the number of 30,000, whose movements had been doubtless accelerated by the news of Tippoo's defeat. As they brought with them, however, a supply of provisions, the difficulty of obtaining subsistence was for the present removed, and the combined armies moved slowly to the place of their destination. In their route they made themselves masters of several petty fortresses; and on the 18th of July Onsoor submitted to the British arms, and by reducing the forts in its neighbourhood, the Odealurgum and Ryacota passes were opened, through which it was his lordship's intention to obtain supplies in the ensuing campaign.

On the 30th of July, the combined forces encamped within six miles of Bangalore. General Abercrombie, after having also sacrificed his battering train, was compelled to lead back a sick and dispirited army over the almost inaccessible mountains which he had so lately

passed, with perhaps more difficulty, but with more ardent and inspiring expectations. While the British forces lay encamped near Seringapatam, a present of fruit had been sent from Tippoo to lord Cornwallis, and some overtures were made for the obtaining of a separate peace. The present was, however, returned with but little courtesy on the part of the British general, and the Sultan, it is said, was assured that no peace could be acceptable which was not to include the allies. Notwithstanding this disappointment, so solicitous was the monarch for obtaining peace, that lord Cornwallis had scarcely reached Bangalore than a vakeel was dispatched by Tippoo with full powers to treat.

From what cause the Sultan's mission was unsuccessful, we are not fully informed, but it was generally reported, that the forms of his reception, with which lord Cornwallis did not chuse to comply, and on which, he said, he was authorized to insist, put an end to the negotiation. It is to be lamented, that any instances should occur in the present age to give colour to the sarcastic observation of the democratic writers, that, in the eyes of princes and great men, the lives of their fellow creatures are frequently of less importance than the observation of some trivial etiquette, or some ridiculous and unmeaning ceremony.

Lord Cornwallis was not inactive during the winter months, but, on the contrary, omitted nothing which might contribute to the success of the ensuing campaign. The first object that engaged his attention, was to regulate the contract for bullocks in such a manner as to ensure a proper and adequate supply of cattle for every purpose during the continuance of the war; the next was, the reduction of the hill forts to the North East of Bangalore, which were so situated between that fortress and Gumunconda, as to interrupt the communication with the Nizam's army, and the supplies which might be collected in that quarter. The smaller forts surrendered upon summons, but Nundydroog, the capital of a large district, and built upon the summit of a mountain, 1700 feet in height, three-fourths of which were absolutely inaccessible, was enabled to stand a considerable siege.

From the 22d of September to the 18th of October, the brave garrison stood with heroic firmness. On that day, the breaches being rendered practicable, lord Cornwallis, with a view to intimidate the garrison, encamped within four miles of the fort; and it was determined to make the assault at midnight, in hopes of taking the garrison by surprise. The vigilance of the enemy, however, soon discovered the assailants, but their fire was not sufficiently well directed, to prevent the British soldiery from mounting the breach. The carnage which must have ensued was prevented partly by a number of the garrison escaping by ladders over a low part of the wall, but chiefly by the laudable exertions of captain Robertson, who commanded the storming party, and who, with a humanity which re-

flects the utmost honour on his character, from the moment he entered the fort, directed his whole attention to preserving order, and preventing the effusion of blood.

Colonel Maxwell was sent in the latter end of October with a detachment towards the Baramoul valley chiefly to disperse the plundering parties which intercepted the provisions. On the 31st, colonel Maxwell took a small mud fort, called Penagra, by storm; but we must regret that the same humanity was not exercised here as at Nundydroog; for out of a garrison of 900, not less than 150 were put to the sword. But at Kiltinahery the colonel met with a more serious resistance. The lower fort, including the pettah or suburb, was gained without much difficulty: but the garrison in the upper fort, alarmed perhaps at the fall of Penagra, defended it with a degree of heroism bordering on despair. Immense rocks and showers of stones were hurled down into the road; the scaling ladders were broken to pieces, and, after two hours vigorous assault, colonel Maxwell at length found it necessary to desist from the attempt.

In the mean time the Sultan was not wanting on his part in exertion and activity during this recess from the more important business of the war. Early in September a detachment was sent by him to lay siege to Coimbettoore, which was most gallantly defended by lieutenant Chalmers, and the assailants were repulsed and forced to raise the siege. Not discouraged by this disgrace, Tippoo lost no time in dispatching his second in command, Cummend-Deen Cawn, to reduce that place, where, for a while, he experienced the same vigorous resistance which had formerly saved the fortress. A detachment, however, under major Cuppage, which was sent by lord Cornwallis for the relief of Coimbettoore, having been defeated by the Cawn, lieutenant Chalmers was under the necessity of capitulating on the 2d of November, and the garrison marched out with the honours of war, and were allowed to remain on their parole during the continuance of hostilities.

About eighteen miles to the west of Bangalore, lies the fortress of Savendroog; it is situated on the summit of a vast mountain or rock, which is supposed to rise above half a mile in perpendicular height from the table or base of eight or ten miles in circumference. This immense mountain has a further advantage, in being divided at its summit by a chasm, which separates it into two hills, which having each their peculiar defences, form two citadels, capable of being maintained, independent of the lower works. The whole mountain is surrounded by a strong wall on every side; and in every part which was considered as accessible, cross walls and barriers are erected so as to give the whole an impregnable and stupendous appearance. This fortress was an object to the zeal, and perhaps to the ambition of lord Cornwallis, and lieutenant-colonel Stuart was dispatched for its reduction.

On the 10th within three miles quarter which weakest. On the fortress—one at 700 yards; but the lower tier of iron clamps, but night, therefore, parts of the wall needed a practicable ditch, at eleven or less than an hour soldiery made the hitherto been common of December, Ounces from the fort.

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On the 10th of December the colonel encamped within three miles of the north side of the rock, the quarter which the chief engineer considered as the weakest. On the 17th he opened two batteries on the fortrefs—one at the distance of 1000, and the other of 200 yards; but the wall being built of large stones, the lower tier of which was rivetted to the rock by iron clamps, but little impression was made. On the 20th, therefore, a battery was opened within 250 yards of the wall, which in the course of two days effected a practicable breach. On the morning of the 21st, at eleven o'clock, the assault was made, and in less than an hour the surprising exertions of the British artillery made them masters of 2 fortrefs, which had hitherto been considered as impregnable. On the 24th of December, Outredrog, another fortrefs, about twelve miles from the former, was also taken by storm.

About the same period several forts of less note were reduced by different detachments of the combined army; and Gummundah was blockaded up by Hafez Jee, one of the Nizam's best generals. The place, however, was relieved on the 21st of December by Hyder Saib, the eldest son of Tippoo Sultan, who made prisoners Hafez Jee and a considerable part of the detachment.

General Abercrombie returned early in November to Tellicherry from Bombay, and immediately received orders from the governor-general to pursue the same plan of operations as in the preceding campaign. On the 5th of December, therefore, the general proceeded on his march through the Ghauts towards the Mysore country. The Mahratta force under Purseram Bhow was not inactive in the mean time, but was successful in the reduction of several forts situated on the rivers Tum and Budra, which opened to their occupation a fertile district, and were the means of affording very seasonable supplies.

Something of more importance was now to be expected from the combined force, which at this time acted in the territory of Mysore, and when the reduction of the capital was to be attempted, as the means of either crushing entirely the force of the enemy, or bringing him to such terms as might ensure a lasting peace; therefore, on the 1st of February 1792, the allied armies commenced their march, in the course of which nothing worth relating occurred, and on the 5th they arrived within sight of Seringapatam, under the walls of which Tippoo was strongly posted to receive them.

The Sultan's front line, or fortified camp, which was situated on the north side of the Cavery, behind a strong bound hedge, was defended by heavy cannon in the redoubts, and by his field train and army stationed to the best advantage. To the front there appeared at least 100 pieces of cannon, and in the fort and island, which formed his second line, there were at least three times that number. The confederate army encamped at the distance of about six miles from

the Sultan. Their camp was separated in two divisions by a small stream, called the Lockarry river, which runs into the Cavery. The British army formed the front line; the reserve was stationed about a mile in the rear, where the Mahratta and Nizam's armies were also posted, but at a still further distance. But the British commander did not suffer his troops to enjoy a long repose in this station; for,

On the 6th of February, general orders were issued, directing an attack upon the enemy's camp and lines that evening at seven o'clock. The right division, consisting of 3300 infantry, was commanded by general Meadows; the centre, consisting of 3700, by lord Cornwallis in person; and the left, which only amounted to 1700 men, by lieutenant-colonel Maxwell. At eight o'clock the whole body was under arms; the evening was calm and serene, and the troops moved on by the light of the moon, in determined silence. While the columns were on their march, the camp left under the command of colonel Duff was struck, and the baggage packed; and this was the first notice communicated to the allies of the intended attack.

Their consternation is scarcely to be imagined, when they found that lord Cornwallis had proceeded on this desperate enterprize with a part of his infantry only, and unsupported by artillery; and Tippoo himself, it appears, had no apprehension of so early a visit, especially as neither Purseram Bhow nor general Abercrombie had yet joined. However, between the hours of ten and eleven at night, the centre column, within a mile of the bound hedge, touched upon the enemy's grand guard, or body of cavalry, who were coming with rockets, &c. to disturb the British camp. The cavalry galloped off to the lines, and left the rocket boys to harass the column, and endeavour to impede its march.

Perceiving themselves thus completely discovered, the column advanced with uncommon rapidity, and entered the lines in less than a quarter of an hour after the intelligence could have reached the enemy. The right column met with more impediments, and being led to a more distant point than was intended by lord Cornwallis, was considerably later in reaching the hedge than the centre column. It entered, however, about eleven, and the battle became general throughout the enemy's lines.

The right division, owing to its late arrival, and to its having attacked a redoubt which the commander in chief had intended to be passed by, gave time to the enemy to form, and suffered severely from grape and musket shot during a sharp contest, which lasted almost till day-break. The enemy at length completely gave way before the persevering valour of the British troops; and at day-break general Meadows found himself complete master of the field; but being entirely ignorant of the operations of the other columns, was unable to proceed. The main object of the centre column was,

to gain possession of the island, into which it was their intention to pass along with the fugitives. After entering the lines, the front division of this column soon dispersed the enemy, and passing the Sultan's tent, which was hastily abandoned, pressed forward to the river in two divisions.

The first party, commanded by captain Monson, crossed the ford under the walls of the fort without opposition. They proceeded instantly to the east gate of the city, but found it shut, and the bridge drawn up; they therefore proceeded through the island to an extensive bazaar, or market-place, where they made a considerable slaughter of the enemy. This party was almost immediately followed by the other division under colonel Knox, which, however, instead of directing its course to the city, proceeded to the rajah's garden, and thence to take possession of the suburb Shaher Ganjam, the gates of which they forced open, and soon drove the enemy from all their batteries in that quarter. Another party under captain Hunter crossed the river, and stationed themselves in the rajah's garden; but as soon as their position was discovered, they were attacked by superior numbers of the enemy, so that captain Hunter was obliged precipitately to repass the river, and join lord Cornwallis, where his presence afterwards materially contributed to his lordship's safety. The centre division of this column advanced to the Sultan's redoubt, which they found abandoned, and afterwards co-operated with colonel Maxwell in the defeat of Tippoo's right wing.

Lord Cornwallis with the reserve remained close by that part of the bound hedge where the column had first entered; and here, two hours before day-break, he was joined by captain Hunter's party, who had but just time to change their cartridges, which were wet with crossing the river, before the whole party was attacked by a strong body of troops, part of Tippoo's centre and left, who, now recovered from their panic, rallied with redoubled resolution. The conflict was supported with inflexible courage on both sides, and it was near day-light before the enemy was finally repulsed. Lord Cornwallis then, apprehensive of being surrounded, repaired to the pagoda hill, where he was met by general Meadows, who was in motion to support his lordship.

The left division under colonel Maxwell was intended to attack the Carighat hill on the right of Tippoo's fortified camp, and thence to force their way into the island by the most practicable means. The hill, though strong both by nature and art, was gained by colonel Maxwell without much resistance. The column afterwards marched down towards the river, though much galled by a party who had sheltered themselves behind a bank, and by the firing from the right of Tippoo's line from behind the bound hedge. They crossed the ford with much difficulty, and soon joined the victorious parties, who had obtained possession of the eastern extremity of the island. The battle was

continued in different parts during the whole of the 7th. The most desperate conflict was at the Sultan's redoubt, which was defended by a small party of British under major Kelly, against three vigorous attacks, seconded by a heavy cannonading from the forts.

The troops of the enemy having quitted every part on the north side of the river, the camp was advanced on the succeeding days as near to the bound hedge as the guns of the fort would permit, and a chain of posts connecting along the northern and eastern faces of the fort, were formed, so as strongly to invest the capital of Mysore on its two principal sides. Thus pressed by the invaders in every quarter, his palace and beautiful gardens in the possession of the enemy, and his whole power reduced within the narrow limits of a citadel, the possession of which was even uncertain, the hitherto unsubdued spirit of the Sultan seems to have given way with his tottering fortunes; and peace almost upon any terms, appeared a desirable acquisition.

As a preliminary step towards an accommodation, he determined to release lieutenants Chalmers and Nash, who had been captured at Coimbatore. On the evening of the 8th of February these officers were introduced into the Sultan's presence. They found him in a small tent on the south glacis of the fort, very plainly dressed, and with few attendants. After acquainting them with their release, he asked Mr. Chalmers, if on going to the camp, he was likely to see lord Cornwallis; and on being answered in the affirmative, he requested that he would take charge of a letter to his lordship on the subject of peace. He affirmed solemnly that it never had been his wish or intention to break with the English; that from the first commencement of hostilities he had been extremely anxious for the restoration of peace. He expressed with that Mr. Chalmers would return with the answer, and concluded, by presenting him with two shawls and 500 rupees. Lieutenants Chalmers and Nash had been remarkably well treated while detained by Tippoo.

Notwithstanding the Sultan was thus anxiously endeavouring to restore tranquillity to his exhausted country, his mind was still fertile in the expedients and stratagems of war. By one master-stroke of policy, that of capturing the commander in chief, he hoped to effect his purpose in a shorter and more honourable mode than by the slow and precarious method of negotiation. On the 8th and 9th of February, small parties of his cavalry were observed to cross the Caveri at the ford near Arakeery (the station which lord Cornwallis had occupied in the preceding campaign) and on the morning of the 10th a considerable body of them got round the left wing undiscovered, and entered between the British camp and that of the Nizam. The allies, not suspecting these horsemen to be enemies, suffered them to pass on quietly; and on their asking some of the camp-followers for the burgher saib, or commander, these persons, supposing that the horsemen only

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horsemen only wished to communicate some intelli-
gence to colonel Duff, the commanding officer of
artillery, pointed to his tent. The horsemen then
drew their sabres, and galloped to the tent, but being
unfortunately perceived by a party of seapoy drafts and
murriss, who were encamped in the rear of the arti-
lery park, and who formed with singular alacrity, and
braved the enemy with undaunted firmness, they were
soon dispersed, and the attempt proved abortive.

The Bombay army under general Abercrombie, af-
ter a fatiguing march, and after having been in some
degree harassed by detached parties of the enemy dur-
ing their progress, joined lord Cornwallis on the 16th
of February, and afforded a reinforcement of about
2,000 Europeans and 4,000 native troops fit for duty.
Preparations therefore were vigorously made on the 18th
for the attack of the fort, not on the island side,
which was deemed the strongest, but on the quarter
facing the north, which appeared to lord Cornwallis
most available; and trenches were immediately ordered
to be opened, and batteries to be constructed with all
expedition on that side. As it was proper, however,
to draw off the attention of the enemy as much as
possible from these operations, on the 19th a diversion
was ordered to be made from the island, and an assault
was projected on the enemy's cavalry, which was en-
camped on the south side of the river. Major Dal-
rymple and captain Robertson, with the 71st regiment
and the 13th battalion of Bengal seapoys, were sent
upon this enterprise. Captain Robertson with a party
entered the camp undiscovered, and with the bayonet
killed upwards of 100 troopers, and double that num-
ber of horses, and retired without molestation, and
without the loss of a man.

In the mean time, a much more important operation
was carried on during the night of the 19th, a parallel
redoubt having been completed within a small
distance of the walls of the fort, from which it was
separated by the river. Day-light revealed to the
enemy these formidable arrangements, and he lost no
time in endeavouring to defeat their effect. He opened
every gun he could bring to bear on the parallel, and
sent continual parties of infantry to harass the troops,
and interrupt the work. Finding these exertions to be
vain, Tippoo next endeavoured to deprive the camp
of its supply of water, by altering the course, and eav-
ing a large canal, from which it had been hitherto
supplied. To counteract this injurious operation,
before, a party was detached under the command of
Major Wahab, with pioneers to repair the embank-
ment. They soon dislodged the enemy from their sta-
tion, and as they had not been able to destroy much of
the embankment, the damage was presently repaired,
and the water restored to its accustomed channel.

The grand operation of the siege commenced on the
20th, by opening the trenches, and a heavy discharge
from all the batteries; in the mean time, the Bombay
army crossed the river, in order to invest the western

side of the capital. Some little resistance was made to
general Abercrombie's establishing himself on that side
of the river; but towards evening the party which op-
posed him was dispersed. General Abercrombie's
force on the south side of the river consisted of three
regiments of Europeans and six battalions of seapoys.
His camp, strongly situated on the heights, was pitched
just beyond the gun-shot of the fort. In consequence
of the application through lieutenant Chalmers, lord
Cornwallis agreed to receive vakeels or envoys to treat
of peace.

On the 15th, 16th, 19th, and 21st, sir John Ken-
naway, and Mr. Cherry, assisted by vakeels from the
Nizam's son, and Hurry Punt, the Mahratta chief,
met the agents of the Sultan, but apparently little pro-
gress was made in the negotiation, so that the siege
still continued without intermission; and on the 22d,
general Abercrombie, conceiving it necessary to take
possession of an evacuated redoubt and a grove, situated
between his camp and the fort, the possession was
warmly disputed by a detachment, chiefly consisting of
dismounted cavalry; and though the British were in the
end victorious, it was not till after the loss of 104
men killed and wounded.

On the 22d and 23d of February, during the nights,
new works were erected, and two breaching batteries,
one of twenty, and the other of twelve guns, would have
been ready to open on the 1st of March. The Mah-
ratta army, commanded by Purseram Bhow, and con-
sisting of 20,000 horse, a body of several thousand
infantry, and 30 pieces of cannon, was expected daily
to join, as well as major Cuppage from the Coimbat-
tore country, with 400 Europeans, and three batta-
lions of seapoys. In the mean time, Tippoo had been
compelled to send off all his cavalry, as well as his
workmen and camp-followers, to Mysore. The Brit-
ish army was well supplied with every necessary, and
that of the Sultan in want of every thing.

The monarch of Mysore was compelled, in this
hopeless situation, to accept of whatever terms were
offered by the British commander. Lord Cornwallis
in this instance is supposed to have been actuated by
motives of policy rather than by any doubt of success,
in capitulating with Tippoo. The best informed per-
sons on the politics of India have been averse to the
annihilation of the Mysorean power; and it is gene-
rally supposed that the governor-general rather wished
it to be humbled than destroyed. However this may
be, preliminaries of peace were signed on the evening
of the 23d of February, and on the following day
there was an entire cessation of hostilities. The sub-
stance of the treaty was—

" I. That Tippoo was to cede one half of his
dominions to the allied powers.

" II. That he was to pay three crores and thirty
lacks of rupees.

" III. That all prisoners were to be restored.

" IV. That two of the Sultan's three eldest sons

were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty."

The two princes, each mounted on an elephant, richly caparisoned, proceeded, on the 26th, from the fort to lord Cornwallis's camp, where they were received by his lordship with his staff. The eldest, Abdul Kalick, was about ten; the youngest, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns, with red turbans richly adorned with pearls. Educated from infancy with the utmost care, the spectators were astonished to behold in these children all the reserve, the politeness, and attention of maturer years. The kindness with which they were received by the British commander appeared to afford them visible satisfaction. Some presents were exchanged on both sides; and the scene is described by an eye-witness (major Dirom) as highly interesting.

The definitive treaty was not finally adjusted till the 19th of March. The allies were probably exorbitant in their demands, and Tippoo and his courtiers appear to have exerted their utmost abilities, in artfully endeavouring to gain time, and to mitigate the terms of submission. Tippoo, however, at length gave a reluctant consent, as it is said, to the terms prescribed by lord Cornwallis, and the definitive treaty was delivered by the young princes, with great solemnity, into the hands of his lordship and the allies.

Thus happily terminated a war, the good policy of which was greatly questioned by some of the most competent judges of Indian politics, and the conduct of which, from a variety of unfortunate circumstances, disappointed, for a considerable time, the sanguine hopes of its warm supporters. It would, however, be unjust to withhold our approbation from lord Cornwallis in every thing that respects the conduct of the concluding campaign. Nothing that sound judgment could devise, or activity effect, appears to have been omitted. We have reason to believe, also, that the humanity and goodness of his lordship were conspicuous during the whole of the enterprize; and his moderation and sound policy in the concluding scenes cannot be too highly extolled.

Having, in the foregoing historical description of the East-India-Company, shewn the peculiar benefits derived to Great-Britain and Ireland from their valuable trade and merchandise, we shall proceed to mention another great advantage to the commerce of England, namely, the BANK, which was instituted in the reign of king William III. under the sanction of parliament. It is founded on a transferrable fund, and deals by paper circulations on the credit of a large capital. The notes of this company are of the same value as the current coin of the kingdom, into which they may be changed whenever the possessor thinks proper. Here individuals may deposit their money in safety, receiving notes in exchange, which bear no interest it is true,

but are much more convenient than having large sums in specie, being more portable, and capable of a much easier mode of conveyance. A bank note of very considerable value can be sent to any part by the post; and to prevent the ill effects of robberies, they are usually cut in two, part being sent at one time, and part at another, which parts, when separated, are of no value, but on being joined again are as perfect as before. In order to put a more effectual stop to the designs of those who rob the mails, or by any other illicit method become possessed of their notes, the Bank issues a number of bills, called Bank-Post-Bills, which are made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight, which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the Bank if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negotiated by strangers as a common Bank-Note. Another great benefit attending Bank-Notes is, that if they are destroyed by time, or any other accident, the Bank will, on oath made of such accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them at the time such accident happened.

There are three particulars wherein Bank-Notes differ from all kinds of stock. 1. They are always of the same value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no interest. On the other hand, stocks are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned.

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

The SOUTH-SEA-COMPANY had its origin from the following circumstances:—During the long war with France, in the reign of Queen Anne, the payment of the seamen in the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets instead of money, were frequently obliged, by their necessities, to sell these tickets to avaricious men at a discount of 40l. and 50l. per cent. By these and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, amounting to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of these usurers. Whereupon Mr. Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of Great-Britain trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fishery," &c. But the design of creating this company was never carried into execution, nor any trade ever undertaken by them, except the Assiento, in pursuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furnishing the Spaniards with negroes; of which this company was

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deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great-Britain and Spain in 1748, soon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at six per cent; and in the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to five per cent. and they advanced 100,000l. more to the government at the same interest. This company, by the statute 6 George I. were impowered to redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the company had liberty to augment their capital, according to the sums they should discharge; besides other powers they were by the same statute invell'd with; and on the last-mentioned statute was executed the fatal scheme executed in the year 1720.

The company had at first set out with good success; and the value of their stock, for the first five years, had risen faster than that of any other company; and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000l. stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were thus treated, when, taking advantage of the above statute, the South-Sea bubble was projected: the pretended design of which was, to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. and to the other companies: proposals were then printed and distributed, shewing the advantages of the design, and inviting persons into it. The sum necessary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein; and the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100l. of original stock would yield 50l. per annum; which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100l. was sold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned, as is scarcely to be conceived. The consequence of this infamous scheme are too well known; most of the directors were severely fined, to the loss of nearly all their property; and though some of them had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it, yet it was insisted they ought to have opposed, and endeavoured to prevent it, as far as lay in their power.

Several regulations respecting the capital stock and accounts of this company were made by a statute of George II. when their stock amounted to 14,654,103l. Their annuities, &c. are now reduced to 3l. per cent. In every general court, each member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes; and if 5000l. four votes. This company is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no person is qualified to be governor, his majesty excepted, unless such

governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading stock: the sub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the same stock.

The South-Sea Company still continues to divide four per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for the management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the owners.

No expedient could have been thought of, which would have so far contributed to the extension of trade, as the practice of INSURANCE, by which means every merchant can secure his cargo from the danger of seas and enemies. Insurance is performed in the following manner: when a person is disposed to insure the whole or any part of his cargo, he employs a broker, who, in a printed policy of insurance, specifies the name of the ship in which the cargo is embarked, the voyage upon which he is bound, the value of the merchandise, and the conditions of insurance. This he presents to different merchants who are willing to underwrite, and they subscribe their names for different sums, as they think proper, until the whole value is subscribed, receiving in the mean time the premium, each in proportion to the sum he has underwritten; after which, if the ship is cast away, or taken by the enemy, so that the cargo is lost, the proprietor has recourse upon the insurers, who are obliged to indemnify him, by paying the respective sums they subscribed.

Besides several private offices for insurance, where the above policies of private underwriters are duly entered and registered, there are two corporations, established for this purpose by act of parliament, by the titles of the Royal-Exchange-Assurance, and the London-Assurance. They have each an exclusive privilege against all other insuring societies for shipping and merchandize, but this does not interfere with any man's private right of insuring.

By a calculation made not many years ago of the number of inhabitants in London, they then amounted to 174,000.

It is ever to be lamented, that, after the conflagration in 1666, the city of London was not rebuilt agreeable to the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan of the great Sir Christopher Wren, which, through the insatiation of those times, was totally disregarded, and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property: had that great architect's plan been followed, the metropolis of this kingdom would incontestably have been the most magnificent and elegant city in the universe, and of consequence must, from the prodigious resort of foreigners of distinction and taste, who would have visited it, have become an inexhaustible fund of riches to this nation.

The CONSTITUTION of England may properly be said to partake of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy; for

for first, the executive power of the laws being lodged in a single person, they have all the advantages of strength and dispatch that are to be found in absolute monarchy: secondly, the king, and the lords spiritual and temporal, was to form an aristocracy; and thirdly, the House of Commons being freely chosen by the people from among themselves, make a democracy. These three bodies constitute the British parliament, which has the supreme disposal of every thing; and there can be no inconvenience attempted by either of the three branches, but will be withstood by one of the other two, each branch being armed with a negative power, sufficient to repel any innovation which it may think inexpedient or dangerous. In no other manner whatever could these three forms of government have been so prudently and so happily united. Our excellent constitution is so admirably contrived, that nothing can endanger or hurt it, but the destroying the equilibrium of power between one branch of the legislature and the rest.

The principal duty of the king is to govern his people according to law. And accordingly it is expressly declared, by the 12th and 13th statutes of William III. that "the laws of England are the birth-right of the people thereof; and all the kings and queens who shall ascend the throne of this realm, ought to administer the government of the same, according to the said laws; and all their officers and ministers ought to serve them respectively according to the same: and therefore all the laws and statutes of this realm, for securing the established religion, and the rights and liberties of the people thereof, and all other laws and statutes of the same now in force, are by his majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, by authority of the same, ratified and confirmed accordingly."

The original contract between king and people, is now couched in the coronation oath, and administered to every king or queen who shall succeed to the imperial crown of the realm, by one of the archbishops or bishops of the realm, in the presence of all the people; who, on their parts, also reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. The king engages, by his oath, to govern his people and dominions according to the statutes, laws, or customs agreed on in parliament.—To cause law and justice to be executed in all his judgments.—To maintain, to the utmost of his power, the laws of God, the true profession of the gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion; and to preserve to the bishops, clergy, and churches, all their rights and privileges.

One of the principal bulwarks of civil liberty, or of the British constitution, was the limitation of the king's prerogative by bounds so certain and notorious, that it is impossible he should ever exceed them, without the consent of the people on one hand; or without a violation of that original contract which expressly subsists between the prince and the subject, on the other.

The king, by virtue of his prerogative, may reject bills, make treaties, coin money, create peers, and pardon offences, at his pleasure; unless where the constitution hath expressly, or by evident consequence, laid down some exception or boundary, declaring that the prerogative shall go no further than to such an extent. But though the king may exercise these prerogatives, yet if the consequences of that exertion evidently tend to the disadvantage or dishonour of the kingdom, the parliament will call his advisers to a just and severe account. The king may, for instance, make a treaty with a foreign state, which shall bind the nation; and yet, when such treaties have been judged pernicious, impeachments have pursued those ministers by whose agency they were concluded. The king may also levy armies and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the suppression of rebellions; grant commissions to his officers, both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c. summon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve it; and may refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both Houses. He possesses also the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of state, of the household, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived.

To endeavour at tracing the original institution of parliaments, would be attempting an impossibility, as all accounts which have been transmitted to us on that head are equally vague and unsatisfactory. General councils have been held in England, time immemorial, under the several names of michel-synod, or great council; michel-gemot, or great meeting; and witten-gemote, or the meeting of wise men. It is, however, universally agreed, that the foundation of parliament, as it now stands, was laid in the great charter granted by king John, in the year 1215, wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons, personally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriffs and bailiffs; to meet at a certain place, after forty days notice, to attest aids and scutages when necessary.

The word parliament is derived from the French *parlement*, speaking or debating, and signifies no more than a place appointed for persons to meet and confer together. It was first applied to general assemblies of the states in France under Louis VII. about the middle of the twelfth century.

According to the present form of parliament, the king alone has the power of assembling it, which is done by his writ or letter issued out of chancery, by advice of the privy-council, at least forty days before it begins to sit; and this he is obliged to do every year, or oftener, if need be. The sitting of parliament must not be intermitted above three years.

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The parliament consists of the king and the three estates of the realm, viz. the lords spiritual and temporal, who sit, together with the king, in one house; and the commons, who sit by themselves, in another.

The lords spiritual consist of the two archbishops of Canterbury and York, and twenty-four bishops, who hold, or are supposed to hold, certain parishes under the king. In the eye of the law, and in most acts of parliament, the lords spiritual are considered as a distinct estate from the lords temporal; but in practice they are generally blended together, under the name of the lords: they intermix in their votes, and the majority of such intermixture binds both estates. The bishops, however, are not considered as peers of the realm, but merely lords of parliament. The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm by whatever title distinguished; dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, or barons. Some of these sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all new-made ones; others by election, which is the case of the sixteen peers, who represent the body of the Scots nobility.

The commons consist of all such men of any property in the kingdom, as have not seats in the house of lords; every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representatives. The counties are represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; and the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burghesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest of the nation. The number of English representatives is 513, and of Scots fifty-four, in all 558; and every member, though chosen for one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm; his business not being confined to the advantage of his constituents only, but to that of the commonwealth; and to advise his majesty: therefore he is not bound to consult with, or take the advice of his constituents upon any particular point, unless he thinks it proper or prudent so to do.

The king, and these three estates, when assembled, form the great corporation, or body politic of the nation; and when they first come together, the king meets them, either in person, or by his representative, without which there can be no commencement of parliament. Each of these estates are equally necessary, the consent of all three being required to make any new law which is to bind the subject; therefore whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two of the three, is no statute, and no regard is due to it, unless in matters relating to their own privileges. But the parliament, considered as one body, has sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal. All mischiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that transcend the

ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this high tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown; alter the established religion of the land; change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves; and, in short, do every thing which is not naturally impossible to be done. But, as terrible consequences might ensue from placing such unbounded authority in persons, who may prove incapable or improper to manage it, the law enacts that no one can sit in either house of parliament unless he be twenty-one years of age: that no member shall vote or sit in either house, till he hath in the presence of that house taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration; and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass: and that no alien born out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, even though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

The high court of parliament, like every other court of justice, has its own peculiar law, which is founded on the following basis, viz. "that whatever matter arises concerning either house of parliament, ought to be examined, discussed, and adjudged in that house to which it relates, and not elsewhere." The privileges of parliament are indefinite; but amongst the most remarkable of them are, privilege of speech, of person, of domestics, and of lands and goods. Both houses of parliament have laws and customs peculiar to each; but those of the upper house are by far the most extensive, as are likewise its privileges. It is the highest court of judicature in the kingdom, and from its sentence there is no appeal.

The members of parliament have a right, and are constantly attended by the judges of the courts of King's-Bench, Common-Pleas, and such of the barons of the Exchequer as are of the degree of the coat, or have been made serjeants at law, as also by the masters of the court of chancery, for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings. Formerly the secretaries of state, the attorney and solicitor-general, and the rest of the king's council, being serjeants, used to attend the House of Peers, and to this day their regular writs of summons are issued out at the beginning of every parliament; but many of them having been of late years members of the House of Commons, their attendance is dispensed with. Every peer may, by licence obtained from the king, make another lord of parliament his proxy, to vote for him in his absence; and he has also a right, by leave of the house, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent, which is usually styled his protest. All bills likewise that may in their consequences any way affect the rights of the peerage, are by the custom of parliament to have their first rise and beginning in the House of Peers, and to

suffer no changes or amendments in the House of Commons.

As to the peculiar laws and customs of the House of Commons, these consist principally in the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament. It always has been their indisputable right and privilege, that all grants of subsidies, and parliamentary aids, should begin in the lower house, and be first bestowed by them; though their grants are not to all intents and purposes effectual, until they have received the assent of the other two branches of the legislature; and so jealous are they of this valuable privilege, that they will not suffer the other house to exert any other power herein, but that of rejecting; not allowing them to make the least alteration or amendment to the mode of taxing the people by a money bill; which is the appellation given to all bills whereby money is to be raised upon the subject.

Previous to the entering upon, and for the more ready dispatch of business, each house has its speaker: that of the House of Lords, is the lord-chancellor, or some other nobleman appointed by the king's commission; but that of the House of Commons is chosen by its own members, and must be approved of by his majesty.

With respect to a bill, if the relief sought by it is of a private nature, a petition must be presented before it is brought into the house; which petition usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied, and is always presented by a member. Sometimes upon the mere petition, leave is given to bring in the bill; but, if it is founded on facts, which may be in their nature disputed, it is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and, according to their report, it is admitted or rejected: if the former, the persons directed to bring in the bill, in a competent time present it to the house, drawn out upon paper, with a number of blanks, where any thing occurs that is dubious, or necessary to be settled by the parliament itself. This is read a first time, and at a convenient distance a second time; and after each reading the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed any further. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings; and, if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropped for that session; as it must also, if opposed with success, in any of the subsequent stages.

If the bill obtains a second reading, it is committed, or referred to a committee, which, in matters of small importance, is appointed by the house; but, upon a bill of consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house: the speaker then quits the chair, which is filled by another member, and sits and debates as a private member. In these committees the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has passed the

committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house reconsiders the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause or amendment. When the house have agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, that is, written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. When this is finished is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment upon the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again opens the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question, whether the bill shall pass. If this passes in the affirmative, the title to it is then settled, and one of the members is ordered to present it to the lords for their concurrence. Accordingly, being attended by several more members, he carries it to the bar of the House of Peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, who comes down from his wood-sack to receive it. Here it passes through the same forms as in the lower house, except that of engrossing; when, if it is rejected, no more notice is taken of it; but, if it is agreed to, the lords send a message by two masters in chancery, or by two of the judges, that they have agreed to the same; and the bill remains with the lords. But, if the upper house have made amendments in the bill, which sometimes happens, both amendments and bill are returned to the House of Commons to receive their concurrence. If the commons disagree to the amendments, a conference between some members, deputed from each house, usually follows, who generally adjust the difference; but if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. On the other hand, if the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them therewith.

When a bill begins in the House of Lords, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged; to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety; after which the same forms are observed as in the House of Commons. But when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by the king, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment.

When both houses have done with a bill, it is always deposited in the House of Peers to wait the royal assent; except in the case of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the House of Commons.

The royal assent to a bill may be given two ways: first in person; when the king comes to the House of Peers, in his crown and royal robes, and sending for

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the commons to the bar, the titles of all the bills
 that have passed both houses are read, and his majesty's
 answers are declared by the clerk of parliament
 in Norman French, to the following effect: if he
 consents to a public bill, *le roy le veut*, "the king will
 it so to be;" if to a private bill, *soit fait comme il est
 désiré*, "be it as it is desired." If he refuses his con-
 sent, *le roy s'aviserà*, "the king will advise upon it."
 When he assents to a money-bill, *le roy remercie ses loyaux
 sujets, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*, "the
 king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevo-
 lences, and wills it so to be." When an act of grace
 is passed, the clerk of parliament pronounces the grate-
 ful mode of the subjects in Norman French to the fol-
 lowing purport. *Les prelates, seigneurs, et communs, en
 ce present parlement assemblez, au nom de tous vos au-
 tres 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."
 The second method whereby the king may give his
 assent, is by letters patent under his great seal, signed
 with his hand, and notified, in his absence, to both
 houses assembled together in the House of Lords. When
 a bill has received the royal assent in either of these
 ways, it is then, and not before, a statute, or act of
 parliament, and it cannot be altered, amended, dis-
 pensated with, suspended, or repealed, but in the same
 terms, and by the same authority of parliament.

Parliaments are subject to adjournments, prorogations,
 and dissolutions. An adjournment is only the con-
 tinuance of the session from one day to another, and
 is done by the authority of each house, separately,
 every day, and sometimes for a fortnight or a month
 together; but the adjournment of one house is no ad-
 journment to the other.

A prorogation is the continuance of parliament from
 one session to another; and is done by the royal autho-
 rity, expressed either by the lord-chancellor in his
 majesty's presence, or by commission from the crown,
 or frequently by proclamation.

A dissolution is the civil death of the parliament, and
 may be effected three ways: first, by the king's will,
 expressed either in person, or by representation; secondly,
 by the demise of the crown; and thirdly, by length
 of time. Under different monarchs this period has
 been extended and contracted; but as our constitution
 now stands, the parliament must expire at the end of
 every seventh year, if not sooner dissolved by the royal
 prerogative.

The laws of England have assigned the king a diversity
 of councils, in order to assist him in the discharge of
 his duties, and the exertion of his prerogative. Among
 these the first is the high court of parliament, already
 considered. The second are the peers of the realm,
 who are by their dignity hereditary counsellors, and

may be called together to impart their advice, in all
 matters of importance to the realm, either in time of
 parliament, or, when there is no parliament in being.
 And besides this general meeting, each individual peer
 of the realm has a right to demand an audience of
 the king, and to lay before him, with decency and
 respect, such matters as he judges of importance to
 the public weal. A third council belonging to the king,
 are his judges of the courts of law, with regard to all
 matters concerning the laws of England.

The principal council belonging to the king is his
 privy-council, generally called, by way of eminence,
 "The Council." The king's will is the sole constituent
 of a privy-counsellor, and this also regulates their
 number, which was formerly twelve. Afterwards it
 increased to so large a number, that it was found in-
 convenient for secrecy and dispatch; and accordingly
 king Charles II. in the year 1679, limited the number
 to thirty; fifteen whereof were to be principal officers
 of state, and the other fifteen composed of ten lords
 and five commoners, chosen by the king. At the
 same time the ancient office of lord president of the
 council was revived in the person of Anthony, earl of
 Shaftesbury. That office is still continued; but the
 number of counsellors has since been greatly aug-
 mented, and now continues indefinite. Privy-coun-
 sellors are made by the king's nomination, without
 patent or grant, and subject to removal at his dis-
 cretion. Every privy-counsellor, before he takes his
 seat at the council-board, must take the oath of office,
 in which are contained all the duties of his function,
 consisting of the seven following articles: 1. To ad-
 vise the king according to the best of his cunning and
 discretion. 2. To advise for the king's honour and
 the good of the public, without partiality through af-
 fection, love, meed, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the
 king's counsel secret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To
 help and strengthen the execution of what shall be
 there resolved. 6. To withstand all persons who would
 attempt the contrary. And 7. To observe, keep, and
 do all that a good and true counsellor ought to do for
 his sovereign lord. The power of the privy-council
 consists in inquiring into all offences against the govern-
 ment, and in committing offenders to safe custody, in
 order to take their trial in some of the courts of law.
 But their jurisdiction does not extend to punishment,
 and the persons committed by them are entitled to
 their Habeas Corpus, equally with those committed by
 an ordinary justice of the peace. In this council the
 civil government is regulated, and every new measure
 of the administration proposed and planned. Here
 also all the appeals from Ireland and the plantations
 are determined. The privy-counsellors sit at the
 board bare-headed when the king presides in person.
 In all debates the lowest delivers his opinion first;
 and the sovereign, at last, by declaring his senti-
 ments, determines the question. A privy-counsellor,
 though a gentleman only, takes precedence of all
 knights

knight and younger sons of barons, and his person is held sacred.

Upon any unforeseen emergency, which the laws do not take cognizance of, the privy-council can supply the deficiency. And it has more than once, in times of the most urgent necessity, such as famine and the like, ventured to supersede the operations of the law, when no parliament was sitting. But in these cases, it is always necessary, at the first meeting of the parliament, to procure an act for the pardon and indemnification of all concerned in such illegal proceedings. It must also be remembered, that every privy-counsellor is responsible for his advice and conduct.

Besides the privy-council, there is another, called the Cabinet-Council, consisting of a select number of noblemen and ministers selected by the king, and in this council the capital affairs of government are determined. This council is unknown to the English constitution, notwithstanding its decrees are powerful and extensive.

The two secretaries of state are more official than any others of the privy-counsellors. They are intrusted with the most important secrets of government, some of which are improper to be communicated even to the privy-council. The number of secretaries of state has not been always the same; sometimes there have been three, and sometimes only one; as, for instance, during the American war, there was a third appointed to manage the affairs of that department. The office of secretary of state is separated into two divisions, called the northern and southern departments, one of the secretaries executing the business of the former, and the other that of the latter. The northern department comprehends the states of Germany, Prussia, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the towns comprehended in the Hanseatic league. The southern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiss Cantons, Constantinople, and all other states in the southern parts.

For the more regular and speedy conducting the multiplicity of affairs of government, one of the members of the cabinet-council is generally considered as first minister, though that name is unknown to the constitution of England, and consequently there is no office of that kind. A responsibility for all the transactions of government is however always annexed to the title, which renders it a post of great danger and difficulty.

The great officers of the crown take place next to the princes of the blood, and the two primates; they are nine in number, viz. the lord high steward, the lord chancellor, the lord treasurer, the lord president of the council, the lord privy-seal, the lord chamberlain, the lord high constable, the earl marshal, and the lord high admiral.

The lord high steward is the first officer of the crown, and his power so exorbitant, that it has long been

thought impolitic to trust it in the hands of any subject; so that it is now only exercised occasionally, to officiate at a coronation, or preside at the trials of peers. He bears in his hand a white rod, as the badge of his dignity; and as soon as the service for which he was created is finished, he breaks his rod, which terminates his office.

The lord chancellor presides in the court of chancery which is deemed a court of equity, where causes are determined according to the dictates of strict justice and reason. The salary of this great post amounts to above seven thousand pounds a year. Sometimes the post of lord chancellor is filled by another officer called lord keeper. There is no difference in authority, power, or precedence, between the lord keeper and lord chancellor, but there is a difference between them in creation. The lord keeper is created by the king delivering the great seal into his hands, and his taking the oath; but the lord chancellor has also a patent.

The lord high treasurer is invested with his office by receiving a white staff from the king; but, since the accession of the present royal family, the office has been put into commission, and the business of the revenue managed by five commissioners, called lords of the treasury; but the presiding commissioner is supposed to possess the whole authority of the lord high treasurer. The power of this officer is very great for he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands together with the letting leases of all the crown lands, and the gift of an amazing number of lucrative places.

The lord president of the council is created by letters patent under the great seal. He proposes all the business transacted at the council-board, and, when the king is absent, reports to him all the debates and proceedings. This is a place of great dignity, as well as difficulty.

The lord privy-seal is an officer of great trust; all charters, pardons, and grants, signed by the king, pass through his hands before they receive the confirmation of the great seal. He also seals warrants for pensions, and the payment of money in other affairs, which do not require the confirmation of the great seal. He is responsible if he gives the sanction of the privy-seal to any thing contrary to the laws of the land.

The office of lord chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancafter's family. This officer has great power, and enjoys a considerable number of perquisites. He takes care to provide every necessary in the House of Lords during the time of parliament and the government of the whole palace, at Westminster, belongs to him. He issues warrants for preparing and furnishing Westminster-Hall for coronations and trials of peers; and the gentleman-usher of the black rod, with his deputies, are under his command. Upon solemn occasions, the keys of Westminster-Hall, the Court of Wards, and Court of Requests, are delivered to him. He is entitled to livery

and lodging in the bishops' walking, and also ceremony of a crimson velvet apparel also, to the king's chamber walks with a The lord high the highest trust posts and garrisons officers in the thought too m accordingly the plunder and ex ham, in the year lord high const ceremony.

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and lodging in the king's court, to certain fees from the bishops when they do homage or fealty to the king, and also from all peers at their creation. At the ceremony of a coronation he receives forty ells of crimson velvet for his own robes. His majesty's night apparel also, together with the bed and furniture of the king's chamber, are his fees. At that ceremony he walks with a white staff in his hand.

The lord high constable was formerly an officer of the highest trust; he was commander of all the king's posts and garrisons, and took place of all other military officers in the field. A power so extensive as this, was thought too much for any subject to enjoy, and accordingly the post has not been filled since the attainder and execution of Stafford, duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, except at coronations, when a lord high constable is created to assist at that splendid ceremony.

The post of earl marshal of England has long been hereditary in the duke of Norfolk's family. This office was formerly of great importance. The earl marshal, in time of war, was judge of all martial causes, which he decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause could not be decided by that method, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a vast variety of ceremonies, the regulation of which fell within the marshal's province. He still regulates all points of precedence according to the archives kept in the herakl's office. He marshals the ceremony at the proclamation and coronation of kings, their marriages, interviews, festivals, and funerals.

The office of lord high admiral of England is now put into commission; the last who filled that post being George prince of Denmark, and husband to queen Anne. The admiralty of England is a board of direction, as well as execution, and independent even of the crown itself in its proceedings. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and either names all its officers, or confirms them when named; so that its power is very extensive. All proceedings in the court of admiralty are determined according to the maxims of the civil law; except trials for piracy, murder, and other capital offences, when the criminals are tried according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury; by a special commission of the king to the lord high admiral, some of the judges being always commissioners.

Courts of Law and Equity come next under consideration. The principal of these, and next in dignity to the parliament, is the Court of Chancery, instituted as a court of equity to mitigate, in many cases, the severity of the common law, and to relieve the subject from frauds, breaches of trust, and various other oppressions. The sole judge of this court is the lord high chancellor, or, in his absence, the master of the rolls. The proceedings of this court are carried on by bills, answers, and decrees, regulated on the

principles of conscience and equity. The lord chancellor is provided with twelve assistants; called masters in chancery; the principal of which is styled master of the rolls, because all the records of this court are committed to his care. The clerk of the crown likewise belongs to this court, he or his deputy being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he fits for the dispatch of business.

The court of chancery is always open; and the lord chancellor has the power of granting an Habeas Corpus for a person sent to prison, provided sufficient reasons are alleged. This court also issues writs of summons for parliaments, charters, protections, safe-conducts, and patents for sheriffs; and in this court are sealed and enrolled all letters patent, treaties with foreign princes; all deeds touching the purchase of lands or estates, extents upon statutes, recognizances for payment of money, and securing contracts, commissions of appeal, and of oyer and terminer.

The highest court of common law in England, is the King's Bench, and is so called, because formerly the kings of England presided here in person. But this has for many years been laid aside, and the royal power vested in the lord chief justice of the King's Bench, styled, by way of eminence, the lord chief justice of England. He is created by a writ from the sovereign, and assisted by three inferior judges, constituted by letters patent; these are styled justices, or judges of the King's Bench. This court takes cognizance of every thing that concerns the loss of life or member of any subject, of treasons, felonies, breaches of the peace, oppression, mis-government, and, in a word, all matters determinable by common law, between the king and his subjects. It is also a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace; has a power to rectify errors and mistakes in the sentences of inferior courts, except those of the Exchequer, its jurisdiction extending all over the kingdom; for the law presumes that the sovereign is always personally present. It has also a power to grant prohibitions in any cause depending either in the spiritual or temporal courts; and the House of Peers often directs to the lord chief justice, to issue out his warrant for apprehending persons under suspicion of high crimes.

The court of Common Pleas is held by another lord chief justice, styled lord chief justice of the Common Pleas, assisted by three other justices of this court, created by letters patent. All civil causes, real, personal, and mixed, litigated between subject and subject, are determined here. None but sergeants at law are suffered to plead in this court, which has also the power of issuing prohibitions, like that of the King's Bench.

The Exchequer is an ancient court of record, in which all causes touching the revenue and the rights of the crown, are heard and determined. The judges of

this court are the lord chief baron, and three other barons; so called, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Besides these, there is also a curitor baron, who administers the oath to all high sheriffs, bailiffs, auditors, receivers, collectors, comptrollers, surveyors, and searchers of all the custom-houses in England. The Exchequer includes two courts, one of law, another of equity. All judicial proceedings at law are litigated before the barons; but the court of equity is held in the exchequer chamber, before the treasurer, chancellor, and barons. Besides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids, subsidies, &c. and the lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business it is to make out processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

The duchy chamber of Lancaster consists of the chancellor of the duchy as chief judge, assisted by the attorney of the duchy, and other officers. This court takes cognizance of all causes relative to the revenue of that duchy.

All these courts are held in Westminster-Hall, and opened at the four terms of Easter, Trinity, Michaelmas, and Hilary.

But though the principal courts are held in the capital, yet the country is not left without the means of obtaining justice without the expence of journies, &c. to Westminster-Hall. In order to this, England is divided into six circuits, and two judges allotted for each. Wales also is divided into two circuits, and the same number of judges assigned them; as has been already observed in the head relating to the divisions of England. These judges sit at the principal or some other convenient town in every county twice a year, to hear and determine causes, both civil and criminal.

There are also Courts of Conscience settled in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of small debts, not exceeding 40s.

In a well regulated state, it is not enough that proper judges and courts of law are established in the capital, and the counties visited twice a year by the judges; magistrates must also be appointed to reside in every district, in order to keep the peace and preserve good order and harmony in all parts of the kingdom. The principal of these officers are sheriffs, coroners, justices of the peace, constables, surveyors of the highways, and overseers of the poor.

The sheriff, or high-sheriff, is an officer of very great antiquity in this kingdom, as we may find observed in some accounts of the divisions of England. His power and duties are very extensive; both with regard to a judge, a keeper of the king's peace, a ministerial officer of the superior courts of justice, and the king's bailiff. In his judicial capacity he is to hear and determine all causes of forty shillings value and under, in his county court. He is to decide the elec-

tions of knights of the shire (subject to the control of the House of Commons) of coroners, and of voters; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return, such as he shall determine to be duly elected. As keeper of the king's peace, he is the first man in the county, during his office; and in order to this he may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *posse comitatus*, or power of the county. In his ministerial capacity he is bound to execute all processes issuing out of the king's courts of justice; and carry all sentences into execution. As the king's bailiff, he must preserve the rights of the king within his bailiwick. He must seize to the king's use all lands devolved to the crown, by attainder or escheat; and levy all fines and forfeitures.

In each county, there are two coroners. This officer, in his ministerial character, is the sheriff's substitute. He is to inquire, by a jury of neighbours, how or by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is, to inquire concerning shipwrecks, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. The coroner is chosen for life; but may be removed on promotion or for neglect, misbehaviour, &c.

The next species of magistrates, subordinate to the sheriffs, are justices of the peace; the principal of whom is the *custos rotulorum*, or keeper of the records of the county. As peace is the very end and foundation of civil society, the common law hath ever had special care and regard for the conservation of it. Accordingly a sufficient number of proper persons, in every county, are appointed by the king's special commission to keep the peace. Their power is very extensive; but the business of the office is so great and of such variety, that very few gentlemen of independent fortune care to engage in this troublesome service.

The power, office, and duty of a justice of peace depend on his commission, and on the several statutes which have created objects of his jurisdiction. His commission, first, empowers him singly to conserve the peace in suppressing riots and affrays, in taking securities for the peace, and in apprehending and committing felons and other inferior criminals. It also empowers any two or more of them to hear and determine all felonies and other offences, which are the grounds of their jurisdiction at the sessions; these are held every quarter at the county town, where a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, are summoned to appear. The duty of this inquest is to inquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to pronounce them guilty or not guilty of their indictments; the justices then commit the former to prison, in order to take their trial at the next assizes, if the crime be great, if otherwise, they order the allotted punishment and discharge the latter. This short sketch of the duties will sufficiently indicate the great difficulty of performing the office; so that society is greatly oblig-

to such worthy views of their service. And makes any undue indulgence of law; and thim in the up among other p being sued for hand; and stop of sufficient am vicious or tyrann being severely p verdict against a jury, are entitle

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Such worthy gentlemen, who, without any sinister
views of their own, will engage in this troublesome
service. And therefore if any well-meaning justice
makes any undesigned slip in his practice, great lenity
and indulgence are always shown him in the courts
of law; and there are many statutes made to protect
him in the upright discharge of his office: which,
among other privileges, prohibit such justices from
being sued for any oversights, without notice before-
hand; and stop all suits begun, on tender being made
of sufficient amends. On the other hand, any ma-
licious or tyrannical abuse of their office is sure of
being severely punished; and all persons who recover a
writ against a justice, for any wilful or malicious in-
jury, are entitled to double costs.

Constables are the next officers appointed for keep-
ing the peace. They are of two kinds, high-
constables, and petty-constables. Of the former, there
is one at least in every hundred; the latter are inferior
officers in every town and parish, subordinate to the
high-constable of the hundred: they generally execute
two offices, that of headborough, and that of assisting
the high-constable. The principal duty both of high
and petty constables is that of keeping the king's peace,
and for this they are furnished with ample powers from
the government. They can imprison offenders till they
are brought before a justice of peace; and it is their
duty to execute, in their respective districts, every war-
rant directed to them from any magistrate or a bench
of justices.

The constitution of England greatly excels all others
for the solid basis on which the rights of the people
are founded, and which cannot be annihilated but by
the destruction of the constitution itself. These rights
may be reduced to three principal articles, the right of
personal security, the right of personal liberty, and the
right of private property; because if these are kept
violated, our civil rights, taken in their most extensive
sense, must be preserved.

1. The right of personal security consists in a per-
son's legal and uninterrupted enjoyment of his life, his
limbs, his body, his health, and his reputation; be-
cause if either of these are destroyed, or injured, per-
sonal security is invaded.

2. The right of personal liberty consists in the power
of changing our situation or removing to any place we
please, without any restraint or imprisonment what-
ever, unless by due course of law. This, like the
former, is a right strictly natural; a right which the
laws of England have never abridged without sufficient
cause; and which can never be abridged by the mere
discretion of the magistrate, without the permission of
the laws. The great charter declares that no freeman
shall be taken or imprisoned but by the lawful judg-
ment of his peers, or by the law of the land. And
lest any person should be detained by the sentence of
an illegal court, or by command of the king's majesty
in person, or by warrant of the council-board, or by

any of the privy-council, the Habeas Corpus act was
passed. So that while this statute remains unimpeached,
no subject of England can be long detained in prison,
except in those cases where the law requires, and jus-
tifies such detainer; and, to prevent this act being
evaded by demanding unreasonable bail, it is declared
by a subsequent act of parliament, that unreasonable
bail shall not be required.

3. The third absolute right inherent in every English-
man, is that of property; which consists in the free
use, enjoyment, and disposal, of all his acquisitions,
without any control or diminution, except only by the
laws of the land. The great charter declares, that no
freeman shall be disseized, or divested of his freehold,
or his liberties, or free customs, but by the judgment
of his peers, or by the law of the land. And by a
variety of statutes it is enacted, that no man's lands
or goods shall be seized into the king's hands, against
the great charter and the laws of England. Nor can
any subject of England be constrained to pay any aids
or taxes, even for the defence of the realm or the sup-
port of government, but such as are imposed by his
own consent, or that of his representatives in par-
liament.

The law is so very careful in this particular, that a
man charged with a capital offence, is not suffered to
undergo even the ignominy of a public trial, till the
evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of
the town or county in which the fact is alleged to
have been committed, and not without twelve of them
agreeing to a bill of indictment against him. If this
be done, he is to stand a second trial before twelve
other men, whose opinion is definitive. In some cases,
the prisoner (who is always supposed to be innocent
till there appears sufficient proof of his guilt) is al-
lowed a copy of his indictment, in order to assist him
in making his defence. He is also furnished with a
panel, or list of the jury, who are to be his true
and proper judges, that he may learn their characters,
and discover whether they want abilities, or whether
they, or any of them, are prejudiced against him. In
case he has the least suspicion of either, he may object
peremptorily in open court to twenty of their number;
and to as many more as he can give sufficient reasons
why they ought not to be admitted as his judges.

When twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours
of the person accused, or living near the place where
the supposed fact was committed, are approved of,
they all take the following oath: "You shall well and
truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king
and the prisoner at the bar, according to the evidence."
These are now the only judges, from whose sentence
the prisoner is to expect life or death; and upon their
integrity and understanding, the lives of all that are
brought in danger ultimately depend, and from whose
judgment there lies no appeal. They are to be of all
one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evi-
dence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or
candle.

candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner; and should one of them happen to die before they have delivered their verdict, the prisoner is acquitted. Every juryman is invested with a solemn and awful trust: if he, without being convinced by the evidence, submits his opinion to that of any other juryman, or yields in compliance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the greatest care; if he questions the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the most impartial hearing, has the least doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the person accused; he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder.

When the jury have agreed in their verdict, and delivered it to the judge, he pronounces such sentence upon the offender as the law has prescribed. It seems therefore to be not only impertinent but injurious, for those who are employed to plead against a prisoner in criminal prosecutions, to declaim in a long and laboured harangue, on the heinousness of the offence supposed to have been committed, and to enumerate every minute and supposititious circumstance by which it is possible to accumulate aggravation.

Every sensible and patriotic person must be convinced, that trial by jury is a capital privilege, and at the same time so great a security to the liberty of the subject, that it is much to be regretted that persons of education, honour, and property, are often too ready to evade serving the office. By this means, juries frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who neither have knowledge enough to understand their right and the privileges of Englishmen, nor spirit enough to maintain them. No man should evade serving so important an office, when regularly called upon: and those who, from indolence or pride, decline discharging this duty to their country, seem hardly to deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of Britain derive from this invaluable institution.

Juries have always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like England, 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, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleased, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings.

By our happy constitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meanest, as well as the greatest: the prisoner, when brought to trial, is freed from all bonds; not only the judges are supposed to be his counsel, but other counsel are allowed him; he may also try the validity and legality of the indictment, and set it aside if contrary to law. The racks and tortures that are cruelly and preposterously made use of in some part of Europe, to make a man accuse himself, are

here unknown, and none punished without conviction; but he who refuses to plead in his own defence. Nothing, in short, is wanting, in this country, to clear up the cause of innocence, and to prevent the sufferer from sinking under the power of corrupt judges and the oppression of the great.

In England, the sovereign has it not in his power to take away the liberty of the least individual, unless by some illegal act, of which he is accused or suspected upon oath, he has forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety make it necessary that he should have the power of confining persons on such a suspicion of guilt; such as the case of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legislature has thought proper to pass a temporary suspension of the Habeas Corpus act: but this seldom has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national safety has absolutely required it. And indeed the rights of individuals are so attentively considered that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, when the king may be cast, and be obliged to pay damages to his subject.

The laws of England are more merciful to criminals than those of any other country. The proceedings formerly, indeed, with regard to offenders who refused to plead to their indictments, were very cruel; but these are now abrogated by a late act of parliament, whereby all persons indicted for any crime, who shall refuse to plead, that is, to submit themselves to a lawful trial, are declared guilty of the offence of which they are accused, and sentence is accordingly to be pronounced against them.

All capital offences are, by the laws of England, included under high-treason, petty-treason, and felony. High-treason consists in plotting, conspiring, or taking up arms, against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the current coin. Whoever is found guilty of the crime is styled a traitor, and punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, where, after the body has hung upon the gallows for some minutes, is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is generally exposed on some public edifice: the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility. The sentence is the same to all traitors; but with regard to persons of quality it is generally changed into beheading, which is executed on a scaffold erected for that purpose.

Though the law has declared the counterfeiting the current coin to be high treason, yet the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged in the same manner as all other offenders guilty of felony.

[EUROPE.]

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If a child kills his father, a wife her husband; a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress, the crime is petty treason, and the criminal is thrown upon a sledge to the gallows, and there hanged till dead. Women guilty of either petty or high treason, are sentenced to be burnt alive; but the rigour of the law was generally mitigated by strangling them before the fire reached their bodies, and is now superseded. One reason why women were not sentenced to be hanged for the above crimes, as the men are, is said to be, because, in that case their bodies must be dissected, and publicly exposed, which would be deemed indecent, and highly inconsistent with decency.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forgery, house-breaking, &c. These are all punished by hanging only, except murderers, who are hanged in twenty-four hours after sentence is past, and their bodies delivered to the surgeons in order to be dissected publicly. It is, however, common, in order to allow the criminal as much respite as possible, to bring on the trial on a Saturday, by which means he is not executed till Monday, Sunday not being considered as a day for public business.

The other punishments known in England are burning in the hand, transportation, imprisonment, whipping, fines, and standing on the pillory; and are inflicted for the crimes of manslaughter, chance-medley, shop-lifting, perjury, petty larceny, and libelling.

If a person strikes another in the king's court, so as to draw blood, the law condemns him to lose his right hand. If the blow be given in Westminster-Hall while the courts are sitting, the punishment is imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's estate. Drunkards, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being set in the stocks, paying a fine, or commitment to the house of correction.

With respect to marriages, the holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishing or annulling incestuous or other unscriptural marriages, is consequently the province of spiritual courts. The first legal disability is a prior marriage, or having another husband or wife living; in which case, besides the penalties consequent upon it as a felony, the second marriage is to all intents and purposes void, polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Testament, and the policy of all prudent states, especially in these northern climates. The second disability is want of age, which circumstance annuls the contract, on account of the imbecillity of judgment in the parties: the marriage of a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age, is deemed imperfect: but the common law pronounces the marriage good, if the parties are *habiles ad matrimonium*. Another incapacity arises from want of consent of guardians. It has been lately thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns suppose notice) where either of the parties is under twenty-one, not being a widow or widower, who are

supposed free, without the consent of the father, or, if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, shall be absolutely void. Much has been, and may be said, both for and against this innovation upon our ancient laws and constitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandestine marriages of minors, which are often a terrible inconvenience to those private families where they happen; and, on the other, restrains upon marriages, especially among the lower classes, are evidently detrimental to the public, as well as prejudicial to religion and morality. The fourth legal disability is want of reason; without a competent share of which, neither the matrimonial nor any other contract can be valid. Upon the whole, we may collect, that, as the law now stands, no marriage is void by the temporal law, which is celebrated by a person in orders; in a parish church, or public chapel (or elsewhere, by dispensation); in pursuance of banns, or a licence; between single persons; consenting; of sound mind; and of the age of twenty-one years; or of the age of fourteen in males, and twelve in females, with consent of parents or guardians, or without it, in case of widowhood. In the times of civil war, all marriages were performed by the justices of the peace; and these marriages were declared valid in the succeeding reign, as the marriages of Quakers are at present.

Divorces are either total or partial. The total must be on account of consanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecillity; the issue of such marriages are bastards. The other kind of divorce is, when the marriage is just and lawful, but for some supervenient cause it becomes improper or impossible for the parties to live together; and in the case of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either party. In this case, the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has frequently happened of late years) which is an allowance made to the woman for her support, out of her husband's estate, and settled at the discretion of the ecclesiastical judge.

A woman in England, as soon as married, is, with all her moveables, at the will and disposal of her husband; nor can the alienate any thing without his consent; her necessary apparel is not her own property; nay, at the death of her husband, all the personal chattels she possessed at marriage, descend to his executor or administrator. She can make no contract without her husband's consent, no reply without him, in matters of law. On the other hand, he must pay the debts which she has contracted; and if she should injure any person by her tongue or trespass, he will be obliged to make satisfaction. Though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion, such as in felonies, and other inferior crimes, committed by her, but not as to treason or murder. In the civil law, the husband and wife are considered as two distinct persons, and may have separate estates, contracts, debts,

and injuries; and therefore a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband, in the ecclesiastical courts.

The authority of fathers is so absolute in England, that they may give away their unentailed estates from their own children, or bequeath their fortunes to any one child, in preference to all the rest. A youth of fourteen may choose his guardian, and consent to marriage; at twenty-one he is at age to make any contract, deed, or will, and to sit in parliament. The eldest son commonly inherits the landed estate, and the younger children are portioned from the goods and chattels; but in Kent, and some other places, the lands are, by the custom of gavel-kind, equally divided among all the sons.

The revenues of the British government, or, as they are commonly called, the royal revenues, are either ordinary or extraordinary. The king's ordinary revenue is such, as has either subsisted from remote time in the crown, or has been granted by parliament, in exchange for such of the king's inherent hereditary revenues, as were found inconvenient to the subject.

The king's ecclesiastical revenues consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. A corody or pension out of every bishopric; that is, to send one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension allowed him, till the prelate promotes him to a benefice. This is now fallen into disuse. 3. Extraparochial tythes. 4. The first-fruits and tenths of all spiritual livings in the kingdom. Little or no profit arises to the revenue from these four branches, through the bounty of the crown to the church.

The ordinary temporal revenue of the king consists in, 1. The rents and profits of the demesne lands of the crown, which at present are reduced to little or nothing. 2. The hereditary excise, which formerly arose from the profits of the king's military tenures, and from the profitable prerogative of purveyance and preemption. 3. An annual sum of 7000*l.* issuing out of the stamp-duties imposed on wine-licences. 4. His forests, now wholly laid aside. 5. The profits arising from the king's ordinary courts of justice, &c.

These extraordinary grants are called by the synonymous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies, and are granted by the commons of Great-Britain assembled in parliament, who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the quantum of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to consider of the methods necessary to be taken for raising the supply so voted. The resolutions of this committee, when approved of by a vote of the house, are generally considered as final and conclusive; for though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole legislature, yet no man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, on the credit of a vote of the House of Commons, though no law be yet passed to establish it.

There are two kinds of TAXES levied upon the subject, annual and perpetual. The usual annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient subsidy raised upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cyder, and perry. The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs or duties payable upon all merchandize exported and imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition on sundry commodities. 3. The duty on salt. 4. The post-office, or duty for the carriage of letters; the annual amount of this revenue, from 1644 to 1744, gradually increased from 5000*l.* to 198,226*l.* and it is now, by increasing the duty in 1784, and abridging the franking, considerably augmented. 5. The stamp duties, almost innumerable. 6. The duties on houses and windows. 7. The duties on offices and pensions, with a variety of new taxes in 1784, such as, an additional tax on windows, the bill tax, &c. &c. After all charges of collecting and management are paid, the clear nett produce of the several branches of the revenue, old and new, is estimated to amount to about eleven millions sterling, with two millions and a quarter raised at an average by the land and malt-tax. How these prodigious sums are applied, is next to be considered.

The national debt owes its origin to the Revolution, when our new connections with the continental powers of Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics; for large sums being necessary to settle the establishment, and to maintain an expensive war on the continent, in order to reduce the exorbitant power of the French monarchy, which then threatened the liberties of Europe, it was not thought prudent to raise the sums necessary to defray the expences of one year, by taxes levied on the people, during that short period, lest the unusual weight of these taxes should create murmurs and disquiets in the nation. It therefore became necessary to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes on the subject than was necessary to pay the interest of the sums so borrowed, converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferrable at any time, either in whole or in part, from one man to another. This system, which was borrowed from the state of Florence, laid the foundation of what is called the national debt; but a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. hardly deserve the name. This system has been so closely pursued, to the present time, that the capital of the funded debt at Midsummer 1775 was 129,860,000*l.* and the annual charge of it amounted to 4,219,234*l.* 7*s.* The ruinous American war was commencing at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the sinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for supplies, have considerably increased it; for in the course of the said war, from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000*l.* was added to the three per cent, and 26,750,000*l.* to the four per cents, making together

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ther a capital of 73,400,000. for which the money
advanced was only forty-eight millions.

The quantity of property in the kingdom is greatly
increased in idea, when compared with former times;
but if we exactly consider it, not at all in reality. We
may indeed boast of large fortunes and quantities of
money in the funds; but where does this money exist?
It exists only in name, in paper, in public faith, in
parliamentary security. But what is the pledge which
the public faith has pawned for the security of these
debts?—The land, the trade, and the personal industry
of the subject, from which the money must arise that
supplies the public taxes. In these, therefore, and in
these only, the property of the public creditors does
really and intrinsically exist; and of course the land,
the trade, and the personal industry of individuals, are
diminished in their value just so much as they are pledged
to answer.

Time will unfold the future progress of our national
debt, and the calamities towards which it is carrying
us, if the most effectual measures are not adopted and
speedily pursued for a thorough reform. Indisputably
certain it is, that the present magnitude of our national
incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of com-
mercial benefit, and is productive of the greatest incon-
veniences. In the first place, the enormous taxes that
are raised upon the necessaries of life, for the payment
of the interest of this debt, are prejudicial both to trade
and manufactures, by raising the price as well of the
artificer's subsistence, as of the raw material; and, of
course, in a much greater proportion, the price of the
commodity itself. Secondly, if part of this debt be
owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the king-
dom annually a considerable quantity of specie for the
interest; or else it is made an argument to grant them
innumerable privileges, in order to induce them to
reside here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to our
own subjects, it is then charging the industrious subject,
who pays his share of the taxes, to maintain the indol-
ent creditor who receives them; but, which is the
principal injury, it weakens the internal strength of a
state, by anticipating those resources which should be
reserved to defend it in case of necessity.

In treating of the military and marine strength of
Great-Britain, it may be proper to observe, that in ab-
solute monarchies it is necessary to form a distinct order
for the profession of arms, but extremely dangerous in
a land of liberty. No man, in a free state, should take
up arms but with a view to defend his country and its
laws; he puts off the citizen when he enters the camp;
but it is because he is a citizen, and would wish to con-
tinue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier.
Accordingly, the laws and constitution of this country
know no such state as that of a perpetual standing sol-
dier, bred up to no other profession than that of war,
nor had the kings of England so much as a guard about
their persons till the reign of Henry VII.

In the time of our Saxon ancestors, the military
force of this kingdom was in the hands of dukes and
heretocks. Alfred the Great first settled a regular mil-
litia in this kingdom; and, by his prudent manage-
ment, made all the subjects of his dominions soldiers.
Upon the Norman conquest, the feudal law was in-
troduced here in all its rigour, the whole of which is
built upon a military plan. All the lands in England
were divided into what were called knights-fees, amount-
ing to about 60,000; and, for every knight's fee, a
knight or soldier was obliged to attend the king in his
wars, forty days in a year; in which space of time,
before war was reduced to a science, the campaign was
generally finished, and a kingdom either conquered or
rendered victorious. By this means the king, without
the least expence, had an army of 60,000 men always
ready at his command. This personal service, how-
ever, in length of time, degenerated into pecuniary
commutations, or aids, till at last the whole feudal
system was abolished at the Restoration.

This abolition of the military tenures gave occasion
to ascertain the power of the militia; to recognize the
power of the crown to govern and command them,
and to put the whole into a more regular method of
military subordination. The present militia laws are
founded upon these statutes, with the addition of some
new regulations; the general scheme of which is to
discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every
county, chosen by lot for three years, and officered by
the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other
principal landholders, under a commission from the
crown. They are not obliged to march out of their
respective counties, unless in case of invasion or actual
rebellion, nor in any case compellable to march out of
the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times,
and their discipline is in general very easy; but when
called out to actual service they are subject to the ri-
gours of martial law, as necessary to keep them in order
and proper subordination. This is the constitutional
security which our laws have provided for the public
peace, and for protecting the realm against foreign and
domestic violence. The legislature has indeed always
been jealous of standing armies; for king Charles II.
having kept up about 5000 regular troops by his own
authority, for guards and garrisons, which king James II.
by degrees increased to no less than 30,000, all paid
from his own civil list, the parliament was so offended,
that it was made one of the articles in the Bill of
Rights, That the raising up and keeping a standing army
in time of peace, unless it be with consent of parlia-
ment, is illegal.

For many years past it has been annually judged ne-
cessary by the legislature, for the safety of this king-
dom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of
Great-Britain, and the preservation of the balance of
power in Europe, to maintain annually, even in time
of peace, a standing body of troops, under the com-
mand of the crown; but these are, *ipso facto*, disbanded
every

every year, unless continued by parliament. Accordingly, an annual act of parliament passes, "To punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom, and establishes a martial law for their government.

The land forces of Great-Britain maintained in time of peace do not usually exceed 40,000 in number, computing 18,000 in England and Scotland, 12,000 on the Irish establishment, and the remainder in garrisons abroad, at Minorca, Gibraltar, Nova-Scotia, Jamaica, and Antigua. In the war of 1756, however, the nation maintained above 100,000 soldiers, exclusive of marines, and an army of 50,000 Germans on the Continent; and since the American war, there have been in the pay of Great-Britain, natives and foreigners, 135,000 men, besides 42,000 militia.

The British infantry have always been distinguished by a species of courage and intrepidity peculiar to themselves; and the cavalry is beyond all doubt the best in Europe, whether we respect the beauty, size, spirit, and docility of the horses, or the strength, appearance, and gallantry of the dragoons. In a word, the British troops, both horse and foot, are composed of tall, strong, muscular, handsome men, in red uniforms, with facings of various colours, well clothed, armed, and accoutred; inferior to none in exercise and discipline, and superior to all others in martial and military appearance.

Sensible of the great utility of this body of men, the nation has taken care to provide for their support, when they are no longer fit for service. A weekly allowance is to be raised in every county for the relief of sick, hurt, and maimed soldiers: the Royal Hospital was founded wholly for such as are worn out in the defence of their country. A statute is generally enacted at the close of every war, by virtue of which, any officer or soldier that has been in the king's service, is at liberty to use any trade or occupation they are capable of, in any town in the kingdom, the two universities only excepted, notwithstanding any statute, custom, or charter to the contrary.

The maritime power of England has long been considered as our greatest defence and ornament, its ancient and natural strength, and the floating bulwark of the island; hence it is no wonder that the navy of England has for a long series of years engaged the attention of the legislature. The celebrated code of maritime laws, called the laws of Oleron, were compiled by Richard I. on the isle of Oleron on the coast of France, then possessed by the crown of England. A great variety of laws have been since made for the supply of the royal navy with seamen, for their regulation when on board, and to confer privileges and rewards on them during and after their service.

It has long been sincerely wished that some less offensive method than that of impressing could be devised

for manning the royal navy, because it is undoubtedly a gross violation of the rights of mankind, and falls entirely on a set of the bravest and most useful men in the kingdom. About the middle of king William's reign, a scheme was set on foot for a register of seamen to the number of 30,000, for a constant and regular supply of the king's fleet, granting great privileges to the registered men; and, on the other hand, inflicting heavy penalties, in case of their non-appearance when called upon; but this registry being judged to be rather a badge of slavery, it was abolished by a statute passed in the ninth year of queen Anne. Bounties are also generally offered to such as shall enter on board his majesty's fleet in time of war; but these bounties are too small to produce the desired effect, because there is a prodigious disparity between the wages allowed by the king and those given by the merchants, the former being only twenty-two shillings per month, and the latter fifty shillings, or three pounds. Another discouragement to seamen is the unequal division of prize money. On the footing it now stands, the common seamen can have little hopes of ever acquiring any considerable sum. The principal officers indeed are enriched; but the men, to whose valour and intrepidity the nation depends for preservation in the day of public danger, are almost forgotten in the division, though perhaps the greater part of them were forced from their wives and families, and deprived of their rights and liberties.

The discipline of the navy is subject to certain express rules, articles, and orders enacted by the authority of parliament. In these naval articles almost every possible offence is set down, and the punishment there annexed. In this respect the seamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land service, whose articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleasure of the crown. Yet from whence this distinction arose, and why the executive power, which is so properly limited with regard to the navy, should be so extensive with regard to the army, it is difficult to assign a reason, unless it proceeds from the perpetual establishment of the navy, which rendered a permanent law for their regulation expedient; and the temporary duration of the army, which subsisted only from year to year, and might therefore with less danger be subject to discretionary government. But, whatever was apprehended at the first formation of the mutiny act, the regular renewal of our standing forces at the beginning of every year, has made this distinction idle. For if we may judge of future events from past experience, the army is now firmly engrafted into the British constitution; with this singular fortunate circumstance, that any branch of the legislature may annually put an end to its legal existence, by refusing to concur in its continuance.

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The navy of England is at all times superior to any
other maritime power, in number of ships, weight of
metal, and expert mariners; of whom twelve or four-
teen thousand are retained in their service, even in
times of public tranquillity. But the efforts of Great-
Britain by sea on extraordinary occasions, are incon-
ceivable.

A List of the Royal Navy of Great-Britain, as it
stood at the Close of the Year 1793.

RATES.	NUMBER.	MEN.
100 Guns and upward,	7	875 to 830
98 to 90	23	750 to 700
80 to 64	123	650 to 500
60 to 50	26	420 to 380
44 to 32	100	300 to 220
30 to 20	44	200 to 160
Sloops	64	125 to 110
Bombs, Fireships, &c.	15	
Total	402	

Besides a number of Tenders, Cutters, and Royal
Yachts.

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When a ship of war becomes old, or unfit for service,
the name is transferred to another, which is built, as
it is called, upon her bottom; but the name cannot be
changed without an act of parliament, while a single
beam of the old ship remains.

The Old Style, or Julian account of time, was ob-
served in England, till the year 1752, when the New
Style, or Gregorian account was adopted by public au-
thority, and eleven days taken out of the Calendar that
year in the month of September, by which it now
coincides with that observed in most parts of Europe.

The English traders, in numbring cod-fish, ling, and
haddock, reckon one hundred and twenty-four to the
hundred, and of herrings one hundred and twenty;
twelve hundred are given to the thousand, which con-
stitute a barrel, and twelve barrels make a last. In
counting furs, they reckon by the timber, which consists
of forty skins, five score only are allowed to the hun-
dred. Twenty-four sheets of paper make a quire,
twenty quire constitute a ream, ten ream compose a
bale. Twelve skins of parchment make a dozen, and
five dozen a roll. Ten hides are a dicker, and twenty
dickers make a last; but there are ten pair of gloves to
one dicker.

The gold coin of England consists of guineas, half-
guineas, and quarter-guineas, but these last have been
long since discontinued, though the people reckon by
pounds, which at present is an imaginary denomination.
The pound is equal to twenty shillings, and the guinea

amounts to twenty-one; besides the English pieces, the
gold coin of Portugal, called Joannes and Moldores, were
till lately taken by all the dealers in England. Crowns,
half-crowns, shillings, and sixpences, compose the silver
coin that circulates through Great-Britain and Ireland,
and for the convenience of retail, there is an immense
quantity of half-pence and farthings. The value of a
crown is five shillings; a shilling twelve pence; and
four farthings constitute one penny. No person, how-
ever, is obliged to receive copper money in payment of
any sum above one shilling. The pound, or twelve
ounces troy weight of gold, is divided at the mint into
forty-four guineas and a half; one ounce of gold is worth
fourteen ounces and one third of an ounce in silver; so
that the proportion of gold to silver in England is as
one to fourteen, and one third. Besides the coins we
have already mentioned, there are some five and two
guinea pieces of gold, as well as four-penny, three-
penny, two-penny, and penny pieces in silver; but these
are rather preserved as medals than used in circulation.

Of weights there are two sorts used in England;
namely, troy-weight and avoirdupois; to reckon by the
first, twenty-four grains of wheat make one penny-
weight sterling; twenty penny-weights make one ounce;
and twelve ounces constitute a pound. By this they
weigh bread, corn, gold, silver, jewels, and liquors.
But all other articles, such as haberdashery and grocery
ware, metals, wood, and tallow, are computed by avoi-
dupois, in which sixteen drachms make one ounce;
sixteen ounces one pound, twenty-eight pounds a quar-
ter, four quarters one hundred, and twelve hundred
one ton.

The English measures consist of the inch, foot, yard,
fathom, perch or pole, furlong, and mile. An inch is
equal to three barley-corns; twelve inches make one
foot; three feet are equal to one yard; two yards make
one fathom; sixteen feet and an half constitute one
perch, pole, or rod; forty poles make a furlong, and
eight furlongs make an English mile, amounting to
seventeen hundred and sixty yards, according to act of
parliament. An English acre consists of forty perches
in length, and four in breadth; and an hundred acres
are accounted an hide of land. There are also various
measures, both for liquids and solids. The smallest
measure for liquids is called a pint; two pints make
a quart; two quarts make a pottle; two pottles
make a gallon; eight gallons a firkin; two firkins a
kilderkin; two kilderkins a barrel, and twelve bar-
rels a last of ale; but in reckoning beer, nine gal-
lons are allowed to the firkin; two firkins to the kil-
derkin; two kilderkins to the barrel; one barrel and an
half to a hoghead; two hogheads to a pipe or butt;
and two pipes to a tun. The wine measures are smel-
ler than those of ale or beer, nearly in the proportion
of four to five; four gallons of beer measure are almost
equal to five gallons of wine. A runlet of wine holds
eighteen gallons; and half an hoghead contains thirty-
one gallons and an half; forty-two gallons go to the
tierce;

tierce; sixty-three to the hoghead; eighty-four to the puncheon; one hundred and twenty-six to the pipe; and two hundred and fifty-two to the tun.

For measuring dry commodities, such as grain, the gallon is between the wine and ale measure, holding as much as will weigh nine pounds thirteen ounces twelve drachms and an half of avoirdupois. Two of those gallons make a peck; four pecks a bushel; four bushels the comb, or curnock; two curnocks a quarter, seam, or ruff; and ten quarters a last; thirty-six bushels of coals constitute a chaldron.

The title of the king of England is,—By the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. Henry VIII. assumed the designation of Majesty, that he might be on a footing with the emperor Charles V. for before that time, Your Grace or Highness was always used; nor was it totally abolished till about the reign of queen Elizabeth.

The royal achievement (arms) borne by the reigning family is thus marshalled, quarterly: in the first grand quarter, Mars, three lions passant-guardant in pale, Sol, the imperial ensigns of England: these are impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, consisting of Sol, a lion rampant within a double tressure flowered and counter-flowered, with fleurs de lis, Mars. The second quarter contains the arms of France, namely Jupiter, three fleurs de lis, Sol. The third, for Ireland, exhibits Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed, Luna. In the fourth grand quarter is represented his present majesty's own coat of arms, being Mars, two lions passant-guardant, Sol, for Brunswick, impaled with Lunenburg, giving Sol, semée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter, having for ancient Saxony, Mars, an horse current, Luna, grafted in base; and in a shield surmount, Mars, the diadem, or a crown of Charlemagne; the whole surrounded with a garter, as sovereign of that order. Above the helmet, as the emblem of sovereign jurisdiction, is an imperial crown; the crest, a lion passant-guardant crowned with the like: the supporters, a lion rampant-guardant, Sol, crowned as the former; and an unicorn, Luna, gorged with a crown, and chained. The royal motto, assumed in the reign of Richard I. is, *Dieu et mon droit*, implying, "that the king of England holds his crown of God only." The table of the compartment is adorned with the rose and thistle intermingled, as the emblem of England and Scotland. The white rose was anciently the armorial bearing of the house of York; and the red, together with a port-cullis, that of the house of Lancaster. The thistle was very significant, when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune lacessit*, None shall provoke me with impunity.

The eldest son of the king of England is born duke of Cornwall, and afterwards created prince of Wales, with letters-patent, by which the said principality and a certain revenue are granted to him. He bears the king's arms, with the addition of a label of three points,

charged with nine torteaux; his device being a coronet beautified with three ostrich feathers, inscribed *Ich dien*, signifying in the German language, "I serve."

All degrees of nobility are derived from the king, as their fountain; and he may institute what new titles he pleases. The right of peerage seems indeed to have been originally territorial; that is, annexed to lands, honours, castles, manors, and the like, the proprietors and possessors of which were, in right of those estates, allowed to be peers of the realm, and were summoned to parliament to do suit and service to their sovereign: and when the land was alienated, the dignity passed with it as appendant. Thus the bishops still sit in the House of Lords in right of succession to certain ancient baronies annexed, or supposed to be annexed, to their episcopal lands.

Peers are now created either by writ or by patent: for those who claim by prescription, must suppose either a writ or patent made to their ancestors, though by length of time it is lost. The creation by writ, or the king's letter, which is the more ancient method, is a summons to attend the House of Peers, by the style and title of that barony which the king is pleased to confer: that by patent is a royal grant to a subject of any dignity and degree of peerage.

The present nobility of England are at once numerous and wealthy; enjoy many honourable privileges, but possess no power incompatible with the rights and liberties of their fellow-subjects. The majority of them live with great magnificence, especially at their country-seats, which are indeed elegant palaces, adorned with beautiful gardens, ponds, parks, and plantations. No country in Europe can produce such a number of noblemen living in all the pomp of affluence and all the delights of independence, secured by the law from the arm of arbitrary power, and, in their turn, disabled by the law from exercising the rod of oppression. They are distinguished by the different titles of duke, marquis, earl, viscount, and baron; and, according to these degrees, take precedence of one another. But they are all equally peers of England, and all sit in the House of Lords, which is the supreme court of judicature in England.

The person of a peer is sacred from arrest, except in case of treason, felony, breach of the peace, condemnation in parliament, or contempt of the king. In these cases he cannot be tried but by a jury of peers: he cannot be impanelled on any jury of inquest: he cannot be bound to his good behaviour, nor obliged to swear in any court of justice, but only to declare upon his honour. In case of lawful absence, he can constitute a proxy to vote for him in parliament; a privilege which no commoner enjoys. He is exempted from all attendance at sheriffs turns and leets, where other subjects are obliged to take the oath of allegiance, as also from joining the *passé comitatus*, when it is raised by the sheriff to suppress routs and riots. He cannot be outlawed in any civil action, nor pressed

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and when condemned to die, he is indulged with the
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The sons of nobility have certain titles by courtesy,
according to the rank of their fathers; but the law
ranks them among the commons of England. Thus,
the eldest son of a duke is denominated marquis, or earl;
and the youngest sons are saluted by the appellation of
My Lord. The first son of a marquis or earl is de-
nominated lord of some barony belonging to his father,
and his brothers are likewise addressed by the title of
Lord John, or Lord William. The sisters enjoy the
honourable title of Lady, in the same manner; but this
courtesy is not extended to the younger children of
barons and baronets.

The baronets of England were so called as being
denoted an inferior kind of barons, in Latin *baronuli*,
baroncelli and *baronetti*, constituted in the room of the old
barons, to hold a middle place between the parliamen-
tary barons and the different orders of knights. They
were created by James the First, who bestowed this
hereditary honour as an encouragement to those of his
subjects who assisted in the reduction of the province
of Ulster in Ireland. No person could be admitted
into this order unless he was a gentleman by blood,
of unblemished morals, and possessed a yearly revenue
of one thousand pounds in land; and the express con-
dition of his admission was, that he should maintain
forty soldiers for three years on the military establish-
ment of Ireland. As an armorial badge of distinction,
he wears in a canton of his escutcheon a bloody hand,
the arms of Ulster. The number of baronets was,
at first, restricted to 200, but now it is enlarged with-
out limitation. The title of baronet is conferred by
warrant under the great seal, and descends to heirs male:
like other knights, he is distinguished by the appel-
lative *Sir* prefixed to his Christian name in speaking
and writing. He takes precedence of all other knights,
except those of the garter, and baronets created in the
field of battle. He is entitled to an honourable place
in the king's army, near the royal standard; and his
eldest son, by virtue of a peculiar privilege when of
age, has a right to the honour of knighthood, when-
ever it shall be demanded. The wives of baronets are
peers, and take place before the wives of all knights
whatsoever.

There are two grand orders of knighthood in Eng-
land, namely, those of the GARTER and the BATH.
The order of St. George, or the garter, is one of the
most ancient and honourable institutions of lay knights
now extant. It was founded by Edward the Third.
The order of the garter is a college or corporation,
consisting of the sovereign and twenty-five companions,
twelve knights of the garter, of a dean, canons, petit
crosses, vergers, and other inferior officers; and of
twenty-six poor knights, who receive their mainte-
nance from the college, as a reward for military ser-
vice; and in consideration of the prayers they put up

for the sovereign and the twenty-five companions. The
intention of this charity is now however perverted, and
this allowance bestowed on superannuated butlers and
serving men. There are other officers belonging to
the order of the garter, which is dedicated to St.
George, the tutelary saint and patron of England; such
as that of prelate of the garter, annexed to the bishopric
of Winchester; the chancellorship, veited in the bishop
of Salisbury; and the registry, belonging to the dean
of Windsor. There is a principal king at arms, called
Garter, whose province it is to marshal the solemnities
of feasts and installations: finally the usher of the
black rod is likewise usher of the garter. The seat of
the order is the castle of Windsor, consisting of the
chapter-house, the hall, and chapel of St. George. A
knight of this order is distinguished by a blue garter,
with a gold buckle worn on the left leg, and inscribed,
Honi soit qui mal y pense, signifying, *Shame to him who
thinks evil of, or puts a bad construction on, this order*;
by a silver star on the left breast, enamelled with gold
and set with diamonds, hanging at the end of a broad
blue ribband that crosses the body from the left shoulder.
The greatest monarchs of Europe have been members
of this institution.

The order of the BATH was first instituted by Henry
IV. and took their denomination from bathing on the
eve of their admission. The order, which had grown
obsolete, was revived by king George the First, in the
year 1725, when eighteen noblemen, and as many
commoners were installed knights of the bath with
great ceremony at Westminster. Their number is
limited to forty-six; and they are distinguished by a star
on the breast, and a broad red ribband worn like a belt
over the shoulder.

Knights bachelors, or *equites aurati*, so called from
their gilt spurs, were anciently gentlemen who dis-
tinguished themselves by their valour, and the honour
was in very high esteem: but the original institution,
being perverted, it is now conferred indiscriminately
upon gowndsmen, burghers, physicians, by the king's
lightly touching them on the right shoulder with a
drawn sword: accordingly the title has lost much of
its former dignity.

The gentlemen of England are comprehended under
the general denomination of esquires, or *armigeri*, the
title formerly given to those among the gentry who
acted as armour-bearers in war to the prince and prime
nobility. Though the right of this title is limited to
persons of a certain rank, such as the sons of barons,
and gentlemen whose ancestors have been always free,
and borne a coat of arms, mayors of towns, coun-
sellors at law, bachelors of divinity, law or physic;
yet it is indiscriminately given to all those who maintain
the appearance of gentlemen. The highest order of
plebeians are the freeholders, called yeomen, from the
Saxon word *gemani*, which signifies *common*. These
are the husbandmen and farmers, who hold lands and
tenements inheritable by a perpetual right to them and
their.

their heirs for ever. The next class of people are the merchants and traders, greatly and deservedly respected in England, on account of their riches as well as their profession, which contributes so essentially to the wealth and power of the nation.

A Comprehensive HISTORY of ENGLAND.

It would be a vain attempt to search into the origin of the ancient inhabitants of England; the whole is concealed under the veil of fiction and obscurity, over which the glimmering rays of uncertain tradition only diffuse a feeble and deceptive light. The most probable opinion, however, seems to be, that they came from the neighbouring continent of the Celts, or Gauls, that settled on the opposite shore; long before their country was known to the Romans. But from whatever source they derived their origin, the ancient Britons were a rude warlike people, living in hovels erected within the covert of thick and almost impenetrable woods. They painted their bodies with wood, and gave them a blueish or greenish cast, and had no other covering than the skins of beasts, casually thrown over them, without being shaped into any kind of garment; and they are said to have had the figures of animals and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages, they were not very delicate, for they formed themselves into a kind of 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. They sowed corn, though it is likely they lived chiefly on animal food and milk. They were amazingly dextrous in the management of their chariots; and, fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconveniency attending it.

Such were the ancient Britons, when Julius Cæsar, about fifty-two years before the Christian æra, invaded their country; and after a long and bloody war, England was reduced to a province of the Roman empire. But the spirit of freedom was not so easily subdued; the Romans were obliged to maintain their conquest by a military force, with which they gradually incorporated the flower of the British youth. This force was divided into different parties, and placed at convenient stations all over the province: the Roman governor, for the time being, was supreme ruler of the country.

During the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, the Britons lived rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great-Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which

he seems to have been successful against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicia though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicia being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South-Britain, carried his arms northwards, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely disputed.

While the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls, so often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts. But in the year 426, the barbarous nations of the North, breaking into the Roman empire, rendered it necessary to recall the legions stationed in Britain: when the emperor Honorius renounced his sovereignty of the country, and released the inhabitants from their allegiance.

On the departure of the Roman legions, in which all the natives, whom they had intrusted with military knowledge, were incorporated, the island was left in a feeble and defenceless state. The Scots, a cruel and rapacious people, who inhabited the country to the northward of the Roman provinces, no sooner perceived the weakness of their southern neighbours, than they invaded their country, and committed the most dreadful outrages; the tracts of their irruptions were marked with blood and devastation; the northern parts of the once flourishing provinces of the Romans were totally wasted with fire and sword, and the wretched inhabitants, destitute at once of forces and general, capable of repelling the cruel ravages of their barbarous enemies, became an easy prey. Reduced to this dreadful state, the Britons had recourse to the Saxons, a warlike people of Scandinavia, for protection; offering to give, as a reward for their services, the Isle of Thanet, a small tract of land separated by a narrow channel from the county of Kent. The offer was accepted, and the Saxons, together with a great number of Angles, a people of Jutland, landed in England. The Britons, headed by these auxiliaries, were soon too strong for the Scots, who were defeated in several engagements, and driven back to their own country. These victories, however, were far from restoring peace to the harassed Britons: Hengist and Horsa, the two Saxon generals, looked with contempt on the small spot of land assigned them and their followers, as a reward for their services, and meditated the conquest of the whole island.

The first step towards this great design was easily accomplished by Hengist, who persuaded Vortigern, the British king, that, as his subjects understood very little of agriculture, it would be of infinite advantage to

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fertile a country, if he would suffer a number of Saxons to be sent for to cultivate the soil. Accordingly as many of those people embarked as sixteen ships would contain; but they had not long been in this island before they threw off the mask, and convinced the wretched Britons that they had inadvertently consented to their own destruction. The pretence assigned by the Saxons for commencing hostilities was, that Hengist's troops had not been rewarded according to agreement, and that they had an undoubted right to satisfy themselves. A long and terrible war ensued; a great number of battles were fought, in which the Saxons were generally victorious, and the Britons forced at last to retire into Wales. Having thus no enemy in the field to contend with, the victors divided England into seven kingdoms, termed the Saxon heptarchy; namely, Kent; South-Sex, or the South-Saxons; West-Sex, or the West-Saxons; East-Sex, or the East-Saxons; Northumberland; the East-Angles, and Mercia.

Soon after this establishment, Christianity, or rather Popery, was introduced into England by pope Gregory the Great. For that purpose, about the year 596, he sent over to England the famous Austin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people; and also Sebert, king of the East-Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then, by his master's order, attempted to bring the churches in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Easter; but finding a stout resistance on the part of the bishops and clergy, he persuaded his Christian converts to massacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 priests and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a state of slavery, which some think gave rise to the ancient villenage in England. Austin is accounted the first archbishop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did soon after. The pope, in Austin's time, supplied England with about 400 monks, and the Popish clergy took care to keep their kings and under the most deplorable ignorance, but always magnified the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks; and, as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days; and such was the Papistical tyranny in these early times, that no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the West-Saxons, though in other respects he was a wise and brave prince. The contributions of those Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome was unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, because paid on the holiday

of St. Peter ad vincula, August 1. This tax was imposed at first for the support of a college at Rome for the education of English youth, founded by Ina, king of Wessex, under the name of Rome-scol, but in process of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his successors.

A black cloud of barbarous ignorance covered the whole country during the Saxon heptarchy. Continual wars among themselves, blended with the most shocking crimes, furnish the few historical transactions that have reached our time. These continual tumults and disorders hastened the destruction of the heptarchy, which was abolished by Egbert, the last king of the West-Saxons, who annexed the other six kingdoms to his own, about the year 819.

Egbert, the eldest branch of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in England, and related to Birthric, king of the West-Saxons, was in his early youth obliged to leave his country to avoid the effects of that prince's jealousy. Fortunately for Egbert, Charlemagne, the most accomplished prince of his age, then swayed the sceptre of France. The prince found there a generous protector, and under him he learned the arts of war and government. About the year 800, Birthric paid the debt of nature, and the West-Saxons earnestly solicited Egbert to return to his native land, and take possession of the crown of his ancestors. He immediately complied with their request, and no sooner found himself settled on the throne, than he took such measures as in a short time rendered him the sole monarch of the seven provinces of the heptarchy. Peace being thus restored, Egbert was solemnly crowned king at Winchester. Soon after he changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-land or England.

The Danes, who about the year 822 were a powerful people, had long infested the British seas, and made descents upon the coasts of Kent and Dorsetshire. Egbert marched against them, but from the sovereign contempt he entertained of these pirates, marched at the head of a small number of forces, and was defeated. The Danes, however, did not long enjoy the fruits of their victory: for about two years after he attacked them with such impetuosity, that they were obliged to abandon the kingdom; nor did they ever venture to return till after his death, which happened in 838.

Ethelwolf, son of Egbert, proved a weak and indolent prince, without the least tincture of his father's virtues; he was scarcely seated on the throne, before the Danes appeared again upon the coasts, and the English being unable to oppose their ravages, they fixed themselves in the island, which soon became one continued scene of bloodshed and devastation. They however received a severe check from Athelstan, son to Ethelwolf, and his partner in the regal authority; but this was not sufficient to prevent their forming a settlement in the Isle of Thanet, where they employed themselves in collecting arms and force sufficient to

extend their settlements in England. It would naturally be supposed that Ethelwolf endeavoured to counteract the designs of his barbarous enemy; but so far was that indolent prince from taking the necessary precautions against the invaders of his kingdom, that he abandoned it to their ravages; and fired with the enthusiasm of monkish devotion, visited the pope at Rome, taking with him his youngest son, afterwards the Great Alfred.

Ethelwolf at his death, which happened in 857, divided his dominions between his two eldest sons (Athelstan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, whose joint reign affords no transaction worthy to be recorded. Ethelbald died first; and Ethelbert, at his decease, named his brother Ethelred for his successor, pursuant to the will of his father, though two sons of his own were then living. During the reign of Ethelred, the Danes, notwithstanding the valiant efforts of the king, and his brother Alfred, made themselves masters of many of the finest counties in England, and were almost entirely masters of the sea-coast, when, by the death of Ethelred, Alfred ascended the throne. This event happened in 872.

Alfred came to the crown at a time when his kingdom was falling a prey to barbarous invaders, and his subjects worn out with frequent wars. Such was his courage and conduct, that, though during the struggle he had once entirely lost his dominions, and was reduced for a time to the servile state of a cow-herd; yet before his death, which happened in the year 900, he had not only recovered the crown, but added new lustre to it by his conquests over the Danes, whom he obliged to swear obedience to his government. Even the inhabitants of Wales, who had lived in a perpetual state of enmity with the Saxons, courted his protection. The virtues of this monarch justly acquired him the epithet of Great, and his excellent laws, that of "The Father of the English Constitution." One of the principal glories of his reign was that of giving birth to a maritime power in England. Convinced that the superiority of numbers in his enemies would always be against him, unless he could acquire the dominion of the sea, he carefully observed the manner in which the Danes constructed their vessels, and having made improvements upon their art, ordered a number of galleys to be built, some of which carried sixty rowers, and were, though more lofty and of greater bulk, swifter sailers than the Danish ships. He revived the use of juries, which had lain dormant for some time. He gave great encouragement to navigation and commerce, which, even in that early period, he brought to some degree of perfection. He introduced buildings of brick and stone, materials till then used only in erecting churches. His treatment of corrupt judges was truly exemplary; he caused several of them to be hung up by the sides of high roads, as an example to deter others from the like destructive practices. A scholar himself, he admired and rewarded those who

were fond of the sciences, and invited several learned men into his dominions. In a word, if Alfred were not the greatest, he may be justly esteemed equal to any other monarch that ever swayed the English sceptre, and has obtained the highest character from the historians of all ages.

Edward, commonly called the Elder, to distinguish him from Edward the Confessor, succeeded his father Alfred. This prince reigned twenty-seven years, during which he was engaged in several wars against the Danes, and was generally victorious. The king of Scotland also, who had entered into an alliance with these invaders, was glad to purchase a peace by consenting to hold his dominions in vassalage to the crown of England. Nor were the Danes and Scots the only enemies Edward had to contend with. In the year 900, an insurrection happened in Wales, headed by Leofred, a Dane, and Griffith ap Madoc, brother-in-law to the prince of West-Wales. These two, at the head of a formidable army, had advanced as far as Chester, before Edward was in a condition to oppose their progress; but coming up with them at Sherwood, a battle ensued, wherein Griffith was killed, Leofred taken prisoner, and their whole army put to flight. Edward having thus subdued all his enemies, turned his thoughts to the improvement of his conquests, and the well governing of his subjects. He enacted the most salutary laws, and took care to put them strictly in execution. Edward dying in 927, was succeeded by his eldest son,

Athelstan, at the beginning of whose reign the Danes once more renewed their barbarous ravages; and his whole reign was one continued scene of war with these restless invaders, the Scots, the English, and other neighbouring powers. These commotions, however, did not divert his attention from the welfare of his people. The encouragement of commerce seems to have been his chief delight. He also encouraged coinage; and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. He enacted many excellent laws, and one in particular, whereby every merchant who had, on his own account, made three voyages to the Mediterranean, was put upon the same footing with athane, or nobleman of the first rank. He died in 941, and, leaving no issue, was succeeded by his brother,

Edmund I. whose reign, and those of his successors, Edred and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests.

Edgar mounted the throne about the year 959, but like Ethred, his brother, he was the dupe of priests, particularly Dunstan. During his reign, which upon the whole was not inglorious, he ceded to the Scots all the territory north of Severus's wall, and revived the naval glory of England. He died in 975, and his eldest son,

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Edward, next ascended the throne; but by the in-
trigues of his step-mother, Elfrida, was soon deprived
of both his crown and life; and in 978, was suc-
ceeded by

Ethelred, son to Elfrida. In his reign, the English
nation was, by the help of priests, over-run with bar-
barians, and the Danes had by degrees possessed them-
selves of the finest parts of England, and left Ethelred
in no condition to dislodge them. To get rid of them,
he agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by
way of tax, and called Danegelt, being the first land-
tax in England. In 1002, they had made such terri-
ble ravages in the country, that Ethelred was obliged to give
way to a general massacre for their extirpation. But
whether this cruel design was executed entirely, or
only in part, is uncertain; it was however severely re-
proached by Swein, the Danish king, who in 1013 laid
the country waste with fire and sword, and even
obliged Ethelred, with his queen and two sons, to fly
into Normandy, where they remained till Swein paid
the debt of nature. Immediately after his death, not-
withstanding Canute had been proclaimed king of Eng-
land by the Danes, Ethelred returned; and having
forced Canute to retire into Denmark, was once more
militated in his kingdom. Canute, however, soon col-
lected a numerous fleet, and in 1016 once more in-
vaded England. Just at that period Ethelred died, and
his son, Edmund II. surnamed Ironside (from his great
bodily strength) after fighting several battles with the
Danes, in order to prevent a further effusion of human
blood, consented to divide the kingdom with Canute.
This division was soon terminated by the death of
Edmund, who was assassinated by one of his courtiers;
hoping, by that cruel act, to ingratiate himself with
Canute: but that monarch no sooner found himself
firmly fixed on the throne of England, than he caused
the traitor's head to be struck off, as a just reward for
his horrid service.

Canute's reign was very favourable to the English,
whom he incorporated with the Danes, and treated
with the utmost tenderness. He was engaged in several
wars, which he always finished with honour, and at
the time of his death, which happened in 1039, the
nation enjoyed a profound peace. He left three sons,
Swein, Harold, and Hardicanute, who all succeeded
to the crown of England; but their behaviour was fo-
lial and detestable, that the very government of the
Danes became odious to the English; they therefore
on the demise of Hardicanute, which happened in
1042, restored the family of Ethelred to the throne,
in the person of Edward, commonly called the Con-
fessor.

Edward, for some time, suffered himself to be en-
tirely governed by earl Goodwin, whose daughter he
had married, and by whose arts he was placed on the
throne, in preference to Edward, son of Edmund II.
But the insolence of this nobleman and his sons arose
to such a pitch, that they were banished by the king,

who, however, afterwards thought proper to recall
and reinstate them in their power. Edward repulsed
the Danes, who had made a descent at Sandwich.
Siward, one of his generals, routed the Scots, and
killed their king, Macbeth. Alfgar, an English noble-
man, and Griffin, king of Wales, made an irpad into
England, and took and plundered Hereford, but were
at length totally routed by Harold, son to earl Good-
win; so that Edward, either in person, or by his
generals, obtained the victory over every power against
whom he directed his arms. This monarch collected
the laws of the Danes, Saxons, and Mercians, which
he digested into one body, and called it "The com-
mon law of England." Being like most of his pre-
decessors, a great friend to the monks; he founded
many religious houses, and rebuilt the Abbey at West-
minster, where he was buried in the year 1065. Edward
dying without issue,

Harold, son to earl Goodwin, was raised to the throne
in preference to Edgar Atheling, grandson to Edmund
Ironside, and the only surviving prince of the ancient
kings of England. Some authors assert, that Edward
had appointed William, duke of Normandy, his suc-
cessor, while others maintain it was only a pretence
made use of by William for invading England. How-
ever that be, he actually landed on the coast of Suffex,
in the year 1066, without opposition; Harold being
then employed in repulsing the Danes, who had made
fresh inroads into England. William was at the head
of forty thousand men, all veteran troops, and com-
manded by the bravest officers in Europe. He was met
by Harold, at Hastings, and a most dreadful engage-
ment ensued, wherein Harold was slain, and the con-
queror, with very little difficulty, ascended the English
throne.

William, in the beginning of his reign, gave the
English a flattering prospect of a just and mild ad-
ministration; but they soon found themselves deceived,
for, having given them cause of complaint in the par-
tiality shewn upon every occasion to the Normans,
they broke out into open rebellion, and endeavoured
to place Edgar Atheling upon the throne. The attempt
proved abortive; and William, in revenge for their
conspiracies, deprived them of all their possessions,
which he divided among the Normans, and such of the
English as had remained faithful to him. He abolished
the Anglo-Saxon laws, and introduced those of Nor-
mandy: built great numbers of forts all over the
country, and disarmed the old inhabitants: instituted
the curfew bell, which was rung every evening at
eight o'clock, and at the found of which the Anglo-
Saxons were obliged to extinguish their candles and
fires. He also seized the treasures belonging to their
monasteries, under pretence that the rebels had con-
cealed their most valuable effects in these religious
structures; imposed the tenure of knight's service
upon all lands held of the crown: caused a general
survey of all the lands in England to be made, and an
account

Account to be taken of the villains, slaves, and live stock, upon each estate; all which was recorded in Doom-day-Book. He would not suffer the English to hunt or fell timber in his forests, without leave first obtained from him. He obliged them to use the Norman language upon all occasions, and ordered it to be taught in schools. In a word, during his reign, England was treated in every respect as a conquered country. He died in the year 1087, and was succeeded by his second son,

William II. surnamed Rufus, who, pursuant to the will of his father, had disinherited Robert, his eldest son, for being concerned in a conspiracy against him. This engaged the two brothers in perpetual wars with each other: but the crusades to the Holy Land being set on foot about this time, Robert engaged in an expedition to Asia, and, having occasion for a sum of money to defray the necessary expences of this undertaking, he mortgaged his duchy of Normandy to the king of England for ten thousand marks of silver. William was continually engaged in subduing his rebellious subjects, and repelling the incursions of the Welsh and Scots; the latter of whom asserted the right of Edgar Atheling to the crown of England. These successive commotions obliged him to raise large sums of money, which he usually levied on the clergy, as most able to bear the burden: but these being the only historians of that age, they have loaded his memory with the crimes of rapaciousness and oppression. William's death happened in the year 1100, and the 44th year of his age, when, being on a hunting party, he was accidentally shot by one of his attendants. This monarch built part of the Tower of London, and Westminster-Hall: and in his reign happened the inundation which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin's estate in Kent, and formed those shallows, so well known by the appellation of the Goodwin-Sands. William II. having no issue, was succeeded by his younger brother

Henry, surnamed Beauclerk, on account of his learning, who, taking advantage of Robert's absence, seized upon the crown, to which he had no just pretensions during the life of his elder brother. Robert, on his return from the Holy Land, endeavoured to obtain his right, by invading England; but lost his duchy of Normandy, together with his liberty, in the attempt, and, after a long imprisonment, died in Cardiff-Castle. Henry was next engaged in a long but successful war against France; and afterwards subdued the Welsh, who had taken up arms against him. By a charter granted to his subjects, he confirmed several privileges they had enjoyed under the Saxon kings, and reformed the abuses which had crept into the court. In his reign, however, the clergy formed themselves into a kind of separate body, dependent on the pope only, which afterwards created great confusion in the nation. Henry died of a surfeit in the 78th year of his age, in 1135, having previously settled the succession on his daughter, the empress Matilda, or Maud, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of

Anjou; her first husband was Henry IV. emperor of Germany. But Matilda and her son being abroad at the time of Henry's death, the crown was claimed and seized by

Stephen, earl of Blois, son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. A dreadful civil war ensued, and the kingdom was torn to pieces by intestine divisions. The empress Matilda thought this a proper opportunity to assert her right, together with that of her son. Accordingly she landed in England in the year 1139, attended by no more than 140 men; but being continually reinforced by her friends as she advanced, she was soon in a condition of facing Stephen's forces, and several skirmishes happened between the two armies: at last, on the second of February 1141, a general engagement ensued, wherein the king's army was defeated, and himself taken prisoner. Matilda, however, having, by her folly and unbounded ambition, rendered herself odious to the greater part of the nation, particularly to the clergy, who, by this time had arrived at the most intolerable height of insolence, she was driven out of the kingdom, and Stephen re-instated on his throne. He did not long, however, enjoy the peace he thus acquired; Henry, son to the empress Matilda, considering Stephen as an usurper, applied to the king of Scotland, his great uncle, for assistance; and, being assured of the countenance of the clergy, he entered England, and the nation became once more a scene of anarchy and confusion. At length a peace was concluded between the two contending princes, whereby it was agreed that Stephen should enjoy the crown during his life, and Henry succeed to it after his decease. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received with great joy by the English, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars. Stephen dying in 1154,

Henry II. peaceably ascended the throne, and began his reign by sending all the foreigners, particularly the Flemings whom Stephen had called over to his assistance, out of the kingdom. The dreadful scenes of murder and confusion that had attended the civil wars, having convinced Henry that many forts and castles belonging to private persons were destructive of the public tranquillity, he demolished them all, except such as he thought necessary for the safety of his kingdom. He was a great encourager of trade and manufactures; incorporated several towns, and granted such power to the boroughs in England, that, if a bondman or servant remained in any of them a year and a day, he became a freeman by such residence. This law gave a severe blow to the feudal power of the barons. He revoked all the donations his predecessor had made, and resumed the crown lands which Stephen had alienated.

He endeavoured to curb the insolence of the clergy, particularly that of Becket, archbishop of Canterbury, and, by that means, embroiled himself with the see of Rome. The haughty prelate, finding himself supported by the pope, treated the king with the utmost insolence

and contempt, to such a pitch, that no one who will be a judicious priest, will again, it was over-ruled, forming Henry, intention, they to the altar of h is no doubt but delivered from thought proper to please the public in being privy he suffered his pretended martyr. Henry was thobles and persona the custom, which the kings of Eng coronation three use of glass wine building; but, in this monarch, no that relative to th absurd practice o on the coast, wa mal was found o restored to the o This prince w land, France, W conquered, and g the title of grand Scotland prisoner for his ransom; an honourable pe ing Henry's gre fences of misery, of his sons, who his avowed enem detestable practic revenge for the a women, particula peared misfortun great prince, and the demise of his Richard I. sur throne, and disti raising an army of faction of the cle a most magnific Land, where he t many other acts o he was treacherou Austria, who had where, being dig by this haughty n he was passing thr prison. The emp

and contempt, which raised the resentment of Henry to such a pitch, that he one day exclaimed—"Is there no one who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest!" His exclamation was not made in vain, it was overheard by four knights, and without informing Henry, who was then in Normandy, of their intention, they came over to England, and slew Becket at the altar of his own church in Canterbury. There is no doubt but Henry was secretly pleased to be thus delivered from the overbearing churchman; but he thought proper to dissemble his satisfaction, and to appease the public resentment, which the supposition of his being privy to the murder had raised against him, he suffered himself to be scourged at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry was the first who levied a tax on the moveables and personal estates of his subjects. He abolished the custom, which had been for some time practised by the kings of England, of repeating the ceremony of their coronation three times in a year. He introduced the use of glass windows into England, and stone arches in building: but, among all the excellent laws made by this monarch, none redounds more to his honour than that relative to shipwrecks, whereby the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships, which had been lost on the coast, was abolished, and, if either man or animal was found on board alive, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners.

This prince was engaged in perpetual wars with Scotland, France, Wales, and Ireland; the last he entirely conquered, and governed by an officer, to whom he gave the title of grand justiciary. He took William, king of Scotland prisoner, and obliged him to pay 100,000*l.* for his ransom; and, just before his death, concluded an honourable peace with France. But, notwithstanding Henry's great successes, his life was a continual scene of misery, occasioned by the successive rebellions of his sons, who did not scruple to act in concert with his avowed enemies. They were encouraged in these detestable practices by their mother, queen Eleanor, in revenge for the attachment shewn by Henry to other women, particularly the fair Rosamond. These repeated misfortunes at length broke the spirit of that great prince, and he died of grief in the year 1189. On the demise of his father,

Richard I. surnamed Cœur de Lion, ascended the throne, and distinguished the beginning of his reign by raising an army of 35,000 men, with whom, by the persuasion of the clergy, and for their own ends, he made a most magnificent but ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Acon and Acalon, and performed many other acts of valour. But, on his return to England, he was treacherously taken prisoner by Leopold, duke of Austria, who had served under him at the siege of Acon, where, being disgusted at an insult offered to his standard by this haughty monarch, he caused him to be seized as he was passing through his dominions, and thrown into prison. The emperor Henry VI. who also considered Ri-

chard as an enemy, on account of an alliance contracted by him with Tancred, king of Sicily, offered the duke a large sum of money if he would deliver the royal captive into his hands. Leopold readily consented; and, while England was distracted with intestine commotions, her king was confined in a dungeon by the faithless and avicious Germans. He continued in this dismal situation till the exorbitant sum of 300,000*l.* of our present money was paid for his ransom. This sum will appear still greater, when we consider that, at this time, an ox sold for 3*s.* which answers to 9*s.* of our money, and a sheep at 4*d.* or 1*s.*

Richard, at his return to his dominions, was received with universal joy by his subjects, but found every thing in the utmost confusion, by the treachery of his brother John, in whose favour France had invaded this kingdom. However, he seems to have held John in too much contempt to exert that revenge which he doubtless had in his power: his mind was fixed on more important objects; he listened to the overtures of the emperor Henry VI. who, ashamed of the treatment he had insisted on Richard, now solicited his friendship and assistance against the king of France. War was accordingly declared against that monarch, but soon after terminated by a truce of five years; and the renewal of hostilities was prevented by the death of Richard, who was slain before the walls of the castle of Chalus. The viscount Limoges, owner of that fort, being a vassal of Richard, refused to deliver up a treasure he had discovered, and which Richard claimed as superior lord of the soil. This event happened in 1199, the 42*d.* of his age, and 10*th.* of his reign.

John seized the crown, and determined to defend it to the last extremity, and soon after basely murdered Arthur, the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right. Philip, king of France, espoused the cause of that unfortunate prince, and cited the king of England to repair to France, and stand trial for that atrocious crime. John refused to obey the summons, and was declared guilty of felony and parricide; adjudged to forfeit to his superior lord all his seignories and fiefs in France. That inhuman act had rendered him detestable to the generality of his subjects, and, soon after, his pusillanimous conduct embroiled him with the barons, who detested his actions. Apprehensive of an invasion from France, and dreading the resentment of his nobility, instead of making the necessary preparations for securing his kingdom, he applied to the pope for protection. He even offered to become his tributary, as a proof of which he meantly laid his crown at the feet of Pandolph, the pope's legate. The church of Rome, sensible of John's weakness, now resolved to acquire unlimited power in England. In this design the pope was assisted by the clergy, who wished to render themselves entirely independent of the civil power; and therefore exerted their utmost efforts. England was now once more reduced to a deplorable state of anarchy and confusion. At length the barons pre-

vailed, and John was obliged to sign that foundation of all our liberties, so well known by the title of Magna Charta. But this being merely an act of compulsion, John complained to the pope of the violence imposed upon him, and his holiness immediately declared the charter to be null and void, as having been obtained by force.

John, in the mean time, privately levied a body of foreign forces, by whose assistance he, in his turn, triumphed over the barons, who, reduced to the most desperate extremity, offered to acknowledge Lewis, eldest son to the king of France, as their sovereign, provided he would assist them against their enraged monarch. The terms were accepted, and Lewis landed in England. John immediately assembled a considerable army, but passing from Norfolk into Lincolnshire, his road lay along the sea-shore, then overflowed at high waters; and fixing on an improper time for his journey, he fell in the inundation, all his treasure, carriages, baggage, and regalia. This misfortune so deeply affected him, that he retired to the castle of Newark, where he died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and 49th of his age; and, by his will, appointed his son Henry III. then a child of ten years old, to succeed him; and, during his minority, the earl of Pembroke was chosen protector of the kingdom. Though historians have charged John with being of an arbitrary, inconstant, and cruel disposition, yet it is evident, from the same relation, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who, in their turns, attempted to annihilate the royal prerogative. It must be acknowledged, at the same time, that, under John, the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a most surprising increase. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he established and endowed all over his kingdom; and that it was under him that the stone-bridge was finished across the Thames at London, as it stood some years ago. The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to choose them a mayor out of their own body, and also to elect their sheriffs and common council, as at present, annually.

Henry was obliged to swear fealty to the pope, and renew that homage to which his father had subjected the kingdom; and his holiness, in return, acknowledged Henry's right to the crown of England. Lewis was now obliged to quit the kingdom, and renounce all pretensions to the crown. But the protector well knew that it was not sufficient for Henry to have no competitor for the throne, it was also necessary for him to gain the affections of his subjects: accordingly, a new charter of liberties, chiefly copied from that extorted by the barons from his father, was granted. It had been happy for Henry had the protector lived, by whose wife administration affairs once more flowed in their proper channels, and the independency of this country was once more restored; but Pembroke dying in 1219, he was

succeeded in the government by the bishop of Winchester and Hubert de Burgh, high justiciary. Their conduct was the reverse of that of their predecessor, and the barons again broke out into open rebellion. They, however, assured the king, when summoned to answer for their conduct, that they had no design against his sacred person, and that their sole motive for appearing in arms was to remove Hubert de Burgh from his office. Henry, at that time, refused to comply with their request; but, a few years after, Hubert was dismissed, and the government of the kingdom devolved entirely on the bishop of Winchester.

That prelate, who was a native of Poitou, persuaded Henry to admit a number of his countrymen, and other foreigners, to settle in England. In a short time all places of importance were bestowed upon them, and Henry was prevailed on to violate the great charter. He was once more roused the barons, and the king was threatened with excommunication by Edmund, archbishop of Canterbury, and other prelates of England, if he did not dismiss the bishop of Winchester from his posts, and all foreigners from the kingdom. Henry thought proper to comply with both these injunctions, and the primate, who was in every respect equal to the task, was placed at the head of the government.

Henry's attachment to foreigners, however, still continued. He had married Eleanor, daughter to the count of Provence, and her relations and followers were promoted to the chief posts in the kingdom. The barons, finding all remonstrances ineffectual, entered into a confederacy, at the head of which was one Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester. This struggle between the king and his discontented barons lasted a considerable time, but at length the latter conquered, and, in one decisive battle, the king and prince Edward, his eldest son, were taken prisoners at the battle of Lewes. Leicester and the barons now governed the nation; but prince Edward, having found means to escape, soon assembled an army, and coming to an engagement with the barons, killed Leicester, entirely defeated their forces, and replaced his father on that throne his rebellious subjects had so unjustly usurped. This battle was fought at Evesham, Aug. 4, 1265.

Edward afterwards undertook an expedition to the Holy Land; but, during his absence, England again became a scene of confusion; and Henry, worn out with age and grief, died in 1272, expiring in the arms of his favourite son, in the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet, to the struggles of this reign, the people in great measure owe the liberties of the present day. During the reign of Henry, the feudal tenures in England received a severe blow, by the knights and burgesses being allowed to form part of the legislature in a separate house, which is the present House of Commons.

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of Poitou, per- of his countrymen, England. In a short time he was bestowed upon them, and the great charter was granted, and the king was succeeded by Edmund, archbishop of England, if Winchester from his kingdom. Henry the first of these injunctions, and respect equal to the government.

In the year 1276, Edward undertook an expedition against Lewellyn, prince of Wales, who, during the reign of Henry, had assisted the barons; and, on the accession of Edward, refused to perform the homage of a vassal. Lewellyn made the necessary preparations for defending his principality; but finding that the advantageous situation of Edward's army had cut off all supplies from his own, he was obliged to surrender at discretion, without having been able to bring the king to an engagement: a treaty was agreed to, and hostages delivered by Lewellyn for security of his future submission. The Welsh, however, could not long suffer the insolent treatment they received from the English, and once more had recourse to arms: but this last effort for the preservation of their liberties proved abortive. Lewellyn was slain, and his brother David, who succeeded to the title, never being able to collect an army sufficient to face Edward, flew from place to place, and was at last betrayed into the king's hands, who cruelly put him to a shameful death. The ancient race of their princes being thus extirpated, all the nobility in Wales submitted to the conqueror, and the laws of England, with the sheriffs, and other ministers of justice, were established in that principality. Edward created his son prince of Wales, and the eldest sons of the monarchs of England have ever since borne that title.

Edward was chosen arbiter between Robert Bruce and John Baliol, each of whom, on the death of Margaret, queen of Scots, in 1291, claimed the throne of that kingdom. Edward declared in favour of Baliol, who accordingly ascended the throne, and, pursuant to a promise he had previously made the king of England, did homage to Edward for his crown; but, repenting of so shameful a submission, he seized the opportunity

offered him, by a war breaking out between England and France, to exert his right of independence. With this view he entered into an alliance with France, but, unfortunately for him, a truce being soon after concluded between England and that nation, Edward had leisure to employ the whole force of his arms against Scotland, which he reduced to a province of England, and took Baliol prisoner. Impatient of submitting to the English yoke, the Scots resolved, if possible, to shake it off; and Edward, rendered furious by their frequent attempts, at last resolved to ruin their country so effectually, as to prevent every attempt of that nature for the future. He assembled a numerous army, which he conducted to Carlisle; but, while the necessary preparations were making to execute his intentions, he was seized with a disorder which put a period to his life in the year 1307, the 69th year of his age, and 35th of his reign. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 30,000l. for the maintenance of what was called the Holy Sepulchre.

In his wars with France, Edward lost Guienne; for, though he had formed alliances against that nation with most of the princes of Germany and other powers, he had the mortification to reap no advantage from their assistance; and that every attempt to lessen, tended only to heighten, the glory of Philip.

This monarch gave great encouragement to foreigners, who traded with England; but he made the aggregate body of every particular nation, residing here, answerable for the crimes of each individual of their number. He regulated the forms of parliament, and their manner of granting aids towards the nation's defence, which differed very little from the present method: and, at the beginning of his reign, he proceeded with great rigour against the Jews, whom he expelled the kingdom, and seized upon their estates.

Edward II. succeeded his father, but fell far short of him in the government of his dominions. He was no sooner, as he supposed, master of himself and actions, than he recalled his favourite, Gaveston, son to a Gascon knight of some distinction. This young man had been established in the Prince of Wales's household by Edward I. in return for the services of his father; but finding he had insinuated himself into the affections of his son, in whom he was desirous of crushing his desire for favourites, which already seemed the ruling passion of his soul, he banished young Gaveston, and, on his death-bed, exacted a promise from the prince never to recall him. Happy had it been for Edward had he obeyed this injunction of his father; for the barons finding that, besides endowing his minion with the earldom of Cornwall, he was daily loading him with riches and honours, which rendered him insupportably insolent, they formed a party against him, at the head of which was Thomas, earl of Lancaster, cousin-german to the king.

The barons now repaired to the parliament-house armed, where they insisted upon the banishment of Gaveston,

offered (such was the luxury of the times) of a 78 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. Alexander III. king of Scotland, was at the solemnity, and let loose 500 horses for any that could catch them, to keep them. As soon as the ceremony of his coronation was performed, Edward employed himself in correcting those abuses, which, during the preceding reigns, had introduced themselves into the kingdom. The nation was over-run with robbers, murderers, incendiaries, ravishers, and plunderers, who lived in open defiance of the laws; and, to proceed against such, the king appointed special commissioners, who were to travel through all the counties in England, inquire strictly into disorders of every kind, and punish them with the utmost severity. The commissioners executed their order with such vigour, that numerous gangs of disorderly people were soon dispersed, and the evil totally eradicated. Edward likewise regulated the coin, which at that time was greatly debased. He settled the privileges of the cinque ports; and passed the famous mortmain act, whereby all persons were restrained from giving, by will or otherwise, their estates to religious, and other societies that never die, without a special licence from the crown.

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Gaveston, and that he should take a solemn oath never to return into England. The king finding he must in some measure comply with this request, appointed his favourite lord lieutenant of Ireland; but, unable to bear his absence, he soon recalled him. The barons, however, obliged him once more to quit the kingdom; and, upon his returning again in 1312, the whole nation rose up in arms; upon which Edward placed Gaveston in the castle of Scarborough, then deemed impregnable. Gaveston, however, had neither courage nor conduct sufficient to defend it: he soon capitulated, and surrendered himself a prisoner to the barons. By the terms of capitulation it was agreed, that his life should be safe for two months; but the enraged barons no sooner found themselves masters of his fate, than they ordered his head to be struck off by the hands of the common executioner. The king was at first inconsolable, and denounced vengeance on the barons and nobility who had been accessory to the murder of his favourite; but upon their condescending to ask his pardon publicly on their knees, he forgave them every thing that was past.

While England was distracted with intestine broils, Robert Bruce recovered the greater part of Scotland, and, at the time of Gaveston's death, was besieging Stirling, the only fortress which remained in the hands of the English. Edward led a numerous army to its relief, but coming to an engagement with Bruce near Bannock-Burn, he was entirely defeated, and the greater part of his forces slain. After which, Robert conquered the English as often as he engaged them; laid all their provinces contiguous to his dominions under contribution, secured his crown, and gave a general peace to his kingdom.

The king, after the death of Gaveston, attached himself to Hugh Spencer, and was entirely governed by his counsels and those of his father. This once more gave the barons a pretence for rebellion, and both father and son were banished. But Edward having, by the assistance of the common people, obtained some advantages over the barons, he, at the instigation of his queen Isabella, a furious ambitious woman, recalled the Spencers; and numbers of the nobility fell victims to her cruelty. At length the Spencers themselves having given her cause of disgust, she formed a party, and publicly levied a body of troops in order to destroy those very favourites, to whom she was indebted for her power. All these schemes were concerted at the court of Philip the Fair, king of France, who was brother to Isabella, and whither she had retired, under pretence of taking her son to pay homage for Guienne and Ponthieu. There she was joined by numerous malcontents from England, and, among the rest, by Roger Mortimer, a Welsh baron, who had been condemned for high treason; but his sentence of death being changed into that of perpetual imprisonment, he found means to escape from the Tower, and took shelter in France. Here he was introduced to the queen of England, who first em-

ployed him as her counsellor, but soon becoming enamoured of his person, they publicly lived together in the most criminal intimacy. When affairs were ripe for execution, Isabella sailed for England, where, on her landing, she was joined by the nation in general, who supposed her only intent was to put an end to the power of the Spencers. Thus abandoned, Edward attempted to fly into Ireland, but being driven by contrary winds on the coast of South Wales, he endeavoured to conceal himself in the mountains; he was, however, soon discovered, and conducted to Kenelworth Castle, and the Spencers being also taken prisoners were both put to death.

The infamous queen now summoned a parliament in which sentence was passed upon the unfortunate but innocent Edward, whereby he was obliged to resign his crown in favour of his son. This point obtained, they wanted nothing to render the character of Isabella truly diabolical, but the murder of her deposed husband; and this by her contrivance, jointly with that of Mortimer, was perpetrated on the 21st of September 1327, with every circumstance of brutality that the infernal spirits themselves could invent.

Edward III. at his accession to the throne, was only 14 years of age; so that the queen and Mortimer flattered themselves that the administration of affairs would for some years at least, be under their direction, and in order to secure their power, they planned and executed many popular measures. But Edward easily penetrated into their designs, and resolved to counteract them, when a proper opportunity should offer. He was surrounded by the emissaries of Mortimer, and was therefore obliged to act with the utmost caution; but having privately engaged the assistance of several persons of distinction, Mortimer was seized in his bed, and, after a short trial, condemned by the parliament to be hanged; which sentence was executed on a gibbet at the Elms, in the neighbourhood of London. The vile queen was confined for life to her own house at Risings, and her revenue reduced to 4000. per annum.

Edward being now at liberty to act for himself, proceeded with the utmost industry and judgment to redress all those grievances which had either proceeded from want of authority in the crown, or from the late abuse of it. Thieves, murderers, and criminals of all kinds were proteſted by the barons, for whom they had acted during the civil commotions. Edward saw the danger of this attempt, and, in order to render it successful, first exacted a promise from the peers, that they would break off all connections with such diabolical wretches. This point being gained, he issued writs to the judges, enjoining them to administer justice without paying regard to arbitrary orders from his ministers; and he proceeded with such rigour, that the public disturbers of the peace of the kingdom were soon either executed or dispersed, their gangs broken, and a period put to their pernicious practices.

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employed his forces against John Bruce, king of Scotland, who, on the death of Edward II. had committed dreadful ravages on the frontiers of England; but the great dowager and Mortimer thought it at that time most conducive to their safety to make peace with John; and, to render it more lasting, Isabella gave her daughter Joan in marriage to David, eldest son of Bruce. This consanguinity, however, did not affect Edward, who resolved to place Edward Baliol, son of that prince, who had been taken prisoner by Edward I. on the throne of Scotland, in opposition to his brother-in-law. He sent for him from Normandy, and promised him every assistance in the recovery of the Scottish crown, to which he had an undoubted right, provided he would, in return, become his vassal. Baliol consented, and, after several conflicts, drove David out of Scotland, where he was soon after crowned; but a profusion of blood was shed in endeavouring to fix him on the throne. The king of France dying without issue in 1337, Philip of Valois declared himself next male heir to that crown, but was opposed by Edward, who, notwithstanding he was well acquainted with the Salique law, which excludes all females or their descendents from ascending the throne of that kingdom, asserted his claim in right of his mother; and, when he found that Philip was acknowledged king of France, resolved to invade his kingdom. This war, on the part of Edward, was a continual scene of success, and he carried his victorious arms even to the gates of Paris. In 1340, he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, "Dieu et mon Droit, God and my right." On the 19th of September 1356, was fought the famous battle of Poitiers, wherein the army of John, the French king, was defeated, and himself, with his son Philip, taken prisoners, by the English, under the command of Edward prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, at that time only 16 years of age. This prince was the darling of his father, the admiration of all Europe, and the hope of England: but his early death prevented the enjoyment of that happiness with the prospect of which the nation fondly flattered themselves when he should ascend the throne. He died in 1372, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on that throne. In 1360, Edward having reduced Calais, consented to a peace; whereby he was left in possession of several capital provinces in France, and John was to pay three millions of crowns in gold for his ransom.

The Scots, during the above war with France, taking advantage of the absence of Edward, recalled their king, David, who, returning with a body of chosen troops, marched into Northumberland, penetrated as far as Durham, which he took, and put all its inhabitants to the sword. He did not long enjoy the fruits of his invasion; Edward's queen, Philippa, marching against him at the head of a numerous army, obtained a com-

plete victory, and took David prisoner. He was conducted to London, and did not recover his liberty till the end of the war.

Edward III. instituted the order of the garter, now the first in England; and built the noble castle of Windsor. In his reign John Wickliffe, a secular priest, educated at Oxford, preached the doctrines of the Reformation, and made many disciples among all ranks of people, who were distinguished by the appellation of Wickliffites or Lollards. He was a man of parts, language, and piety; and has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question those doctrines which had generally passed for certain and undisputed during so many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his search into the Scriptures, and into ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the 16th century. But, though the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reserved for a more free and inquiring period, that gave the finishing blow to Romish error and superstition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. He had many friends in the university of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected against the evil designs of the pope and bishops, by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, one of the king's sons, and other great men. Edward died in the year 1377.

Richard II. son to the Black Prince, succeeded his grandfather Edward, at the early age of 11 years. During his minority, the kingdom was governed by the duke of Lancaster, the duke of York, and the duke of Gloucester, his three uncles. In the beginning of his reign, the Scots defeated the English army, and this was followed by a three years truce. The French insulted the coasts of England, which induced Richard to carry his arms into France, but without success, and the war was at length terminated by a twenty-five years truce. Richard was soon after affianced to Isabel, daughter of Charles VI.

The king's unbounded attachment to favourites, which offended his ambitious uncles; the heavy taxes, particularly the poll-tax, imposed upon the people; and the doctrines of Wickliffe; rendered the nation a continued scene of confusion, during the whole reign of this weak prince. A rebellion broke out, headed by Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, and Jack Straw, who, assembling 100,000 rabble, marched from Blackheath to London, where they committed great outrages, and became so formidable, that the king was obliged to enter into a conference with the arch-rebel in Smithfield: but the demands of these headstrong people were so insolent, and the menaces of their chief, in case of refusal, so daring, that Walworth, lord-mayor of London, who then attended the king, enraged at his audacity, struck him a violent blow on the head, which instantly deprived him of life, and, by the excellent conduct of the young king, the rebels soon after laid down their arms

without any further ill consequences. Happy had it been for Richard, if the same moderation which he possessed in the insurrection of Wat Tyler, had influenced every other action of his life. But Sir Michael de la Pole, lord chancellor, judge Tresilian, and Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, created duke of Ireland, destroyed the pleasing prospect of happiness. These three worthless men possessed his entire confidence, which rendered them exceedingly obnoxious to parliament; and, notwithstanding the king's utmost efforts in their favour, they were attainted, and condemned to suffer as traitors.

The kingdom was brought by these factions to the brink of destruction, and the king sacrificed several noblemen to his safety, particularly the duke of Gloucester, who was insidiously imprisoned, and afterwards murdered at Calais. A quarrel soon after happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk, which was to be determined by single combat between the parties; but, when the two champions appeared in the field, the king interposed, and, in order to prevent at once the present effusion of noble blood, and the future consequences of the quarrel, he ordered both the dukes to quit the kingdom, and retire to different nations.

Richard embarked for Ireland about this time, in order to revenge the death of his cousin, Roger, earl of Marche, the presumptive heir of the crown, who had lately been slain in a skirmish with the natives; and the nobility, thinking themselves materially affected by the injury done to Henry, duke of Lancaster, offered that nobleman the crown of England, if he would return and head the malcontents, who were by this time very numerous. This opportunity of gratifying his revenge and gaining the crown, was eagerly embraced by the duke, who soon found himself at the head of 60,000 men, and soon after reinforced by 40,000 more, under the duke of York, who had been left regent of the kingdom. Richard, having intelligence of this invasion and insurrection, immediately left Ireland, and landed at Milford-Haven with a body of 20,000 men; though he soon found them reduced to about 6,000, the rest having joined the duke. Thus abandoned, the king fled to the isle of Anglesey, from whence he proposed to escape either into France or Ireland; but, being prevailed on to continue in the kingdom by the feigned concessions of Lancaster, he was soon after betrayed by Percy, duke of Northumberland, into the hands of his rebellious subjects, who conveyed him prisoner to London. A parliament was now assembled, and Richard, accused of oppression, tyranny, and misconduct, was deposed by the suffrages of both lords and commons, and ordered to be imprisoned in Pomfret-Castle in Yorkshire, where he died in 1399, in the 34th year of his age, and 23d of his reign. Historians universally agree that this unhappy monarch died an unnatural death, but differ as to the nature of it; some asserting that it was by assassination, while others suppose him to have perished by hunger.

Henry IV. was son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. and placed on the throne of England in prejudice to Edmund, earl of Marche, son of that Roger who was slain in Ireland, and who had been declared presumptive heir of his crown by Richard. The nobility flattered themselves that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them, but they soon found themselves disappointed. Though this occasioned some conspiracies against him, his prudence soon rendered them abortive, and he resolved to leave nothing unattempted to reduce the enormous power of the nobility.

Foreign powers considered the accession of Henry in no other light than that of an usurpation; some however, from indolence, and others from interest, acknowledged his title to the crown of England. The king of France, highly incensed at the injury offered to Richard, resolved to revenge it, and even imprisoned the herald sent by Henry's ambassadors to demand a safe conduct for them to the French court; but being harassed by intestine divisions, political motives obliged him to accommodate affairs as soon as possible. Having recovered his daughter, widow to Richard, he laid aside his preparation for war, and renewed the truce between the two crowns.

These commotions induced the Scots to make incursions into England, and though Henry had taken possession of Edinburgh, he could not prevail on Robert III. to do him homage for his crown, nor force him to a battle. Finding therefore that his stay in Scotland was of no consequence, he returned to London and disbanded his army. But the next year, Archibald, earl of Douglas, having made an irruption into the northern counties of England, and committed great devastations, was overtaken on his return by the Percies, and a dreadful battle ensued, wherein the Scots were totally routed, and Douglas himself taken prisoner, together with a great number of the principal Scots nobility. The news of this victory being transmitted to Henry, he returned the earl of Northumberland, with the rest of his family, thanks for this important service; but, at the same time, required the noble prisoners to be delivered up to him. This gave disgust to the conquerors, who, in a short time after, broke out into open rebellion, and a battle was fought between the king, who commanded his own forces, and Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, at the head of the rebels. After a long and bloody contest, wherein Hotspur was slain, Henry proved victorious, and the earl of Northumberland having made the necessary concessions, the king thought proper to grant him a pardon: but the loss of his favourite son fell heavy on his mind. He soon after entered into a conspiracy with the earl of Nottingham and the archbishop of York; the whole, however, proved abortive; Nottingham and the prelate were taken prisoners, Percy fled into Scotland, and afterwards made some fruitless endeavours to excite an insurrection in the north of England, where he was slain in battle by Sir

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Thomas Rokesby, sheriff of Yorkshire. About the same time Glendour, who had headed the Welsh in their rebellions, died; and Henry having by accident taken James, heir to the crown of Scotland, a child of nine years old, peace was entirely restored to the nation.

In the reign of this monarch the marine of England was considerably increased: the different orders of parliament, especially the commons, acquired their proper authority. Learning was at this time at a much lower state in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodally, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me;" or, "As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the session of parliament 1421, for the burning of heretics, occasioned by the great increase of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and William Sawtree, the first martyr for this doctrine, was burnt alive. Henry IV. died in 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

Henry V. who now ascended the throne, had signalled himself greatly during the wars carried on by his father; but on the restoration of peace, he associated himself with some infamous persons, who led him into every species of vice and outrage. During the last wills of his father, however, there seems to have been a thorough reformation in his conduct, and the annals of England do not contain a greater hero.

The beginning of his reign was distinguished by a conspiracy formed among the Wickliffites, who were every day increasing, and headed by Sir John Oldcastle, lord Cobham, who it was pretended had agreed to put himself at their head, with a design to overturn the government; but this appears to be a groundless accusation, suggested by the bloody zeal of the clergy: however, Henry endeavoured at first, by gentle conversations, to reconcile that nobleman to the Catholic faith; but finding he could not prevail, delivered him over to the ecclesiastical power, and he was condemned to the flames for his erroneous opinions. He, however, before the day appointed for his execution, found means to escape from the Tower, but was taken about four years after, hanged as a traitor, and his body burnt on the gibbet, pursuant to the sentence pronounced against him as a heretic. This rigour checked for a time the rapid progress which the Lollards had made since their first institution.

Henry having received an injunction from his father never to suffer the English to remain long in peace, resolved to follow the advice of Chichely, archbishop of Canterbury, and assert the right which Edward III. had formed to the crown of France. He first demanded that the provinces of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Britany, should be resigned to him, which being refused by Charles VI. a war ensued. In 1415 Henry landed,

with his army, at Havre de Grace in Normandy, took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, where a great number of the principal nobility of France were left dead on the field, and many taken prisoners. After this engagement the conqueror subdued most part of France with the greatest rapidity.

The French king having been declared a lunatic, the administration of affairs was disputed between his brother, Lewis, duke of Orleans, and his cousin german, John, duke of Burgundy. This contest threw the whole nation into a ferment, which was artfully increased by Henry; who, taking advantage of these commotions, obliged the queen of France to give him her daughter Catharine in marriage; to declare him regent of France during her husband's life, and his issue successors to the French monarchy, in prejudice of the dauphin, her son. Accordingly, Henry made a triumphant entry into Paris, where he received the fealty of the French nobility, and the dauphin was formally proscribed. That prince, however, assisted by the Scots, left nothing untried for the recovery of his kingdom; but, in all probability, the attempt would have proved his destruction, had not death put a period to Henry's glory. Finding his last moments approach, he sent for his brother, John, duke of Bedford, the earl of Warwick, and a few more noblemen, whom he had honoured with his confidence, and conjured them to protect his infant son. He advised them never to give liberty to the French princes taken at Agincourt, till his son was of age; and never to make peace with that nation, unless, by the cession of Normandy, and its annexation to the crown of England, compensation was made for all the hazards and expence he had experienced in endeavouring to obtain the crown of France. He then left the regency of that kingdom to the duke of Bedford; that of England to his younger brother the duke of Gloucester; and the particular care of the infant king to the earl of Warwick. Having thus settled his worldly affairs, he dismissed all but his confessor, and soon after expired, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign. This event happened in the year 1422. It appears that the ordinary revenues of the crown, during this monarch's reign, amounted only to 55,714l. a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in the time of Henry III. 200 years before. The ordinary expences of government amounted to 52,507l. so that the king had a surplus only of 3,207l. for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, the expence of embassies, and other articles. This sum was not nearly sufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army, and was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and grant a truce to the enemy: hence we may perceive, that the pension of a superannuated courtier of the present age exceeds the expences.

even of this great king, and shews the simplicity and temperance of our predecessors three centuries ago.

Henry VI. an infant of nine months, was proclaimed king of France, as well as of England, and writs were issued in his name for calling a parliament. At this meeting very little regard was paid to the verbal appointments of the deceased king. The duke of Bedford was nominated protector, or guardian of England, but the parliament would not suffer him to assume the appellation of regent, which seemed to them a title of too great authority. As the state of affairs required that nobleman's presence in France, they invested his brother, the duke of Gloucester, with the same dignity during his absence; and, in order to limit the power which these princes might assume, they named a council, without whose advice and approbation no measure of importance could be determined. The young king, instead of being in the hands of Warwick, was committed to the care of Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester, his great uncle, who had the sole care of his education. Mean time, the duke of Bedford, resolving to complete the conquest of France, made every necessary preparation for that purpose, both by the exertion of arms, and by entering into new treaties with the principal nobility in that kingdom.

On the death of Charles VI. which happened soon after that of Henry V. many of the French secretly wished that the dauphin might ascend the throne. The army of that prince was re-inforced by considerable numbers of Scots; and Bedford being obliged to visit England, where business detained him near eight months, on his return to France had the mortification to find the English had suffered some defeats, and that numbers of the chief men in France had deserted to the interest of Charles, among whom was the duke of Brittany. The regent therefore immediately attacked his province, and reduced him to such extremities, that he once more renounced the French alliance, and promised to do homage for his duchy to Henry.

The duke now resolved on the siege of Orleans, a place rendered by its situation of such importance, that on the possession of it the entire conquest of France in a manner depended. Sensible of this, Charles placed a strong garrison in that important city, which was for some time vigorously defended, but was at last on the point of surrendering for want of provisions, when a phenomenon, scarcely to be paralleled in history, brought it unexpected relief. In the village of Domremi there lived a girl of about twenty-seven years of age, named Joan d'Arc, a servant at an inn, where she performed the common offices of an ostler. By frequently hearing the misfortunes of Charles, she began to pity him, and mistaking her desire of affording him assistance for a divine mission, she resolved, if possible, to procure admission to his presence, which after some difficulty was effected. On approaching the prince, she assured him that she was sent expressly from heaven to raise the siege of Orleans, and afterwards to

conduct him to Rheims, and cause him to be crowned in that city. Charles having consulted his friends, they either believed the girl inspired, or thought her enthusiasm might be a means of raising the drooping spirits of the French. A strong body of forces was immediately put under her command; and such was the panic with which the English were seized on her approach, that, instead of engaging, they suffered her to enter Orleans peaceably, with the convoy destined to relieve the garrison. Elated with her success, she resolved to attack the besiegers, who, dreading her supernatural influence, lost all their wonted courage and confidence. The forts, built by the English general round the city, were taken, with great slaughter, and at length the siege was raised, to the utter disgrace of the British army. The maid of Orleans, an appellation usually bestowed on this extraordinary woman, did not give her enemies time to recover from their delusion; she disposed of them of several towns, and having again defeated their army, took Talbot, the general, prisoner. She then conducted Charles to Rheims, seizing upon all the cities which opposed her passage, and rendered the French as formidable to the English, as, a short time before, the English had been to the French. At last this extraordinary person fell into the hands of the English, who, contrary to every sense of justice, humanity, or reason, condemned her to be burnt as a witch.

Bedford flattered himself that the death of this heroine would have re-established Henry's interest in France, whether he caused the young king to be brought, and crowned at Paris. But it was beyond the power of man to retrieve the affairs of the English. The French returned with joy to the allegiance they owed Charles as their rightful sovereign; and the duke of Burgundy, who had been a firm friend to the English ever since the beginning of this war, followed the current, and was reconciled to Charles. This defection was of the utmost importance at so critical a juncture, and was followed by a still greater blow to the English; the duke of Bedford paid the debt of nature at Rouen, a few days after he received the news of the duke of Burgundy's reconciliation with Charles VII. in the year 1435.

England was at this time in the utmost confusion, the king had married Margaret, daughter to the duke of Anjou, and titular king of Sicily, a woman of high spirit and implacable disposition. Gloucester lost all his authority in the government, Winchester who presided at the head of the treasury, had by his avarice ruined the interest of the nation both at home and abroad; and Richard, duke of York, lord-lieutenant of Ireland, whose claim to the crown of England was prior to that of Henry, being descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. formed a party to assert that right, and soon after broke out into open rebellion.

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order of the queen; who, taking advantage of Henry's
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 appointed William de la Pole, duke of Suffolk, prime
 minister; but he being soon after banished and murdered,
 was succeeded by Edmund Beaufort, duke of Somers-
 set, a man odious to the English. About the same
 time happened an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men,
 headed by one Jack Cade, who it was supposed had been
 incited to this precipitate undertaking by the duke
 of York; for though it was easily suppressed, yet, dur-
 ing its continuance, the people in general discovered
 their good wishes for that nobleman's family, and often
 declared that they thought his title to the crown was
 well founded. Soon after, the parliament hearing he
 was on his return from Ireland, and supposing he
 would appear at the head of an armed force, ordered
 him not to land in England; but on his arrival they
 were surprised to find he was only attended by his usual
 retinue. This proceeding, however, induced his parti-
 sans to assert his claim more openly, while he himself
 behaved with the utmost submission to Henry.

During a fit of illness of the king, in 1454, it was
 necessary to appoint a protector; and the queen, being
 unable to resist the York party, was obliged to acquie-
 sce, when the duke was named to fill that important
 office by the parliament. This set the nation in a flame,
 and Henry recovering, both parties prepared for action.
 Soon after, a battle was fought at St. Alban's, in which
 the Yorkists gained the victory, and took Henry pri-
 soner. This misfortune so disconcerted the king, that
 he committed the whole authority of the crown into the
 hands of Richard. Margaret, however, found means
 to set her husband at liberty. Five years after, a second
 battle was fought at Northampton, wherein the Lan-
 castrians were again defeated, and Henry a second time
 made prisoner.

The duke of York had never hitherto made any
 open pretensions to the crown; but in a parliament sum-
 moned immediately after the battle of Northampton,
 he publicly asserted his claim, and submitted his rights
 to the debates of the peers. After many deliberations,
 it was enacted, that the king should possess the throne
 during his life, and the duke of York succeed him, in
 exclusion of all Henry's issue. When Margaret, who,
 with her infant son, had fled to Durham, heard of this
 decision, she employed the flattering arts of assiduity,
 submission, and address, qualities in which she excelled,
 to gain the northern barons over to her interest, and, to
 the allotment of her enemies, soon collected an army
 of 20,000 men. At the head of this powerful body
 she proceeded as far as Wakefield, and gave battle to
 the duke of York, who had marched thither to meet
 her. Margaret was victorious, the duke of York was
 slain in the engagement, and his forces cut to pieces.

Edward, now duke of York, exerted himself to
 revenge the death of his father, and obtained several
 advantages over the Lancastrians; notwithstanding
 which, the queen advanced towards London, and hav-

ing defeated the earl of Warwick at St. Alban's, set
 Henry once more at liberty. Not daring to enter
 London, where Edward was received with every demon-
 stration of joy, she retreated northwards, taking her hus-
 band with her. Edward now resolved to assume the title
 and dignity of king, without waiting for the meeting
 of parliament. He ordered his army to assemble in
 St. John's Fields, where numbers of people attended,
 and the right of Edward being explained in an hara-
 gue, pronounced to this mixed multitude, they were asked
 if they would have Henry of Lancaster for their king?
 To which they replied in the negative. It was then
 demanded, whether they would accept of Edward, eldest
 son of the late duke of York? When they expressed
 their consent by loud acclamations of joy. This popular
 election being finished, it was ratified by a great number
 of bishops, lords, magistrates, &c. and the new king
 was on the 5th of March 1461 proclaimed in London,
 under the name of Edward IV. In the mean time the
 king and queen retreated into the north, where Margaret
 levied more forces; but Edward resolving to give her as
 little time as possible, marched with the utmost expedi-
 tion against her. The two armies met at Towton, where
 a most obstinate battle ensued. After a most bloody con-
 test, in which a great number of the nobility were slain,
 victory at length declared in favour of Edward, who
 pursuing the enemy with unrelenting fury, 40,000 men
 were left dead on the field of battle.

Margaret and her husband were obliged to fly into
 Scotland, where her high spirit, now broken by mis-
 fortunes, made such concessions to the Scots, as induced
 them to assist her with a body of forces. At the head
 of this little army she again entered England; and being
 reinforced by considerable numbers in the northern coun-
 ties, she again ventured to face the victorious Edward,
 but met with numberless defeats. Henry was taken
 prisoner, and she, after enduring incredible fatigues,
 escaped into France.

This civil war was carried on with greater animosity
 than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-
 thirstily as her opponents; and when prisoners of either
 side were made, their deaths were deferred only for a
 few hours, especially if they were persons of rank.

Edward IV. (the late duke of York) being crowned
 on the 29th of June, had some time before sent the
 earl of Warwick to demand Bona of Savoy, the king
 of France's sister, in marriage, in which embassy he
 was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing
 over the princess into England; but in the mean time
 the king fell in love with, and privately married, Eliza-
 beth, the widow of Sir John Grey. When the secret
 of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl,
 deeming himself affronted, returned to England in-
 flamed with rage and resentment, and, from being
 Edward's sincere friend, became his most implacable
 enemy: he, therefore, with the marquis of Montacute,
 the archbishop of York, and the duke of Clarence,
 concerted measures to dethrone the king, whom they

attacked in his camp at Nottingham, and made prisoner, but escaping from his confinement, and retiring to Holland, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne.

Edward, returning from Holland, advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received by the citizens into the capital, he re-ascended the throne, defeated and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet, and made Henry once more his prisoner. A few days after, he routed a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son prince Edward, whom the duke of Gloucester, Edward's brother, murdered in cold blood.

Edward, being thus settled on the throne, pursued the Lancastrians with unremitting fury, and numbers of all ranks were put to death. There was not one legitimate prince of that house left to assert its right, and the only person who could make any pretensions to the crown, was Henry, earl of Richmond, a descendent from John of Gaunt; he therefore became the great object of his vengeance. John, the first duke of Somerset, grandson of John of Gaunt, by a spurious branch, but legitimated by act of parliament, left, at his death, an only daughter, named Margaret, who married Edmund, earl of Richmond, half brother of Henry VI. his mother was Catharine of France, who, after the death of her first husband, Henry V. married Sir Owen Tudor, a private gentleman, by whom she had the above Edmund, afterwards created earl of Richmond. Edmund and Margaret had only one son, named Henry, (afterwards Henry VII.) who, after his father's death, inherited his title and estate; and though Margaret had two other husbands, not having children by either, he consequently, at her demise, was the only lawful heir of all her fortunes. This young nobleman escaped the fury of Edward by residing in France, under the protection of the duke of Brittany, to whose care he was committed by the earl of Pembroke, after the battle of Tewkesbury.

In 1474 the kingdom of England was in a deplorable situation. The king abandoned himself to the most luxurious indolence, in which he was imitated by his great men, who, to support their extravagance, became pensioners to the French king. The parliament seemed only to act as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The best blood in England was shed on scaffolds, and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealousy. Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expences of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat with France; but his irregularities put an end to his life in 1483, in the twenty-third year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age. Before his death he nominated his brother, the duke of Gloucester, regent, during the minority of his eldest son.

During the reigns of Henry IV. and Edward IV.

notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, there was an increase of the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen. So early as 1440 a navigation act was thought of by the English, as the only means to preserve to themselves the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandize; but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which is generally supposed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor state in England; its chief ornaments were the famous Littleton, judge of the Common-Pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, both of whom flourished at this period. The lord Tiptoft was also a great patron of learning, and seems to be distinguished as the first English nobleman who cultivated what are now called the Belles Lettres. The books printed by Caxton are mostly re-translations, or compilations from the French or Monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English, than it did in any other part of Europe.

The late king Edward IV. left two sons by his queen who had raised many of her obscure relations to the highest employments, and thereby given great offence to the chief nobility. Her eldest son, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle and guardian, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, and being also possessed of an unbounded ambition, resolved to fix that crown on his own head, which was designed to adorn the brow of his nephew. Accordingly, he found means to bastardize the queen's issue, by act of parliament under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke was then declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners, having first put to death all the nobility and great men whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the young king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful; the most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck.

Richard III. had, however, so strongly prejudiced the minds of the English against him, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remaining friends of Edward IV. and, by offering to marry his eldest daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops, which 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 Richard, after displaying

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so strongly prejudiced against him, as being the earl of Richmond, married on a secret contract of Edward IV's eldest daughter, he was at the head of about soon joined by 7000 between him and Richard, 5,000 men, enlisted a guard, alter displaying

most astonishing acts of personal valour, was slain in the year 1485, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother.

The crimes of Richard have no doubt been much exaggerated by some historians, who have been silent respecting his good qualities. He is represented by other writers, as exemplary in his distributive justice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whose oppositions he abolished, and was a father to the common people. He founded the society of heralds—an institution, which, in his time, was found necessary to prevent disputes among great families. During his reign, we have repeated instances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hard-ware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than seventy-two different kinds being prohibited by one act. He was the first English king who appointed a consul for the superintendency of English commerce abroad; one Spozzi being nominated for Pisa, with an allowance of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Englishmen imported to, or exported from thence.

Henry VII. (lately the earl of Richmond) was now universally acknowledged king of England, and, according to agreement between him and the queen dowager, married the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV. This marriage united the two houses of York and Lancaster, and put a final period to those dreadful contentions which had so often deluged England with the blood of its inhabitants. Henry, however, could not forget that the destruction of his family had been owing to partisans of the house of York, and, in consequence of this aversion, he committed the earl of Warwick, son to the duke of Clarence, and nephew to Edward IV. close prisoner to the Tower, without pretending to charge him with any other crime, than his propinquity to the house of York. The same motives prompted him to declare that he did not hold the crown in consequence of his alliance with Elizabeth, but by his own undoubted right. These unconquerable prepossessions in Henry gave great disgust to the nation, and several conspiracies were formed against him, particularly those of Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck. Simnel was taken prisoner, and, after being employed in the king's kitchen, was made one of his falconers. Perkin was never proved to satisfaction to have been an impostor, either by Henry, or by James IV. king of Scotland, who had for some time kindly entertained him: at length, however, after various unfortunate adventures, he fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. It is said, that Perkin made a confession of his impostures before his death; but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either upon the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture.

The ruling passion of Henry was avarice: to this he sacrificed every other consideration. In 1499, Arthur, his eldest son, married the princess Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king of Spain. Though the prince did not long survive his nuptials, Henry was so averse to the refunding of her dowry, that he obliged his second son, Henry, to marry his brother's widow; and notwithstanding the opposition of Warham, archbishop of Canterbury, the pope was prevailed on to grant a dispensation for that purpose. To the same vice in Henry may be attributed the little encouragement he gave to Columbus, who made him the first offer of discovering the West-Indies. This neglect was, however, somewhat extenuated, by the encouragement he gave to Cabot, who discovered North America. He was also desirous of improving the commerce of England, and often lent considerable sums of money, without interest, to such merchants whom he knew had not funds sufficient to accomplish the schemes they had formed. Henry died in 1509, in the fifty-second year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. At the time of his demise he was possessed of 1,800,000l. sterling, equal to five millions at present.

This monarch married his eldest daughter Margaret to James IV. king of Scotland—an union which in the next age produced remarkable events. He instituted a company, called Yeomen of the Guard, who were to attend continually near his person; and these, with little variation, have been ever since continued by his successors. This monarch also, in a great measure, destroyed the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries and retainers, it being, till that time, in the power of every malefactor to screen himself from the law, by assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. An act was likewise passed, by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands without fines and licences for the alienation. This obstacle being removed, the estates of the barons soon became the property of the commons, but stripped of their dangerous privileges. The baronial power was thus imperceptibly undermined, and soon after fell to the ground. Several other acts of parliament were passed, relative to trade and navigation, which proved infinitely beneficial to the nation. The fine arts were far advanced in England during this reign.

Henry VIII. succeeding his father at the age of eighteen, ascended the throne amidst the universal acclamations of his people. They promised themselves a release from the odious passion of avarice, which had proved so oppressive to them in the last reign. They were not deceived: the young monarch possessed a liberality of temper bordering on profusion, and which, though sometimes misapplied, generally tended to the benefit of his subjects. He was brave without ostentation, and of a frank and candid disposition. Fond of study, and a friend to learning, he had made considerable progress both in philosophy and divinity, and

was thoroughly acquainted with music. To all these qualifications nature had given him a most engaging person; and people were so much prepossessed in his favour, that the vices of vehemence, ardour, and impatience, to which he was remarkably addicted, were considered as the faults of youth, which time would correct; but which, in the latter part of his life, degenerated into tyranny and cruelty. His pride was unbounded, and his flatterers took care to turn it to their own advantage. They engaged him deeply in the affairs of the continent, and he once made the necessary preparations for the conquest of France. But in all his wars he was the dupe of foreign powers, particularly of Ferdinand, king of Spain, and the emperor Maximilian.

This monarch's chief favourite was Thomas Wolsey, the son of a butcher at Ipswich, but afterwards a student at Magdalen-College, in Oxford. He was first introduced to court by Fox, bishop of Winchester, where his great talents and insinuating address soon recommended him to the particular notice of the king. His promotions were as great as they were rapid. From almoner of the household, he was made dean of Lincoln, then a member of the privy-council, soon after appointed prime-minister, then bishop of Lincoln, and afterwards archbishop of York. Francis I. king of France, raised him to the purple; Henry created him lord chancellor, and likewise obtained a commission from the pope, nominating him legate *à latere*. It is natural to imagine that such noble preferments were sufficient to satisfy the most unbounded ambition. That of Wolsey, however, did not stop here; he aspired to the pontifical chair, to which Charles V. had promised to raise him. Finding that emperor never intended to perform his promise, he persuaded Henry to abandon his alliance with Charles, and engage in a treaty with France, hoping by that means to reach the summit of his ambition, and seat himself in St. Peter's chair.

In 1521 Martin Luther, professor of divinity in the university of Wirtemberg, began to preach against the abuses which had crept into the church of Rome, and even called the authority of the pope in question. This doctrine, which in some particulars was the same with that of the Lollards, was readily embraced by the remains of that sect in England. Henry, in order to stop the rapid progress it was making among all ranks of people, wrote a Latin treatise "Of the seven Sacraments," against the principles of Luther; and the pope, as a reward for this service, conferred on him the title of "Defender of the Faith." Henry was not always actuated with the same zeal for the papacy; a disappointment soon after entirely changed his sentiments. From a friend, he became an enemy; he had for some time entertained many scruples with regard to the propriety of his marriage with Catharine, his brother's widow; and in order to remove them, had consulted the principal divines of the kingdom, all of whom declared that the contract was contrary to every law,

either human or divine. This unanimous opinion determined the king to solicit a divorce from the court of Rome. He was indeed excited to this measure by a much stronger motive than that of conscience; he had fallen in love with Anne Boleyn, a young lady belonging to the queen's court. Wolsey used his interest to obtain the divorce, hoping he should, by that means, revenge himself on Charles V. nephew to Catharine. That emperor interposed so effectually with Clement VII. who then filled St. Peter's chair, that he absolutely refused to annul the marriage of Henry with Catharine. This was the first cause of disgust the king conceived against Wolsey, who had represented the divorce as a thing easily obtained. Wolsey's enemies laid hold of this opportunity to ruin him. Their attempt succeeded: Henry soon after seized all his furniture, papers, and treasure, and even impeached him of high treason. This blow was too severe for the spirit of Wolsey to support; he died of grief at Leicester-Abbey, on the twenty-ninth of November 1530.

It is well known, that a perplexing, though not conjuncture of affairs, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this arduous measure but for his despotic disposition, which broke out on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of the queen's inconstancy, and after a sham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death some of her nearest relations, and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary manner; his wishes, however reasonable, being too readily complied with in consequence of the shameful servility of his parliament. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the immense wealth that came to Henry, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition; so that the best and most innocent blood in England was shed by his orders, and seldom any long time passed without being marked with some illustrious victims of his tyranny. Among others, was the aged countess of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal. Sir Thomas More, lord high chancellor, John Fisher, bishop of Rochelle, and Thomas Cromwell, a man who, from the lowest rank, had been raised by Henry to the highest posts, were also among the number of victims whom he sacrificed to his cruelty, either from religious or political motives.

Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family, was Henry's third wife: but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves; he disliked her so much, that he scarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he suffered her to reside in England on a pension of 3000. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine

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Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was Catharine Parr, in whose possession she died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the Reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years; nor did he, while thus persecuting the followers of Luther, spare the Catholics, many of whom suffered for denying his supremacy; and it was justly observed by a foreigner, at that time in England, that those who were against the pope were burnt, and those who were for him hanged. He also put the brave earl of Surrey to death without a crime being brought against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and the thirty-eighth of his reign. He left at his decease three children, viz. Mary, by his wife, Catharine of Arragon; Elizabeth, by his second wife, Anne Boleyn; and Edward, by his third wife, Jane Seymour.

Henry's attention to the naval security of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjust and arbitrary power he frequently possessed in many respects, for the glory and interest of his subjects. Whatever were his religious motives, he could not be candidly confessed, that had the Reformation been brought all the force prescribed by the laws and the courts of justice, it probably never could have taken place, or at least not for many years; and without inquiring into his personal crimes, or failings, the attention he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby refusing it from his hands, undoubtedly promoted the present greatness of England. Henry was a great encourager of learning and the arts; he gave a pension to Erasmus, who was himself a prodigy of learning; he brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign gentlemen's houses began to resemble those of Italy for magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer; and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who afterwards became the instruments of a more pure reformation. In his reign, the Bible was ordered to be printed in English; Wales was united and incorporated with England; and Henry took the title of king, instead of lord, of that principality.

Edward VI. ascended the throne at the age of nine years; but, agreeable to Henry's will, the regency devolved on sixteen executors, and twelve counsellors, who, after some disputes were settled, appointed the earl of Hertford, the king's uncle, protector. This nobleman was always a friend to the Reformation, and was promoted to it with all his power. He was assisted in this design by the young king, and archbishop Cranmer, but vehemently opposed by Gardiner, bishop of

Winchester, and Bonner, bishop of London. He however succeeded, and in a short time private masses were abolished, the cup was restored to the laity, all images were removed out of churches, the common prayer was corrected, and the Reformation confirmed by act of parliament. All these alterations, however, were not effected without great disturbances; the inhabitants of different counties took up arms, but, after several defeats, accepted of a general pardon.

Henry having earnestly recommended his executors to exert their utmost endeavours for uniting England and Scotland by the marriage of Edward with the young queen of Scots, the protector entered that kingdom at the head of a powerful army. This war, which was carried on with very little success, did not obtain the end proposed; the young queen was sent into France, and betrothed to the dauphin. During the protector's absence great divisions and cabals were formed in the English councils; and soon after his return, he had the mortification to see lord Seymour, his brother, who, on the death of Henry, had married the queen dowager, endeavour to supplant him. This breach was widened by the earl of Warwick, who was resolved to raise his own fortune on the destruction of both. He persuaded the protector to deprive his brother of the post of admiral, and commit him to the Tower as a seditious person. Soon after, on refusing the terms of reconciliation offered him, he was accused of high treason, tried, and beheaded.

England, in 1549, was one continued scene of confusion. The war still continued with Scotland; insurrections, occasioned by the enclosure of lands, had broke out in almost every county, and France, taking advantage of these domestic distractions, attempted to recover Boulogne, which Henry VIII. had conquered. The council, which alone could restore tranquillity, was divided in itself, and the protector became obnoxious to every other member. At length they proceeded to extremities against him; and Warwick, from his secret, became his open enemy. He was accused of several misdemeanors, and committed to the Tower, together with his principal friends and adherents. An entire change immediately took place in the council: Warwick enjoyed the chief authority, who thinking that this revolution in affairs had sufficiently humbled the spirit of Somerset, he re-admitted him into the council, and even formed an alliance between their families, by the marriage of his son, lord Dudley, with the lady Jane Seymour, Somerset's daughter.

Warwick was now created duke of Northumberland; but finding that Somerset often expressed his resentment for the disgrace he had suffered, he determined to destroy him. He was accused of a design to raise an insurrection in the north, and of having formed a conspiracy to murder the duke of Northumberland. His peers acquitted him of the first charge, but found him guilty of the second, and he was beheaded, pursuant to his sentence, upon Tower-Hill. The duke,

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was in the year 1588, when, in order to invade Eng-
land, Philip equipped a powerful fleet, styled the In-
vincible Armada. It consisted of 130 vessels, of which
near a hundred were galleons, and much larger than any
ever before used in Europe. It carried 19,295 soldiers;
8,456 mariners; 2,088 galley slaves; and 2,630 large
pieces of brass ordnance. It was victualled for six
months, and attended by twenty smaller ships, called
carracks, and ten falves with six oars each. The duke
de Medina Sidonia was appointed admiral of this In-
vincible Armada, and the duke of Parma, who com-
manded in the Spanish Netherlands, was to join him
with an army of 30,000 foot, and 1,800 horse; but
the latter part of the scheme was frustrated, the English
and Dutch fleets blocking up the ports of Flanders.
The Spanish armament arrived in the channel on the
eighth of July, and were met by the English Squadron
under the command of lord Effingham, Sir Francis
Drake, and several other persons of distinction; by
whose valour and good conduct the enemy were soon
put into the utmost disorder, and rendered incapable of
performing any one part of the orders received from
Philip. The amazing size of their ships, from which
they promised themselves certain conquest, proved the
means of their destruction; for, unacquainted with the
narrow seas, they were at a loss how to manage them,
and, while their bulk exposed them to the fire of the
English, their cannon was placed too high to do any
material execution. Some were sunk, some burnt, and
others taken. The Spanish admiral, finding that the
intention for which he was sent was now entirely fru-
strated, determined to return to Spain by sailing round
the north of Scotland. After his fleet had passed the
Orkneys, it was overtaken by a violent storm, which
dove many of the Spanish ships on the western isles of
Scotland; and others on the coast of Ireland, where
they perished. Not one half of this formidable arma-
ment ever reached Spain, to the confusion and dis-
honour of Philip. Thus ended an expedition which
had been three years in preparing, and by which the
Spaniards are said to have lost 13,500 men, and eighty-
one ships of war, large and small.

Elizabeth entered into several treaties with the Dutch,
and for a series of time supported that people in their
struggle from Philip. She sent them her favourite, the
earl of Leicester, who acted as her general and viceroy
in the Low Countries. Though this nobleman behaved
ill, yet her measures were so wisely taken and ex-
ecuted, that the Dutch established their independency
upon Spain; and then she sent forth her fleets under
Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other
gallant and naval officers, into the East and West-
Indies, who enriched their country by the prodigious
treasures they took from the Spaniards in those parts of
the globe.

On the death of the earl of Leicester, Elizabeth
made choice of the young earl of Essex, as her chief
favourite, who was appointed to command the land

forces, in a joint expedition with the lord admiral
Howard, against Cadiz, which they took, destroyed
the ships in the harbour, and did other damage to the
Spaniards, to the amount of 20,000,000 of ducats.

The latter part of Elizabeth's reign was employed in
concerting means with Henry, king of France, for the
reduction of the house of Austria; and in suppressing
the rebellion in Scotland, which was chiefly fomented
and supported by the Spaniards. After humbling the
latter, she made the Irish feel the weight of her resent-
ment, and submit to her mercy. But even these fortu-
nate events administered but little satisfaction to Eliza-
beth, who in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and
jealous. Though she had an attachment to the earl of
Essex, she seized him, by her capriciousness, into the
madness of taking arms, and then beheaded him. She
afterwards became a prey to the severest grief, which
in a few days had such an effect on her health, that
her death was every instant expected. In this distress-
ful situation, it was thought necessary, in order to pre-
vent a disturbance, that she should name her successor;
and, being asked the question, answered, James, king
of Scotland. This was her last act; and she soon after
expired without a groan, in the year 1603, in the 70th
year of her age, and 45th of her reign.

The successes of Elizabeth's reign have disguised her
internal government; for she was far from being a
friend to personal liberty, and was guilty of many
stretches of power against the most sacred rights of
Englishmen. The severe statutes against the Puritans,
debarring them of liberty of conscience, and by which
many suffered death, must be condemned. Through
the practices of the Spaniards with the Irish Roman
Catholics, she found great difficulty to keep that island
in subjection, and at the time of her death her govern-
ment there had gone into great disorder. We can
scarcely retain a stronger proof that the English began
to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy testified by all
ranks at the accession of her successor, notwithstanding
the long inveterate animosities which had subsisted be-
tween the two kingdoms.

James I. was son to the unfortunate queen of Scots,
by her second husband, lord Darnley, and great grand-
son of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. Soon
after his accession, a conspiracy was discovered for sub-
verting the government, and to fix on the throne of Eng-
land Arabella Stuart, a near relation of the king, and
descended equally from Henry VII. Among the con-
spirators were several persons of distinction; particu-
larly the famous Sir Walter Raleigh. They were
all impeached and found guilty, but few executed:
Sir Walter was ordered into close confinement in the
Tower, where he remained for several years.

In 1609, a second plot was discovered of a much
more dangerous nature. The Papists had flattered them-
selves, that when James came to the throne their re-
ligion would be restored in this kingdom: but finding
all their hopes abortive, and that every law against
them

them was executed with the utmost severity, a few individuals determined to revenge the cause of all the rest. Catesby, Percy, and Fawkes, were at the head of this conspiracy, which was near a year and a half in concerting. They thought the surest method to extirpate their enemies at once, would be that of blowing up the Parliament-House with gunpowder, at the very time when the king and all the members were assembled. Nothing was omitted which could render this infernal contrivance secure; and the fatal catastrophe must have been inevitable, had it not been for a letter sent to lord Montague, a Catholic peer, advising him to absent himself from parliament on the first day of the session; for that a terrible blow was intended for every individual of it. This letter was shewn to his majesty, who immediately concluded, that the blow hinted at was to be given by gunpowder, and orders were issued for examining carefully all the vaults below the houses of parliament. The lord chancellor purposely delayed the search, till the day before the meeting of parliament, when on going into a vault underneath the House of Lords, he discovered great quantities of wood and faggots, which ordering to be removed, thirty-six barrels of powder were discovered concealed under them. Fawkes was found in the vault, and secured: matches and every thing proper for setting fire to the train being found in his pocket. He at first refused to discover his accomplices; but being sent to the Tower, and threatened with the rack, his courage failed him, and he made a full discovery of all the conspirators, who were apprehended, and most of them executed.

James's attachment to favourites has justly been censured by the writers of that and every succeeding age. His first was Robert Carr, a youth of twenty years of age, and of a good family in Scotland. James first knighted, and then created him viscount Rochester, honoured him with the order of the garter, gave him a seat in the privy-council, and, without assigning him any particular office, bestowed on him the supreme direction of all his business and political concerns. For a long time, by following the advice of Sir Thomas Overbury, he enjoyed, what is very rare, the favour of the prince, without being hated by the people; but having connected himself with the countess of Essex, a woman of an abandoned character, whom he intended to marry as soon as she could be divorced from her husband, the earl of Essex. Overbury remonstrated with him on the folly and danger of such a proceeding. Rochester was weak enough to reveal this conversation to the Countess, who, enraged at the interposition of Overbury, so much to her disadvantage, resolved on his destruction, and prevailed on Rochester to assist in her diabolical schemes. James committed him prisoner to the Tower, where the Countess caused him soon afterwards to be poisoned, which atrocious crime James pardoned, contrary to his solemn oath.

Some time before the murder of Overbury was discovered; Somerset's power at court began to give place to George Villiers, a youth of good family, who by his personal accomplishments had rendered himself agreeable to James, and was created his cup-bearer. Upon Somerset's disgrace, he acquired a still more unlimited power over James than his former favourite had ever enjoyed, so that riches and honours were lavished on him to excess.

In 1613, James married his eldest daughter, Elizabeth, to the elector palatine, whom he furnished with large sums of money, and raised a regiment of upwards of 2,000 men, to assist him in retrieving his affairs. Some time after, he entered into a treaty with the court of Spain, for giving the infanta in marriage to his second son, Charles, who, by the death of his elder brother, Henry, became heir apparent to the crown of England. Buckingham, who was almost as great a favourite with the prince as with the king, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and, against the king's will, they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was acted; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Bristol, who was then ambassador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block, for breaking off the treaty, after the Spanish court had consented to the match.

A treaty of marriage was now set on foot between Charles and Henrietta Maria, daughter to Henry IV. of France. In the midst of this negotiation, and the preparations making for restoring the Palatine to his electorate, James was seized with a tertian ague, which put a period to his life, in the year 1625, and in the 59th year of his age, having reigned over England twenty-two years.

Commerce and colonization owed great advantages to this prince, and he laid the foundations of great national benefits; but it is certain that he had no just ideas of the English constitution and liberties, which led him into many absurd disputes and jars with his parliament; and he with his ministers were continually inventing new ways to raise money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods: among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova-Scotia, each to pay such a sum; and instituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid 1095l. His pacific reign was a series of theological contests with ecclesiastical casuists, in which he proved himself more of a theologian than a prince, and his pedantry was extremely ridiculous. In 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his design. His pusillanimous conduct respecting his son-in-law, the elector palatine, rendered him contemptible to his people, and has subjected his memory to the censure of every succeeding age. He formed a system of policy for attaching him-

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self intimately to the court of Spain, that it might
assist him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this
system he sacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a
chance of having committed hostilities against the
Spanish settlements in the West-Indies. He was sen-
tenced to die in 1603, and beheaded on Tower-Hill
in 1618.

Without inquiring from what motive his love of peace
proceeded, it was eventually productive of many benefits
to England; and though his perpetual negotiations
have given rise to much satire against his person and
government, yet they were less expensive and destruc-
tive to his people than any wars he could have en-
gaged in. He restored to the Dutch their cautionary
towns, upon discharging part of the mortgage that was
upon them; but he procured from Spain at the same
time an acknowledgment of their independency. We
have already described the progress of the arts and
learning under his reign. He encouraged and em-
ployed 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, arrived
at its vertical point. Mr. Middleton also at this time
projected conveying water into the city from Hert-
fordshire, by means of pipes, which is now called the
New River. By a curious calculation, lately made, it
appears, that the quantity of water supplied to the
metropolis by this conveyance amounts to no less than
47,000 tons daily.

Charles I. ascended the throne on the death of his
father, and immediately completed his marriage with
the princess Henrietta, a woman of a haughty, tur-
bulent spirit. By her insigations, joined to those of
his favourites, he entered into several measures which
at first caused murmurings among his subjects, and
afterwards gave them a pretence for breaking out into
open rebellion. At the very beginning of his reign,
Charles gave sufficient indications of his despotic
temper; and the commons, resolving to reduce the
prerogative of the crown, refused to furnish those aids
he demanded for carrying on the war against Spain,
without his making concessions in favour of the liberty
of the people. The king's great attachment to Buck-
ingham was another cause of disgust. At the earnest
solicitations of that nobleman, Charles sent a fleet to
the relief of the Hugonots, or French Protestants,
who were besieged in Rochelle. Buckingham's delay
at Portsmouth proved fatal to him, by giving an op-
portunity to one Felton, formerly a lieutenant of foot,
to assassinate him just as he was going to embark,
in 1628. However, the fleet sailed for Rochelle,
under the command of the earl of Lindsey, but was
obliged to return to England, without being able to
afford the Hugonots any relief.

The contentions between the king and parliament
were now become very serious. The commons de-
nied him the power of levying tonnage and poundage,

a custom which had been granted to his predecessors;
and at the same time refused to raise, by any other
means, the necessary supplies. Charles was soon re-
duced to the utmost distress, the commons not having
voted him money even for the expences of his household.
This neglect obliged him to have recourse to methods
unknown to the constitution of England: he levied
money upon salt, soap, and other necessaries of life,
alleging the example of his predecessors as an excuse
for his arbitrary conduct. These proceedings rendered
his government more and more detested. The severe
punishments inflicted on Burton a divine, Prynne a
lawyer, and Bastwick a physician, who, under pre-
tence of asserting the liberties of the people, had
blown the trumpet of sedition, increased the king's
unpopularity: and he was afterwards as much em-
broiled with his Scotch as with his English subjects.
Unfortunately for him, he had chosen archbishop Laud
for his spiritual guide, and, at the instigation of that
prelate, endeavoured to introduce the religion of the
church of England into Scotland, where the inhabi-
tants professed a strict presbytery. They immediately
formed secret connections with the malcontents in
England, invaded the kingdom, and obliged the king,
who was very ill served by his army in general, to con-
sent to an inglorious peace.

The first step of the commons, in the new par-
liament, was, to refuse Gardiner, recorder of London,
for their speaker, because he was chosen by the king,
and to advance Lenthall, a lawyer, to that high office.
They then impeached the earl of Strafford, who was
considered as chief minister, of having endeavoured
to change the form of government, and subvert the
ancient laws and liberties of the kingdom. Laud was
next impeached of high treason, and sent to the
Tower. Strafford was beheaded on the 22d of May
1641; and on the 10th of January 1645, archbishop
Laud was also brought to the block.

Charles now endeavoured to conciliate the affections
of his subjects, by popular acts. He passed the famous
Petition of Rights, and agreed to other demands made
by the commons: but these concessions came too late.
A rebellion broke out in Ireland, wherein many thou-
sand Protestants of that nation were massacred, with-
out distinction of age, sex, or condition, by the Papists,
and no pains were omitted to insinuate into the minds
of the public, that the king had secretly favoured this
conspiracy, from hatred to his English subjects. The
bishops were now expelled the House of Peers, and
committed to close custody, because they drew up a
protest against the proceedings of parliament, which
the king too hastily signed. Charles, finding that lenient
measures had no effect, suffered himself to be guided
by those who advised more violent methods. He ac-
cused lord Kimbolton and five commoners, viz. Mr.
Denzil Hollis, Sir Arthur Hazlerig, Mr. Hambden,
Mr. Pym, and Mr. Strode, of high treason; and the
house having refused to deliver them to his messenger,

he went in person to demand them; but they had made their escape, and taken shelter in London, where the citizens remained all night under arms, in order to protect them. This rash step was considered as an act of high treason against his people, and the commons would not listen to any terms of reconciliation. The city militia was raised, and the mobs grew so insolent that the king was obliged to retire to Hampton-Court, and from thence thought proper to retire to York, where he had the satisfaction of finding himself joined by the chief nobility and gentry. Thus supported, he refused his concurrence to a militia bill, which the commons had drawn up. Preparations for a civil war were now made on both sides. The two houses first levied a guard for themselves, and the county of York raised one of six hundred men for the king. Both houses then assembled an army; and the queen having disposed of the crown jewels in Holland, purchased a large quantity of arms and ammunition, part of which, after escaping many dangers, were safely received by the king. Before things came to the last extremity, the parliament sent conditions to their monarch on which they were willing to come to agreement; but took care they should be such as he could not, consistent with his honour or dignity, comply with. He then collected some forces, and advancing southwards, erected the royal standard at Nottingham. The earl of Lindsey was appointed his general, and next to him in command were the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector Palatine. The parliament, whose cause was favoured by London, and most of the trading towns and corporations, appointed the earl of Essex general of their forces. The first battle was fought on the twenty-third of October 1642, at Keinton, or Edge-Hill, in Warwickshire. Five thousand men were left dead on the field, and neither side had reason to boast an advantage, though, as is usual in such cases, both claimed the victory. After this battle, a treaty was set on foot between the king and parliament; but the demands of the latter, striking immediately at the root of all monarchical power, were rejected. For some time the king's affairs wore a favourable aspect, and the parliament was reduced to such distress, that they invited the Scots to come to their assistance, who immediately sent an army of 20,000 men.

During the winter of 1643, the king summoned all the members of both houses, in his interest, to meet at Oxford. The House of Peers was tolerably full. The House of Commons did not consist of half the number of that at Westminster; and the members of the latter prosecuted their animosities against the royalists with redoubled fury. About this time a set of men began to make some noise at Westminster, who styled themselves Independents, and were in fact equally enemies to the Presbyterians and the royalists. By the arts of Oliver Cromwell, their leader, the earls of Essex and Manchester were removed from the command of the

parliament's forces, to which Fairfax and some Independent officers were appointed. This was a fatal blow to the power of the Presbyterians. In the interim, the war raged with unremitting fury, and the king obtained several advantages, particularly in two battles fought at Newbury.

Nothing decisive happened till the second of July 1644, when prince Rupert, contrary to the advice of the marquis of Newcastle, engaged the parliament forces at Marston-Moor, and was totally defeated. From this time the king's affairs were, by mismanagement, rendered irretrievable. By degrees he lost all his towns and forts; and, on the 14th of June 1645, was himself defeated at Naseby, by Fairfax and Cromwell. He retired into Wales, where he remained for some time, and then marched to the relief of Chester from whence he went to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe. The Scots were besieging Newark at the time when Charles arrived in their camp, and was received by them with all the exterior marks of duty and respect; but soon found that he had, in fact, only surrendered himself prisoner into their hands. They informed the English parliament of the king's arrival among them, but refused to deliver him up, unless their arrears, which they said amounted to two millions, were first paid. After numberless debates on this point, it was at last agreed that they should accept of 400,000*l.* and resign their unhappy monarch into the hands of his implacable enemies. Having taken the king's person out of the hands of the commissioners, they invested Cromwell with the supreme command, and set the parliamentary power at defiance. The Presbyterian members now found how necessary it was to come to an accommodation with the king, and several treaties were set on foot for this purpose, which, by the artifices of Cromwell, were all rendered abortive. After some consultation, Charles was resolved to trust to the generosity of Hammond, governor of the Isle of Wight; who was no sooner master of the king's person, than he confined him in Carisbroke-Castle, and informed Cromwell of the whole transaction. A treaty for accommodating matters was set on foot by the Independents, which would in all probability have succeeded, had not Cromwell, who dreaded the general disposition of the people for peace, carried him first to Hurst-Castle, and afterwards to London, where, after an extraordinary trial before a court of justice of their own erecting, his head was struck off before his own palace at Whitehall, Jan. 30, 1648-9, in the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Some writers have concluded, that had Charles been restored to his throne, he would have become an excellent prince; he is, however, allowed to have had many virtues, and, notwithstanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers.

Cromwell, who hated subordination to a republic,

had the address of the chief of the English nation, Cromwell, having to be afraid that which reason he ceremony, with a the parliament, of about an hundred inhibited the court power was lodged of government to named to Whitehall Assembly, however dissolved itself, and restor. He was great ceremony an Highness the Lord England, Scotland he exercised all e pected to the royal The Protector government, and proposed, establish by his management king. He was d of property all over have been dazzled it appears, from t continuance of his address for money going. The war were again victori engagements at sea space of one year in favour of England Van Tromp. Cromwell's war making part with the rich Spanish money, and his ex disappointed. He Dunkirk being regards, he took usurpation gave as terror to the royal the model of the c made of lords out of comfortable usury and thirteen days, he in the 6th year of Hillorians, in dea been imposed upon by the lustre of his secretary Thurloe's, position in a great and, either in Eng

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had the address to get himself declared commander in
chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the
number English admirals, carried the terror of the Eng-
lish name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and
Cromwell, having now but little employment, began
to be afraid that his services would be forgotten, for
which reason he went, April 20, 1653, without any
ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved
the parliament, opprobriously driving all the members,
about an hundred, out of their house. He next an-
nihilated the council of state, with whom the executive
power was lodged, and transferred the administration
of government to about 140 persons, whom he sum-
moned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July 1653. This
assembly, however, after sitting about five months,
dissolved itself, and Oliver Cromwell was chosen pro-
tector. He was installed into this high office with
great ceremony and magnificence, by the title of, His
Highness the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of
England, Scotland, and Ireland; a title under which
he exercised all the power that had been formerly an-
nexed to the royal dignity.

The Protector next proceeded to new-model the
government, and various were the schemes that were
proposed, established, and proved abortive; and it was
by his management of the army that he did every
thing. He was openly or secretly thwarted by people
of property all over England; and, however historians
have been dazzled with his amazing fortune and power,
it appears, from the best evidences, that, during the
continuance of his protectorate, he was perpetually
distressed for money to keep the wheels of government
going. The war with Holland, in which the English
were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody
engagements at sea were fought in little more than the
space of one year; and in the last, which was decisive
in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave ad-
miral Van Tromp.

Cromwell's wants at last led him into the error of
making part with France against Spain, in hopes that
the rich Spanish prizes would supply him with ready
money, and his expectations herein were not wholly
disappointed. He lent the French court 6,000 men,
and Dunkirk being taken by their assistance from the
Spaniards, he took possession of it. Finding that his
usurpation gave as much discontent to his own party,
as terror to the royalists, he had thoughts of renewing
the model of the constitution, and actually erected a
house of lords out of his own creatures. After a most
uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months,
and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September 1658,
in the 60th year of his age.

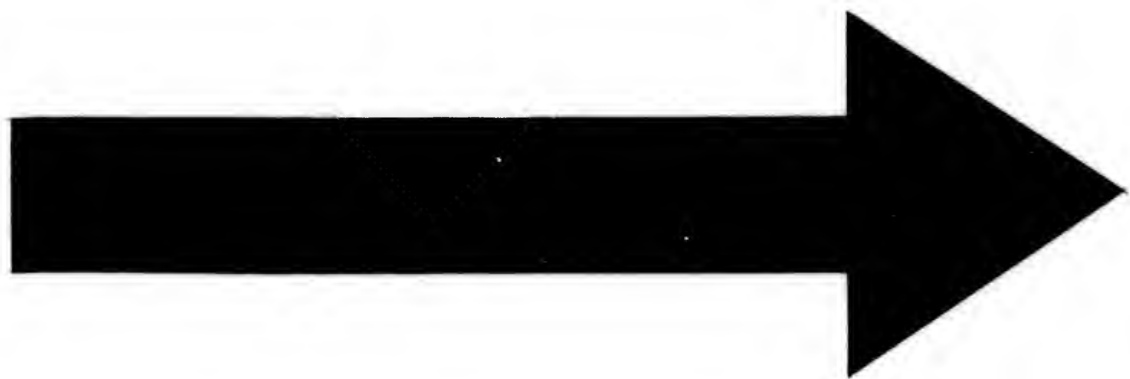
Historians, in drawing a character of Cromwell, have
been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled
by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult his
secretary Thurloe's, and other state papers, the im-
pression in a great measure vanishes. No king ever
reigned, either in England or Scotland, more despotically.

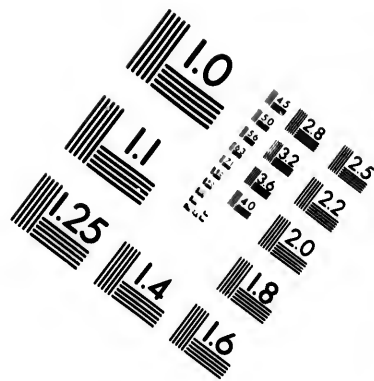
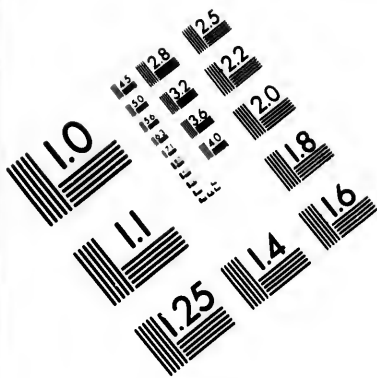
in some respects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had
fewer real friends, and even these few threatened to
oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of
king, which he was very desirous of assuming.

In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted
to 1,300,000*l.* of which 1,000,000 went to the support
of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of
the civil government. Next year the total charge or
public expence of England amounted to 2,326,989*l.*
The collections by assessments, excise, and customs,
paid into the exchequer, amounted to 2,362,000*l.* 4*s.*
So that, upon the whole, it appears that England, from
the year 1648 to the year 1658, was improved equally
in riches and power. The legal interest of money was
reduced from eight to six per cent. a sure symptom of
increasing commerce. The famous and beneficial naviga-
tion act, that palladium of the English trade, was
now planned and established; and afterwards confirmed
under Charles II. Notwithstanding all Cromwell's
faults, it must be allowed that he maintained the
honour of the nation much, and in many instances
interposed in favour of the Protestants abroad; and he
also paid some regard to men of learning, and the
education of youth.

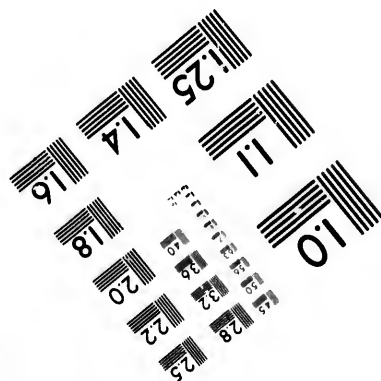
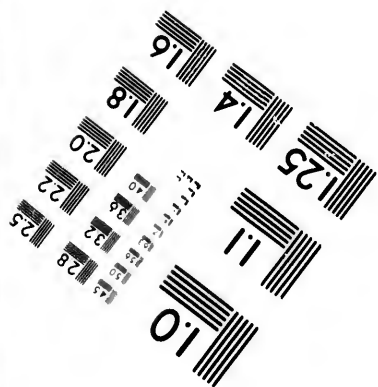
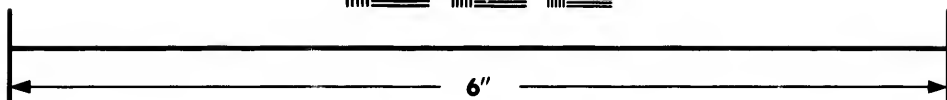
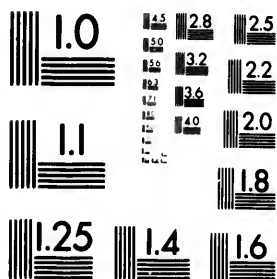
Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father as Pro-
tector, differed greatly from Oliver both as to spirit and
parts in the affairs of government. Being placed in his
dignity by those who wanted to make him the tool of
their own government, he was soon after driven, with-
out the least struggle or opposition, into obscurity.
Though the Presbyterians were very zealous in pro-
moting the restoration of Charles, that event was in
fact brought about by the general concurrence of the
people, who seemed to think that neither peace nor
protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the
ancient constitution of monarchy. Monk, commander
of the forces in Scotland, made this a pretence for
putting into execution a scheme he had long planned,
of restoring Charles. He was a man of military abili-
ties, but of no principles, except such as served his
ambition or interest: he protested against the violence
offered to parliament, drew together the several fea-
tered regiments, marched into England, took possession
of the capital, caused a new parliament to be assem-
bled, and recalled Charles from Spain. For these ser-
vices, he was loaded with honours and riches, created
duke of Albemarle, and confirmed in the command of
the army.

Charles II. mounted the throne in 1660, and soon
after married the princess Catharine of Portugal, with
whom he received a portion of 300,000*l.* together with
the two fortresses of Tangier in Africa, and Bombay
in the East-Indies. He endeavoured, in the first year
of his reign, to unite every party in an affection for
him and his country, seemed desirous to promote the
happiness of his people, and Presbyterians and loyalists
were equally admitted into his councils. But it was not
long before affairs put on a more displeasing aspect:





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the king became at length entirely absorbed in pleasure and dissipation, to which he set no bounds: this led him into the most extravagant expences, and, together with his indolence, had the same pernicious consequences as despotism itself. He has been severely censured for selling Dunkirk for about 250,000*l.* to the French for supplying his necessities, after he had squandered the immense sums granted him by parliament: he was also so ill advised as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at eight per cent. and to shut up the Exchequer, which indefensible step he intended to justify by the necessity of his affairs. But even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his secret connections with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and such as must ever reflect infamy on his memory; among other instances of his reprehensible conduct, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour against the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviser of the sale of Dunkirk, and whom he sacrificed to the sycophants of his pleasurable hours, though he was a man of extensive knowledge and great abilities, and more honest in his intentions than most of his other ministers: this great man was, in 1667, impeached of high treason, and, to avoid the storm, retired into France, where he survived his disgrace only six years.

In 1665 the first Dutch war began, which was carried on with great resolution and spirit under the duke of York; but, through Charles's misapplication of the public money granted to carry on the war, the Dutch, taking advantage of his negligence, sent a large fleet of ships to ravage the coast of England, which accordingly sailed up the Medway as far as Chatham, where (and also at Upnor-Castle) they burnt several capital ships of war. Soon after, a treaty was concluded at Breda between England, Sweden, and the States-General, in 1667, called the Triple Alliance, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands against the arms of France.

In 1672, war was again declared against Holland, which had almost proved fatal to that republic, as the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet; as did the duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles, 6000 English forces acting in conjunction with the English in the Netherlands; and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Louis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and some utterly unforeseen circumstances. All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the glory which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch, with whom the popular clamour at length obliged him to make peace, in consideration of 200,000*l.*; and in order to remove the nation's fears, as much as possible, respecting the duke of York, he negotiated a marriage between Mary,

eldest daughter to the duke, and heir apparent to the crown of England, and the prince of Orange; which was concluded, October 23, 1677.

Charles continued to act in some instances very despotically. Complaining of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, he ordered them to be shut up, but in a few days after they were opened again: he exercised great rigour and severity against the Presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was established with a high hand in Scotland as well as England. His parliament addressed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677; for he was entirely devoted to that crown, whose money he regularly received as a pensioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be absolute: several of his great men had also salaries from the same court, and alleged the king's example in justification of this infamous practice.

The hatred of the commons to the French and Papists grew every day more violent; and many of the members of parliament were bent upon such a revolution as afterwards took place, and were secretly determining that the duke of York should never reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, taking advantage of this disposition, alarmed the whole nation with the account of a plot which he pretended was formed by the Jesuits to murder the king, and introduce Popery into England. Nothing could exceed the improbability of this conspiracy, but the readiness with which the intelligence of it was received by the parliament; who, blinded by their prejudice, gave credit to the most glaring absurdities. Lord Stafford, at the time a very old man; Coleman, secretary to the duke of York; numbers of Jesuits, and several other Catholics, were publicly executed on the most perjured evidences. It was with difficulty that the queen herself escaped. The duke of York, against whom the heaviest of the storm was directed, thought it most prudent to retire from England; and the king, though convinced that the whole was an infamous imposition in order to prejudice the minds of the nation against his successor, was compelled by necessity to yield to the popular clamour. The conduct of some members in the House of Commons plainly demonstrated, that the chief end of this plot was, to exclude the duke of York from the throne. A bill for that purpose was some time after, actually brought into and passed that house; but was rejected by the peers.

All England was again in a flame; but the king, a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, seemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree. The duke of York and his party, however, made a scandalous use of their victory; for their part, they trumped up a plot of the Protestants for killing or seizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that charged upon the Papists; notwithstanding which, lord Russell, Algernon Sidney, and several other distinguished

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stant, suffered death on this occasion; Essex died in
prison, Hampden was fined 40,000*l.* and the king set
his foot upon all opposition. Even the city of London
was intimidated into the measures of the court, and
were almost all the corporations in the kingdom. The
duke of Monmouth, and the earl of Shaftesbury were
obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in
triumph to Whitehall. Charles, it was thought, after-
wards repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and in-
tended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and
execute some measures for the future quiet of his realm,
but amidst all these excellent resolutions, he was seized
with a sudden fit, resembling an apoplexy; and though
he was recovered from it by bleeding, he languished
only for a few days, and expired February 6, 1685, in
the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign.

Charles left behind him no lawful issue; but the
descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now
amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.
Though the principles and conduct of this prince were
in general unconstitutional to England, yet some of his
actions must be owned beneficial to the nation. He
confirmed the abolition of all the feudal tenures, in
lieu of which he received from the parliament a gift
of the excise for life; and in this act coffee and tea
were first mentioned. By his long residence, and that of
his friends, abroad, he imported into England the cul-
ture of many elegant vegetables, such as the cauliflowers,
asparagus, artichokes, and several kinds of
beans, peas, and salads. Under him, Jamaica, which
had been conquered by the English under the auspices
of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a sugar
colony. The Royal Society was instituted, and many
popular acts respecting trade and colonization were
passed. The trade of England was also incredibly in-
creased during his reign, and he entered into many
rigorous measures for its protection and support. He
carried the art of ship-building to the highest per-
fection; and the royal navy of England, at this day,
owes its finest improvements to his and his brother's
knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. Charles
loved, patronized, and understood the arts, more than
he encouraged or rewarded them, especially those of
English growth; but his neglect proceeded not from
narrow-mindedness, but indolence, and want of re-
spection. In his time, dissipated as it was, some reader
were found who could admire Milton as well as Dry-
den, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England so
well supplied with preachers. Our language was har-
monized, refined, and rendered natural, witness the
style of their sermons; and the days of Charles may
be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural
philosophy. As to his religion, James, soon after
Charles's death, published to the world, that his
brother, notwithstanding his repeated professions of
regard to the Protestant faith, was a Papist, and died
such, of which there are now incontrovertible proofs.
The reign of this monarch has indeed been celebrated

for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and in-
delicate: the court was a nursery of vice, and the
stage exhibited scenes of impurity.

England was visited with two dreadful calamities in
the late reign. In May 1665, a terrible plague broke
out in London, and raged for eleven months, in which
time it swept away, in the city only, upwards of 100,000
souls: and on the 2d of September 1666, a fire broke
out in the city, which in three days consumed eighty
churches, several city gates, and 400 streets; containing
13,000 dwelling-houses.

James II. now ascended the throne, though great
opposition was at first made to his accession: but the
declaration which he made to the privy-council, im-
mediately on the demise of his brother, of his reso-
lution to maintain the established government, both in
church and state, quieted the minds of the whole
nation; and the popular affection towards him was
increased by the early declaration he made in favour
of the church of England, which, during the reign of
Charles, had formerly pronounced all resistance to the
king to be unlawful. It was not long, however,
before his arbitrary notions of government began to
appear. The army and people supported him in
crushing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of
Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of
Charles II. and, as such, had assumed the title of
king. That duke being beheaded July 15, 1685, and
some hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and
quartered, in the west of England, exhibiting a scene
of barbarity scarcely ever known in this country, in
which Jefferies and Colonel Kirke were the principal
instruments. James desperately resolved to try how far
the practice of the church of England would agree
with her doctrine of non-resistance: the experiment
failed, and in the end proved fatal to him. He made
the most provoking steps to render Popery the estab-
lished religion of his dominions. He arrogated to
himself a power of dispensing with the known laws;
instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, openly received
and admitted into his privy-council the pope's emis-
saries, giving them more respect than was due to the
ministers of a sovereign prince. He sent an embassy
to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio.
The encroachments he made upon both the civil and
religious liberties of his people, are almost beyond descrip-
tion, and were disapproved of by the pope himself,
and all sober Roman Catholics. His sending to prison,
and prosecuting for a libel, seven bishops, for pre-
senting a petition against reading his declaration against
liberty of conscience, alarmed his best Protestant friends.
The joyful news of their acquittal was however soon
conveyed from Westminster-Hall to those without,
from them to the city and army, and in a short time
spread throughout the kingdom.

Matters being brought to this extremity, many great
men in England and Scotland applied for relief to
William, prince of Orange, in Holland; a prince of

great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV. who then threatened to enslave Europe, inviting him to assist them by his arms in the recovery of their laws and liberties. This prince was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king's eldest daughter; and he at last embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore to the church and state their due rights, and prevent the establishment of a despotic power. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter, the princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange. James might still have reigned; but he was surrounded with French emissaries, and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign, rather than not restore Popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen and son, real or pretended, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person, which he did; and thus ended the reign of James in England, which event in English history is termed the Revolution, and took place in the year 1688.

William's chief object was, to humble the power of France, and his reign was spent in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were supported by England at an expence she had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns, and he gave his consent to the bill of rights, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured; though the friends of liberty in general complained, that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been insisted on, in a period so favourable to the enlargement and security of liberty, as a crown bestowed by the free voice of the people. England had never before this time been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity: her tonnage of ships was nearly doubled, both in the merchants service and royal navy, to what it had been a few years before: the increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England, was in the same proportion: no wonder, therefore, if a strong party, as well in the parliament as the nation, was formed against the government, which was continually increasing by the king's predilection for the Dutch.

The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expence, and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to James: but many English, who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being restored by conquest; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne. The marine of France proved superior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue. The continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax

was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal, gave the highest valuations, and were the heaviest taxed, and this profligate burden still continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances, that ever took place, was established in this reign, which was the carrying on of the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary securities, and which form now what are called the public funds: the chief projector of this scheme is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. On December 28, 1694, William lost his excellent queen, who died of the small-pox, in her 34th year: and, not being well supported in his war with France, he was forced, in 1697, to conclude the peace of Ryswick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England.

In 1698, William was guilty of a very impolitic action, in agreeing to a treaty of partition with France with regard to the Spanish succession, in case Charles II. king of Spain, whose death was daily expected, should leave no issue. By this treaty the Spanish monarchy was to be divided between the houses of Bourbon and Austria; but Charles, who died in 1700, bequeathed his dominions to the duke of Anjou, second son to the Dauphin of France. The splendor of a crown was too great a temptation to be resisted by Louis; who, in open defiance of the treaty he had concluded with William, and the states-general, seized on the Spanish monarchy. This breach of faith was further aggravated by the insincerity of the French court, on the death of James II. which happened in September 1701. Soon after which, Louis gave orders, that the son of the deceased monarch should be proclaimed king of England, Scotland, and Ireland, by the name of James III.

William was no sooner informed of these proceedings, than he recalled his ambassador from Paris, and ordered the French resident here to leave the kingdom immediately. The parliament, which had been highly chagrined at the treaty of partition, and even impeached some of the ministry for advising it, approved of the just resentment of their monarch; and William received addresses from every part of the kingdom, promising to support his government against the pretender and all his enemies. Assured of the assistance of his people, the king now concluded alliances with several foreign princes against France, particularly with the emperor and Holland, usually styled the grand alliance. Land and sea forces were raised with the utmost expedition, and every thing was in the greatest forwardness for the declaration of war, when the king, whose health had been visibly declining for some time, received a fall from his horse, whereby his collar-bone was broken. The bone was set, and the physician began to flatter himself that his majesty would recover; but a defluxion having fallen upon his knee attended by several dangerous symptoms, he languished a few

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a few days, and expired. This event happened on
the first of March 1702, in the 52d year of his age,
and the 14th of his reign.

The chief glories of this prince's reign were, the re-
servation and preservation of religion and public liberty; for,
under him, England suffered severely both by sea and
land; and the national debt, at the time of his death,
amounted to the unheard-of sum of 14,000,000l. With
respect to his disposition, he did not appear formed by
nature for popularity; his manners were cold and for-
bidding; he seemed also sometimes to lose sight of those
principles of liberty, for the support of which he had been
called to the throne; and, though he owed his royalty to
the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former
had the mortification of seeing those who had acted the
most inimical to their party, and the free principles of
the constitution, particularly the marquis of Halifax,
the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into
favour, and resume their places in the cabinet; and the
whole influence of government extended to silence all
accusations into the guilt of those who had been the chief
instruments in the cruel persecutions of the past reign,
and to the obtaining such a act of indemnity as effectually
screened every delinquent from the just retaliation of in-
jured patriotism. Just before his death, he granted a com-
mission, under the great seal, to several peers, for passing
a bill for the attainder of the pretended prince of Wales.

Anne, princess of Denmark, was immediately, by
virtue of the act of settlement, proclaimed queen of
England; and, as it was suspected that she would de-
viate from the measures pursued by William, she took
the earliest opportunity of assuring her subjects and allies,
that she meant faithfully to adhere to the engagements
formed by that monarch. The two parties of Whig
and Tory now ran very high in England, and when it
came to be debated in council, whether England should
enter into the war as principals, or only as auxiliaries,
the Tories, headed by the earl of Rochester, the queen's
maternal uncle, advised the latter: but the Whigs, the
chief of whom were the dukes of Devonshire and Som-
erset, insisted upon the expediency of our acting as
principals; as the honour of the nation was immediately
concerned in fulfilling the engagements made by the
late king, which could not be done otherwise than by
entering into the quarrel as principals. The earl of Marl-
borough, who was competitor with Rochester for the
queen's favour, and, by the influence which his coun-
tess had over that princess, in a manner directed her
resolutions, declared himself of the same opinion. This
point being determined, war was declared against
France and Spain on the 4th of May 1702. The prince
of Denmark, husband to the queen, was created high
admiral of England, and the duke of Marlborough ap-
pointed general of the combined army.

A scene of almost uninterrupted success attended the
confederates, particularly the English, during the whole
course of this war; and gained the earl, who, for his
 eminent services, was created duke of Marlborough,

much honour. Several battles were fought, the prin-
cipal of which were those of Blenheim, Ramillies, and
Oudenarde. The battle of Blenheim happened in con-
sequence of the queen's generous resolution to save the
empire of Germany, which was in danger of being to-
tally ruined by the joint forces of France and Bavaria.
The States-General having embraced the same resolu-
tion, Marlborough marched with surprising rapidity
into Germany, at the head of the confederates, and
drove the French and Bavarians from the intrenchments
they had raised at Schellenberg, in order to prevent his
crossing the Danube. Having passed that river, and
being joined by a considerable body of forces under
prince Eugene, he attacked the French and Bavarians
at Blenheim, where they gained a very signal and com-
plete victory; marshal Tallard, the French general,
was taken prisoner, together with 13,000 men, and a
proportional number of cannon, artillery, and trophies
of war. The French were soon after driven out of Ger-
many, and all Bavaria conquered. About this time,
Sir George Rook reduced Gibraltar, which still remains
in our possession. Other advantages were also obtained
at sea.

The battle of Ramillies was fought on the 12th of
May 1706, with equal success. The loss of the French
amounted to near 40,000 men. After this victory, the
archduke of Austria, who disputed the crown of Spain
with the duke of Anjou, and had taken upon himself
the title of Charles III. was solemnly recognized by
the states of Flanders for their sovereign; and the allies
pursued their conquests with the utmost rapidity. Lor-
raine, Mechlin, Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Bruges,
Menin, Dendermonde, and Aeth, were all obliged to
surrender by the middle of September; and, soon after,
the army retired into winter quarters.

The engagement at Oudenarde happened on the 12th
of July 1708, when the French were once more totally
defeated. In this action the electoral prince of Hano-
ver, afterwards king George II. gave early proofs of his
martial disposition; for, having charged at the head of
the Hanoverian dragoons with great intrepidity, his
horse was shot under him, and one of his aides-de-camp
killed by his side. In this battle, between three and
four thousand of the enemy were left dead on the field,
and seven thousand were taken prisoners.

In 1709, France was reduced to such distresses, that
the pride of her aspiring monarch Louis being thereby
humbled, he determined to sacrifice all the calls of am-
bition, as well as the interest of his grandson, to obtain
a peace, and accordingly, about the middle of May,
conferences were opened for this purpose at the Hague.
Prince Eugene, Marlborough, and the Dutch pension-
ary Heinsius, were for continuing the war, and their
proposals to Louis were such as no monarch could,
consistent with his honour, accept: the conferences
therefore were broken off, and the allies resolved to be-
gin the campaign with the siege of Tournay. The
trenches were opened on the 27th of July, and the
town.

town soon after surrendered; but it was the second of September before the garrison capitulated. Mons was the next great object of the allies; but, before that siege could be effected, it was found necessary to drive the French army from their posts behind the woods of la Merte and Trainiere, in the neighbourhood of Malplaquet. This was attempted with success; but it proved the dearest victory the confederates ever purchased, having cost them above 18,000 men killed and wounded, and among the former were several officers of distinction. The end proposed by this engagement, however, was obtained, for Mons surrendered about the middle of November.

The affairs of the confederates were far from being equally successful in Spain. The queen had sent a fine army under the command of lord Galway, to assist Charles III. That general was joined by the Portuguese forces, and, at first, their attempts were attended with some success; but, in 1707, the English sustained a severe defeat in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies.

The Tories, who were Marlborough's inveterate enemies, had long endeavoured to convince the queen that this war would, in the end, prove ruinous to the church and state; and accused the Whigs of not being very well affected to the former. Robert Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, was at the head of this party, formed to ruin the duke. The people were taught to believe that the church was in danger, and, by that means, rendered clamorous. This was increased by a sermon preached at that time by Dr. Sacheverel, wherein he strenuously asserted the high notions of hereditary indefeasible right, passive obedience, and non-resistance. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who passed a very mild sentence upon him. The honour and interest of the nation were now sacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, her benefactress, whom she had supplanted, and by Mr. Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford. To complete the triumph of the Tories, Marlborough was dismissed from all his employments, and the command of the army given to the duke of Ormond.

The new ministry having resolved to negotiate a peace with France, a congress was opened at Utrecht, on the 9th of January 1712, for that purpose. The preliminaries were soon settled between England and France, and, not long after, acceded to by all the princes who formed the grand alliance, the emperor excepted. That monarch determined to carry on the war against France, but was soon convinced he had undertaken what he was unable to support, and accordingly made a separate peace.

After the peace of Utrecht the queen was perpetually disturbed by the jarring of parties. When the change of the ministry had taken place in favour of the Tories, Oxford, at that time Mr. Harley, was created lord high treasurer, Sir Simon Harcourt appointed lord keeper,

and Mr. Henry St. John, afterwards lord Bolingbroke, nominated secretary of state. These three persons, though they had united in opposing the administration of the Whigs, were far from being united in their political sentiments; their views and pursuits were very different: it is therefore no wonder that they soon experienced an opposition more formidable than that they had so lately subdued. Each found his hopes disappointed, and an open rupture between them was the consequence. Nor did they set any bounds to their resentment; forgetting the respect due to their royal mistresses, who had distinguished them with the highest marks of her favour, they made use of the most bitter invectives against each other in her presence. This deeply affected her, and she removed the earl of Oxford from his office of lord high treasurer. The general confusion occasioned by this event, and the fatigue of attending a long cabinet council, had such an effect upon the queen's spirits, before greatly weakened by her bad state of health, that, on the 29th of July 1714, she was seized with a lethargic disorder, languished till the first of August, and then expired, in the 50th year of her age, and 13th of her reign. With her ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the accession of James I. anno 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. As queen Anne left no issue, she was succeeded by George, elector of Hanover, in pursuance of a statute passed in the 12th year of William III. for limiting the succession of the crown.

George I. mounted the throne with strong prepossessions against the Tories, whom he considered as enemies to the house of Hanover. A total change therefore immediately took place in the ministry. This avowed partiality greatly inflamed the minds of those who were already but too much discontented at the late changes, and the rejoicings on account of the coronation were interrupted in several places by disorderly rabbles, who committed numberless outrages. The Pretender, taking advantage of these commotions, caused a manifesto to be dispersed in England, setting forth his right to the crown. A rebellion soon after broke out in Scotland, under the earl of Mar, which might have been attended with very serious consequences, had not the death of Louis XIV. who had promised to support the young adventurer, happened at this crisis. In the mean time, several of the Scottish peers armed the clans in favour of George I. and the duke of Argyll having been appointed commander in chief of the forces in Scotland, engaged the rebels, under the earl of Mar at Sheriff-Muir, and totally defeated their whole army. This defeat did not however intimidate the insurgents. In the beginning of the year 1716, the pretender arrived in Scotland, and made his public entry into Perth. The duke of Argyll immediately marched to attack the rebels; but they did not wait his approach. They retreated with the utmost expedition to Montrose, where the chevalier, with some of his principal adherents,

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went on board a small vessel, and passed over into France. The rebel army now found that their chiefs had abandoned them, upon which they immediately dispersed. During the rebellion in Scotland, an insur- rection happened in the West of England, where the pretender's friends were very numerous, but was sup- pressed almost as soon as formed, and several of the lead- ers punished with death.

A new parliament, consisting chiefly of Whigs, met, in 1715, at Westminster, when Henry, earl of Boling- broke, Robert, earl of Oxford, and James, duke of Ormond, were impeached of high treason; and the earl of Strafford of high crimes and misdemeanors. Lord Bolingbroke and the duke of Ormond retired into France; and lord Oxford was imprisoned for three years, when he regained his liberty.

Peace being restored to the kingdom, his majesty went over to the continent, in order to secure his German dominions from the attempts of Charles XII. king of Sweden, who had been incensed against George, as elector of Hanover, for purchasing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of the Swedish dominions. In 1718, a rupture happened between England and Spain, on account of the quadruple al- liance; and the English admiral, Sir George Byng, by the king's orders, defeated the Spanish fleet near Syra- cuse. France having joined the English in this war, it was soon ended, by the Spaniards delivering up Sar- dinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor. Charles had embraced the interest of the pretender, and even engaged to assist the malcontents in England with a powerful army. This confederacy being discovered, his Britannic majesty con- cluded a treaty with France and the States-General, known by the name of the Triple Alliance, in order to disappoint any attempts that might be made against his dominions. On his return to England he immediately ordered count Gyllebergh, the Swedish resident, into custody, and pursued such prudent measures, that the designs of Sweden were for that time rendered abortive. Charles, however, did not abandon his design; and he would, in all probability, have invaded England at the head of a powerful army, in conjunction with Peter, czar of Muscovy, had not death put an end to his life before the scheme was ripe for execution.

The year 1720 was rendered remarkable by the sud- den rise of the South-Sea stock. That company had been lately erected, and owed its rise to a scheme for carrying on an exclusive trade, and making a settle- ment in the South Seas. Accordingly, a plan was laid before the House of Commons, to increase their capital stock by redeeming the public debts, in consideration of certain advantages which were to be granted them. This plan occasioned many warm debates, but at length the company's offers were accepted. During the time this affair was depending in the house, South-Sea stock rose first to 150, and at last to 1000 per cent. The company's scheme might perhaps, at the beginning,

have been honestly intended, but, in the end, it proved of the utmost prejudice to some, and the entire ruin of others. The ministry themselves were accused of having been deeply concerned in this detestable scheme, though no notice was taken of the charge; but a bill was passed, by which the estates of the directors were con- fiscated, and only a bare sufficiency allowed for their support. The reader will find a more ample detail of this horrid scene of villany and fraud, in our account of the stock of this company, p. 639.

In 1722, a conspiracy was said to be formed against the king, and, after some contest, the Habeas Corpus act was suspended. The earl of Orrery, Dr. Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, and the lord North and Grey, were charged with high treason, and committed to the Tower; and, soon after, the duke of Norfolk. Several other persons were seized and imprisoned; and, though the facts alleged against them were never clearly proved, Atterbury was banished for life. Mr. George Kelly, an Irish clergyman, and Mr. John Plunket, were im- prisoned during his majesty's pleasure; and Mr. Chris- topher Layer, a young counsellor at law, put to death.

The courts of Spain and Vienna having entered into a treaty contrary to the interest of Great-Britain, the king, in order to counteract their designs, projected a defensive treaty between England, France, and Prussia, which was signed at Hanover on the 3d of September 1725. The real intent of this alliance was to secure his Britannic majesty's German dominions, though it was represented by the court party as having been con- tracted merely for the glory and advantage of this nation, the interest and honour of which was evidently sacrificed to that electorate. Catharine, empress of Russia, hav- ing consulted with the courts of Madrid and Vienna the most probable measures for placing the pretender on the throne of Great-Britain, they sent a fleet into the Baltic under the command of Sir Charles Wager, with orders to remonstrate with the empress on her conduct: that artful woman, however, disowned having the least knowledge of those proceedings, and the admiral, after continuing in the Baltic till the season was too far ad- vanced for the Russian fleet to make any successful at- tempt in favour of the pretender, returned to England. Sir John Jennings, with several ships of war, sailed at the same time as Sir Charles Wager, in order to insult the coast of Spain, and he so effectually executed his or- ders, that the panic extended even to Madrid. A third squadron, which sailed at this juncture for the West- Indies, under the command of rear-admiral Hofier, was not so fortunate. His orders were to watch the Spanish plate fleets; but the Spaniards having received intelli- gence of this design, before he could reach the Basi- limentos, had unladen the galleons, and carried the trea- sure, amounting to six millions and a half sterling, back to Panama. Hofier, however, continued cruising be- fore Porto Bello from the beginning of June till Christ- mas. But, during this interval, the admiral himself, and most of his crew, perished by epidemical diseases.

The management of the Spaniards was little better: they resolved to attempt the retaking of Gibraltar, and actually laid siege to that important fortress; but such care had been taken to put the place into a proper posture of defence, that, having lost 10,000 men, the enemy was obliged to abandon the enterprize.

While the chief powers in Europe were thus preparing for war, they were actually very desirous of peace. Lewis XV. undertook the friendly office of a mediator, and a congress was opened at Soissons for adjusting all differences between the contending nations. The king resolved to seize this favourable opportunity of visiting his German dominions; and accordingly, having appointed a regency, he embarked at Greenwich on the 2d of June 1717, and landed in Holland on the 7th. But, on the road to Hanover, he was suddenly seized with a paralytic disorder, which terminating in a lethargy, he was carried in a state of insensibility to Osnaburgh, where he expired on the 11th of the same month, being the 68th year of his age, and 19th of his reign, and was interred among his ancestors at Hanover.

As soon as this event was known in England, Sir Robert Walpole, at that time considered as first minister, immediately waited on the prince and princess of Wales with the melancholy intelligence; and, on the 15th of June, the prince was proclaimed king of England, by the title of George II. Considerable changes were at first expected in the ministry, but all the great officers of state continued in their places; Sir Robert Walpole kept possession of the treasury, notwithstanding a coolness had subsisted between him and George II. while prince of Wales. The principal members who opposed the measures pursued by Sir Robert, were Mr. Daniel Pultney, Mr. William Pultney, Mr. Shippen, and Sir William Wyndham. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the House of Commons itself, with his own creatures; and was justly blamed for his unbounded love of peace, whereby he subjected the nation to the insults of foreign powers; but an attempt which, in 1733, he made in the House of Commons to introduce a general excise, was what gave the first shock to his power. There is no doubt but, had he been determined to have exerted his influence, the bill would have passed; but, finding that the nation in general was averse to it, he suffered the opposition to prevail, and the people testified their approbation by tokens of public rejoicing.

The measures of Sir Robert Walpole had for some time rendered him the object of popular resentment, which was now greatly increased by his giving offence to Frederick, prince of Wales. A motion had been made in the House of Commons for augmenting the prince's revenue. Sir Robert opposed it, and it was carried in the negative. The prince was now considered as the leader of the opposition; and Sir Robert began to fear the consequences, when Frederick, by an unhappy accident, incurred the displeasure of the king, who gave the prince to understand, that until he should

withdraw his confidence from those by whose instigation and advice he was encouraged in his disobedient behaviour, and return to his duty, he should not reside in the palace: at the same time signifying his pleasure, that he should leave St. James's with all his family, as soon as it could be done without prejudice or inconvenience to the princess, who now lay-in there. The prince, in consequence of this message, retired to Kew; but found his father's anger was not easily appeased, even his request to obtain admittance to the queen, his mother, to implore forgiveness, and receive her blessing in her last moments, was denied. That princess paid the debt of nature on the 20th of November 1737, and was regretted as a pattern of conjugal virtue, and a friend to all the learned of Europe.

In the mean time, the debates in parliament relating to the Spanish depletions in America, were carried on with uncommon ardour. Sir Robert adhered to his pacific system, and concluded a shameful compromise, under the title of a convention, which even his best friends could not defend; but at length, vigorous measures becoming necessary, war was declared against Spain on the 23d of October 1736. Vernon, a sworn enemy to the minister, having asserted in the House of Commons, that Porto Bello might be taken with six men of war, was sent with a fleet to the West-Indies. The admiral performed his promise: he took Porto Bello, situated on the Isthmus of Darien, with six ships only, and demolished all the fortifications by which it was defended. He, however, miscarried in another attempt he made against Carthagena; but the misfortune was chiefly owing to the general of the land forces.

The succeeding winter was one of the severest ever known in England. The river Thames was frozen over, and several trades exercised on the ice. The fruits of the earth were destroyed, trade was at a stand, and the price of provisions arose to an amazing height; even water was sold in the streets of London. In this season of distress many wretched families must have perished by cold and hunger, had not those of opulent fortunes been inspired with a remarkable spirit of humanity and compassion. Nothing can more redound to the honour of the English nation, than the instances of benevolence and well-conducted charity which were then exhibited.

The general election now coming on, the minister determined to try his strength in the House of Commons by a contested election; and had the mortification to find a majority of sixteen voices against him. On this decision he declared he would never more sit in that house. Accordingly, the parliament was adjourned by the king for sixteen days; and, during that interval, Walpole was created earl of Orford, and resigned his employments. After which, the new administration being settled; by dividing, after various removals, the power of the premiership between Mr. Pelham and his brother the duke of Newcastle, the prince of Wales attended by a numerous retinue of his adherents, waited

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on his majesty, who received him very graciously, and ordered his guards to be restored.

About this time the affairs of Europe wore a threatening aspect. In the West-Indies the war, in 1741, proved unfortunate for England, through the fatal divisions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that above 20,000 British seamen perished in the impracticable attempt on Carthage, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other fruitless expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negotiations with the courts of Peterburgh 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 occasioned the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with inconsiderable loss; and soon after the French and English declared war against each other. The Dutch, England's natural allies, carried on a most lucrative trade during the war; nor could they be brought to act against the French till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition; and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with so bad a grace, that it was plain they did not heartily embark in the war.

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 barriers in the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege, but, by the coldness of the Austrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, and misconduct somewhere else, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his best men; though it is generally believed that his dispositions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with amazing intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England with an immense treasure (about a million sterling) which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Popperel, took the important town and fortress of Louisbourg in the island of Cape Breton, from the French.

Such was the state of affairs in Europe, when the pretender's eldest son, in 1745, landed in Scotland. His friends, on his first appearance, considered the attempt as desperate, as a scheme which nothing but the madness of enthusiastic zeal could have projected, and the fury of wild ambition undertaken to execute; but he was deaf to all their arguments, and determined to proceed, whatever consequences might ensue. For some time fortune attended his standard; Sir John Cope was defeated at Preston-Pans, the pretender

entered England, took the city of Carlisle, and penetrated as far as Derby. The capital was now thrown into the utmost confusion, and the Jacobite party laid a deep scheme to distress the bank of England. The merchants immediately assembled, and agreed to take bank notes in payment: this preserved the public credit. The duke of Cumberland was appointed to command the army assembled in the neighbourhood of Litchfield. But the chevalier, finding himself fatally disappointed in his hopes of being joined by the English, retreated back into Scotland, where he defeated general Hawley, and burnt Fort Augustus.

The duke of Cumberland pursued the rebels, and, on the 16th of August, both armies met at Culloden. A fierce encounter ensued; but, in less than thirty minutes, the pretender's army was totally defeated, the field of battle covered with their dead bodies, and the young adventurer himself obliged to have recourse to flight for his safety.

This extinction of the rebellion did not however restore the peace of Europe. The war was carried on with great vigour in Flanders, and the island of Zealand threatened with a descent. This again roused the populace of Holland; and the States, in order to prevent the dreadful consequences of a tumult, declared the prince of Orange stadtholder, and proclaimed war against France. Notwithstanding these appearances, the Dutch never could be prevailed upon to act with vigour. The allies were defeated at Laffeldt; and Bergen-op-Zoom was taken in a manner that has never been accounted for. In the mean time, the French marine and foreign trade were almost annihilated by the English, under the command of Anson, Warren, Hawke, and others.

A general peace now seemed necessary to all parties; and accordingly a definitive treaty was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 17th of September 1748. Soon after the conclusion of the peace, the boldest stroke of financing ever perhaps attempted in any government, was undertaken and executed with success. The last war had greatly increased the public debt, so that very large sums were obliged to be raised annually, to discharge the interest, which was then at four per cent. Mr. Pelham, who presided at the treasury board, was desirous, if possible, of lessening this annual sum. It was sufficiently evident, that great numbers of private persons in England had acquired immense fortunes during the war; and, consequently, that there was no want of money in the nation. He therefore took the resolution of reducing the interest of the national debt, from four to three and a half per cent. for seven years, and, after that time, to stand at three per cent.

This measure, however bold it might at first appear, was well founded. Very few chose to take their money out of the funds; and even some of them afterwards made interest with the minister to have it replaced on the conditions he had offered. Many improvements were also made by Mr. Pelham during this state of tranquillity, with regard to commerce, manufactures, and

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the fisheries. On the 20th of March 1750, Frederick, prince of Wales, paid the debt of nature. He was a magnificent patron of the arts, a friend to merit, and warmly attached to the true interests of his country. In the next session of parliament an act was passed for regulating the commencement of the year, and correcting the calendar, according to the Gregorian computation, which had been long adopted by most other nations in Europe. This was done by sinking eleven days in September 1752, and, from that time, beginning the year on the 1st of January. In 1753 was passed the famous act for preventing clandestine marriages. In the year 1754 died Mr. Pelham, who had for some time so worthily and wisely conducted the affairs of England, universally lamented.

When the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was signed, it was considered by every intelligent person as nothing better than an armed cessation of hostilities. The French were assiduous in repairing and augmenting their marine; they had laid an artful scheme for possessing themselves of the English back-settlements in North America, and for cutting off all communication between the British subjects and the Indians. Alarmed at these proceedings, the British ministry ordered a squadron of men of war, under the command of admiral Boscawen, to sail to the coast of Newfoundland, and observe the motions of the French fleet, then sitting out at Brest. Boscawen sailed about the latter end of April 1775, with eleven ships of the line, and one frigate, having a considerable number of land forces on board. He was soon after joined by admiral Holborne with six ships of the line and one frigate. A few days after the British fleet had reached the banks of Newfoundland, the French squadron appeared, but the fog prevented any pursuit, so that only two of them, the Alcide and the Lys, both of 64 guns, fell into the hands of the English; the rest of the fleet escaping up the river St. Laurence.

The spirit of the English nation had for some time been roused by the encroachments of the French in America. It was no sooner known that hostilities were begun, than the public poured their money into the funds of the government, and orders were issued for making reprisals both in Europe and America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopped and brought into the harbours of England. These orders were so effectually obeyed, that, before the end of the year 1755, above 300 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8000 of their best sailors were sent into the British ports. This well-timed measure had such an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ships of war; for, about two years after, there were above 30,000 French seamen prisoners in England: so that the French name, instead of being the terror, now became the contempt of Europe.

While the enemy's trade was thus ruined in Europe, colonel Monckton, at the head of a body of troops

raised by the province of Massachusetts-Bay, drove the French from the forts they had erected in different parts of Nova-Scotia, and secured the tranquillity of the province. But general Braddock, who had been sent from England at the head of a body of troops, in order to drive the French from the forts they had erected on the Ohio, had, for want of taking the necessary precautions in passing through the woods, fallen into an ambuscade, where his army was cut to pieces, and himself slain in the contest. General Johnson was more fortunate; he totally defeated the French army near Crown Point, commanded by baron Dieskau, a German officer, who came over in the fleet which escaped admiral Boscawen. Johnson took a number of prisoners, among whom was Dieskau himself.

The French ministry, baffled in every attempt both in Europe and America, were determined to strike an important blow, and accordingly fitted out a formidable fleet at Brest, where they assembled a great number of transports. This nament at first filled the English with consternation, as it seemed to threaten a descent upon their coast. Six thousand men, furnished by the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, and twelve battalions of Hannoverian troops, arrived in England, and every necessary precaution was taken to render the attempt abortive. But it soon appeared that the preparations at Brest were only intended to cover the real design formed by the enemy. While the English were every day expecting an invasion, the French embarked a large body of troops at Toulon, and landed them in Minorca, where they besieged and took the castle of St. Philip, though bravely defended by general Blakeney, and took possession of the whole island. The loss of this place was more shameful than prejudicial to the kingdom; but the public outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot to death at Portsmouth for not doing all that was in his power against the enemy.

This sacrifice being found very insufficient to silence the complaints of the people, Mr. Pitt, long known as a bold and eloquent speaker, was placed at the head of affairs. He soon proved himself equal to the important post he filled, and, by his spirited measures, raised the depressed minds of his countrymen. About the same time, advices arrived from the East-Indies, which more than counterbalanced the loss of Minorca. The successes of colonel Clive in that part of the world were truly amazing. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orika, and placed Jaffer Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the nabobs of these provinces. Suraja Dowla, who had embraced the French interest, and, at their instigation, had attacked the English settlements, was, a few days after his defeat by colonel Clive, taken prisoner by the son of the nabob, Jaffer Ally Cawn, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the amazing extent of territory now possessed by the English in the East-Indies.

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Among the feveral bold meafures introduced by Mr. Pitt, was a new fyftem of operations againft France; a plan calculated at once to alarm and diftrefs the enemy, and to reftore the fpirits of the Englifh. Defpifing the threats of an invasion from the enemy, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France, and convincing the world, that the Britifh forces are fo far from fearing an attack, that they were defirous of seeking them in their own territories. The firft expedition was defigned againft Rochfort, and the command of the land forces given to Sir John Mordaunt. The fleet, commanded by admiral Hawke, failed from Spithead on the 8th of September 1757; but, for reasons beft known to the officers of the army, no attempts were made to land on the coast of France; and, on the 6th of October, the admiral returned to St. Helen's. This difappointment, however, occafioned no murmurings againft the minifter: the people had too great an opinion of his virtue and intrepidity, to impute any part of the failure to him.

The French having fent a numerous army into the electorate of Hanover, large fupplies were voted by the Britifh parliament for the defence of his majesty's hereditary dominions, and the neceffary methods taken for rendering the defigns of the enemy abortive. The duke of C. uberland, who commanded an army of observation in that country, did every thing in his power to flop the progrefs of the French; but, being preffed by a force far fuperior to his own, he was obliged to abandon the enterprife, and figned a convention with the enemy at Clofterfeven: then the duke de Richlieu, who commanded the French, took poffeffion of that electorate, together with its capital.

It having been found that the difficulties of maintaining an army on the continent, fufficiently numerous to defeat the enterprifes of the enemy, were infurmountable, a treaty of mutual defence and alliance was concluded between his Britannic majesty and the king of Pruffia, in confequence of which the parliament voted 670,000 pounds to the latter; together with near two millions per annum, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hefle-Cassel, Saxe-Gothia, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckburg. Prince Ferdinand, of Brunfwick, a celebrated Pruffian officer, was appointed general of this combined army, which foon after afsembled to revenge the insults offered by the French to their country.

The French under Richlieu having violated the Convention, an army was formed at Stade, under the direction of prince Ferdinand, who determined to begin the operations of the campaign immediately, and, if poffible, drive the French out of the electorate of Hanover. It was the latter end of November before the army began their march; but, notwithstanding the advanced feafon of the year, they foon drove the enemy out of Lunenburg, Zell, and the reft of the Brunfwick dominions. Enraged at this reverse of fortune, Richlieu committed the moft barbarous ravages on the innocent inhabitants, burning and

destroying all the villages and farm-houfes that lay in his way. He reduced the fuburbs of Zell to afhes, and even fet fire to the orphan-houfe, by which infernal action a great number of poor innocent children perished in the flames.

Mean time the Englifh repeatedly infulted the coasts of France; destroyed the ftores and fhipping at St. Maloes and Cherburg, and filled the whole French nation with the moft dreadful alarms. At the clofe of thefe expeditions, the duke of Marlborough, who commanded the Britifh forces, joined prince Ferdinand at the head of 12,000 veteran troops; and this number was afterwards increafed to 25,000. Succels almost constantly attended the ftandard of Prince Ferdinand; but, being oppofed by an army always nearly double to his own, his victories were not attended with the advantages they would otherwife have produced. The moft glorious battle ever fought in this, or, perhaps, any other age, was that of Minden; where about 7,000 Englifh defeated above 80,000 regular troops of the enemy, in the open field.

The fuccels of the Britifh armaments were equal in every other part of the globe. The French fettlement at Senegal, on the coast of Africa, was taken by captain Marfh, and the ifland of Goree by commodore Keppel. The important fortrefs of Louifburg, in the ifland of Cape Breton, which had been reftored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, was again reduced by admiral Bofcawen and general Ainherft, and fix French fhips of the line taken. The war in the East Indies was alfo carried on with equal advantage. Admiral Pococke defeated the French fleet in two engagements, and forced them to abandon the coast of Coromandel. General Lally, commander of the French forces in India, undertook the fiege of Madras. The place was accordingly invefted, and a brisk cannonade continued for two days; but not being able to make any impreffion on the works, and the Englifh receiving a reinforcement of 600 men, Lally thought proper to raife the fiege, and retire to Pondicherry. This was immediately performed, but with fuch precipitation, that they abandoned 40 pieces of cannon, which the Englifh carried into Madras.

The greateft efforts of the Englifh were made in America. Three capital expeditions were planned, and carried into execution in the year 1759. The firft was againft the French iflands in the Weft-Indies. The command of this expedition was given to commodore Hughes and general Hobfon. The firft attack was made upon the ifland of Martinique; but, failing in the attempt, they fteered for Guadaloupe, which fubmitted to the Englifh. The fecond expedition was againft Quebec, the capital of Canada, fituated on the river St. Laurence, and remarkably ftrohg both by art and nature. The minifter gave the command of the fleet to admiral Saunders, and that of the land forces to general Wolfe, a young officer, but one of the greateft military geniufes the world ever faw. Wolfe was op

posed with far superior force by Montcalm, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country which the British general was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounted incredible difficulties; he gained the heights of Abraham, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himself killed, as was Montcalm; general Monckton, who was next in command, being wounded, brigadier-general (now lord viscount) Townshend, completed the French defeat, and reduced Quebec, which still remains in the hands of the English.

The third expedition was conducted by general Amherst. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and join general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. The minister took care that Amherst should be well supplied with every necessary for rendering his expedition successful; in consequence of which, all the operations were carried on with such amazing facility, that there hardly appeared any chance for its miscarriage. Thus all Canada was conquered, and became a part of the British empire in North America.

France had so often felt the fatal effects of British valour, that she seemed now to act like a person of desperate fortune, and to venture all upon a single stake, by invading England in three different parts of the kingdom.

The preparations at Havre were soon rendered abortive by admiral Rodney, who bombarded the place, burnt the large magazines of stores, collected for the use of the troops destined for this expedition; destroyed a great number of the flat-bottomed boats; set the town on fire in several places, and so terrified the inhabitants, that they forsook their houses, and retired into the country for protection. Boscawen waited for a considerable time, and made use of various stratagems to draw the French admiral out of the port of Toulon; but all his attempts proving fruitless, and several of his ships being considerably out of repair, he retired to Gibraltar to refit. He did not however lose sight of the principal object, the preventing the French admiral from passing the Streights' mouth; but that commander, imagining that Boscawen had entirely abandoned his project, sailed with his squadron from Toulon, and reached the Streights' mouth; but being discovered by Boscawen's cruisers, he immediately gave the enemy chase; and after a gallant action, took the Centaur, the Temeraire, and the Modeste, all of seventy-four guns, and burnt the Ocean of 80, and the Redoubtable of 74: the rest of the squadron, consisting of seven ships of the line, and three frigates, made their escape in the night.

Sir Edward Hawke being driven by stress of weather from his station, the French admiral embraced the opportunity of sailing out of Brest with twenty-one sail of the line, and four frigates, in order to destroy the

smaller English squadron, commanded by captain Duff, before the larger could return to its assistance. Sir Edward Hawke being soon informed that the French squadron had put to sea, steered directly to Quiberon Bay, where he was persuaded the French fleet would rendezvous. About eight in the morning of the twentieth of November, the French fleet was discovered in chase of captain Duff's squadron; but Conflans no sooner perceived Sir Edward Hawke's fleet standing towards him, than he stood away with all the sail he could carry. Upon this Hawke threw out the signal to chase the flying enemy, in order to detain them till the headmost ships could be properly reinforced by the rest of the fleet; and the good conduct, together with the intrepidity of the English, rendered abortive the hopes the enemy had entertained of escaping. Sir Edward came up to the French admiral, and totally defeated his fleet. The Formidable, of eighty guns, was taken; the Thesee, of seventy-four, and the Superb, of seventy, were sunk; the Soleil Royal, of eighty, and the Hero, of seventy-four, were burnt. Seven or eight French men of war got up the river Villaine, after throwing their guns and stores over-board; and the rest of the fleet, consisting of five ships of the line, and three frigates, escaped in the night. Two English ships, the Effex, of sixty-four, and the Resolution, of seventy-four guns, ran upon a shoal, and were lost; but all their crews, and the greater part of their stores, were saved. This defeat almost annihilated the French navy, and obliged the ministry to lay aside all thoughts of invading England.

In the mean time Thurot escaped from Dunkirk, and sailing to the northward round the isles of Scotland, made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland; but on his return from thence he was met by captain Elliot, with a force inferior to his own. An engagement ensued, when Fortune declared for the English; the whole squadron of the enemy were taken, and Thurot himself killed in the action.

The war in Germany still continued as undecided; it was expensive, and all the belligerent powers seemed inclined to peace. A negotiation was accordingly set on foot, but proved abortive, as did many other projects of the same kind. While the thoughts of the public were engaged on this desirable event, George III. died suddenly at his palace at Kensington, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign.

This prince enjoyed the peculiar felicity to see both party and the spirit of party entirely extinguished in his kingdoms. None of his predecessors on the throne of England lived to so great an age; few of them enjoyed so long a reign. He died at the very point of time when the terror of his arms, the power of his dominions, and the wisdom of his government, were raised almost to the summit of human acquisition; they were indeed at that height of prosperity and glory, never had been exceeded in the reign of the most for-

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inate of his predecessors. Though his parts were neither lively nor brilliant, yet the whole of his conduct demonstrated that his judgment was at once both solid and comprehensive. He understood the interests of the other sovereigns of Europe, and was particularly acquainted with all the recesses of that political labyrinth, the system of Germany; and was, during his whole life, a zealous assertor of the liberties of that country, but could never separate an idea that there was any difference between his electoral and royal dominions. His temper was sudden and violent, but placable; nor did these starts of passion, though they influenced his behaviour for a time, make any impression on his conduct, which was always sufficiently deliberate and attentive both to his own interests and those of his people. He was plain and direct in his intentions; true to his word; steady in his favour and protection to his servants, and never changed them willingly. Having in a manner been compelled, by a violent faction, to part with a minister in whom he reposed an unlimited confidence, it afterwards became a matter of mere indifference to him by whom he was served in the affairs of his government. He hardly ever removed those who served more immediately about his person; they grew old with him, or died in their places. He was merciful in his disposition, but not to such a degree as to encourage offences against his government; nor did his affections, either public or private, ever interfere with the ordinary course of justice. In a word, he lived beloved, and died lamented.

George III. grandson of George II. ascended the throne when England was in the zenith of its glory. Being a native of England, which had for many years been governed by foreigners, the people were prejudiced in his favour: he was in the bloom of youth, in his person tall and comely, and at the time of his accession the most salutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The first acts of this young monarch's reign seemed to convince the public, that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war, which hitherto had been remarkably prosperous. Accordingly, in 1761, the island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgson, as did the important fortrefs of Pondicherry in the East-Indies to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations against the French West-Indies still continued under general Monckton, lord Rollo, and Sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, as likewise those of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms.

Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such wisdom and effect, having received authentic information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against

that kingdom. *P.* asserted, that this was the time for humbling the whole house of Bourbon, and that if this opportunity was let slip, it might never be recovered; but he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which, except his brother-in-law earl Temple, declared themselves of a contrary opinion. This great man now perceived his influence decline, and it was supposed he was supplanted by the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, and had of course acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour. Mr. Pitt, however, convinced that nothing could be hoped for in a divided ministry; and being determined not to be responsible for measures he was no longer allowed to guide, resigned the seals, and lord Temple also gave up the post which he held in the administration. His majesty, sensible of the distinguished merit of this minister, made him an offer of any rewards in the power of the crown to bestow, and was pleased to settle a pension of 3000. a year upon Mr. Pitt for three lives, and a title was bestowed upon his lady and her issue. These advantages and honours had unquestionably been well deserved by his public services, but his acceptance of them greatly lessened his popularity, and many arts were employed to produce that effect. There prevailed in the nation a very considerable degree of discontent, on account of his removal from power; and it was extremely natural that the people should behold, with the utmost regret, the removal of a minister from the direction of public affairs, of whose abilities and integrity they had the highest opinion, and in the midst of a war which he had conducted with so much honour to himself and to his country, and in a manner which had excited the astonishment of Europe; and indeed it must be confessed, there was, in all his designs, a magnitude, and even a vastness, which was not easily comprehended by every mind, and which nothing but success could demonstrate to be reasonable.

On the resignation of Mr. Pitt, the earl of Egremont was made secretary of state, and the duke of Newcastle placed at the head of the treasury. The war, however, still continued to be carried on with vigour, and the plans were pursued that he had previously concerted. Accordingly, war was declared against Spain on the 4th of January 1762. The vitals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at by the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort which his catholic majesty held in the West-Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. About the same time the Hermione, a large Spanish register ship, valued at a million sterling, was taken by three English frigates, and carried into Gibraltar. This was followed by the reduction of Manila and the Philippic islands in the East-Indies, under general Draper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth 3,000,000 of dollars.

These were dreadful shocks to the new alliance between France and Spain, and convinced both pow-
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ers, that unless some methods could be taken to balance these advantages, a peace on any terms must be concluded. Accordingly they opened their last resource, which was an invasion of Portugal, on the most frivolous pretences. As this kingdom had for a long time been under the peculiar protection of the British arms, there was a necessity for our defending it. This greatly embarrassed the British ministry; but the forces sent to that kingdom found no difficulty in repelling the troops sent against it by the enemy. The only acquisition France made during this year was that of Newfoundland; which was soon recovered by general Amherst's forces, who made the French governor and the garrison prisoners of war.

About this time the negotiations for peace were resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal, the ratifications were exchanged on the 10th of March at Paris; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, and received the approbation of a majority of both houses, the peace was solemnly proclaimed at Westminster and London on the twenty-second of the same month.

By this treaty, the extensive province of Canada, with the valuable islands of Newfoundland, Cape-Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great-Britain, together with the two Floridas, and the whole continent of North-America, on the north side of the Mississippi, except the town of New Orleans, and a small district round it. The islands of Grenada and the Grenadillas were also ceded to the English; and the French and Spaniards quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. The settlement of Senegal on the coast of Africa was also ceded by the French. On the other hand, the Havannah was restored to Spain. The islands of Desirade, Martinique, Guadaloupe, and Mariegalante, were restored to France. The English gave up their claim to the neutral island of St. Lucia, granted the French the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coast of Newfoundland, and returned the island of Goree, on the coast of Africa. The article relating to the East-India company, and by it the French were put into possession of all the places they enjoyed before the war, on condition that they erected no forts, nor kept any forces in the province of Bengal. The city of Manilla was also restored to the Spaniards; and they consented that the English should enjoy the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras, in America. The French restored the island of Minorca, and the English

that of Belleisle. At the same time it was mutually agreed, that a reciprocal restitution and oblivion should take place with regard to Germany, and the various places that had been taken during the war, should revert to their proper sovereigns, or those who possessed them before the troubles began. The same conduct was observed between the courts of Portugal, Spain, and France, every thing being placed upon the same footing as before the war.

Though the peace received the sanction of a majority of both houses of parliament, it was far from giving universal satisfaction to the people. The manner in which it was begun, and the precipitation with which it was concluded were condemned. The terms also were censured by many, as extremely inadequate to what might justly have been expected from the numerous victories and advantages which had been obtained against the enemy; and from this period various causes contributed to occasion a spirit of discontent throughout the nation.

On April 30, 1763, Mr. Wilkes's person and papers were seized by the king's messengers, on account of his being the author of the North-Briton, a periodical paper, which severely arraigned the conduct of administration, and represented the earl of Bute as the king's favourite, and the person from whom measures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The forty-fifth number contained strictures on the king's speech. He was forcibly carried before the secretaries of state, by whom he was examined, and afterwards committed close prisoner to the Tower, though he had objected to the warrant, as illegal, his name not being mentioned in it. He was prosecuted in the court of King's-Bench, for being the author of Number Forty-Five, which was also voted by parliament to be a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and ordered to be burnt by the common hangman, the execution of which order met with great opposition from the populace, who wounded Mr. Harley, one of the sheriffs, and obliged him to take shelter in the Mansion-House. Mr. Wilkes was also prosecuted for causing to be printed an obscene and profane poem, called "An Essay on Woman," though only twelve copies of this piece had been printed, and it did not appear intended for publication. He was soon after expelled the house; and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed.

Paul Bute in the mean time resigned his office, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville, who framed and caused to be passed the STAMP-ACT, which was productive of the most pernicious consequences to Great-Britain, by laying the foundation of a fatal and ruinous war. The alarm in England, on hearing of the commotions in America, which this offensive act occasioned, was so great, that the king thought proper to dismiss his ministers; and the marquis of Rockingham and his friends were appointed to the administration. In March 1766 the American stamp-act was repealed,

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for securing the dependence of the American colonies
on Great-Britain. On July 30, 1766, the ministry
was again changed, the duke of Grafton being ap-
pointed lord-treasurer in the room of the marquis of
Rockingham; and Mr Pitt, since created earl of
Chatham, was made lord privy-seal.

Mr. Wilkes, who had for a considerable time resided
in France, in order to escape the fury of his persecu-
tions, came over to England in 1768. The parliam-
ent having been lately dissolved, he offered himself a can-
didate for London, but lost his election; he afterwards
offered himself for the county of Middlesex, and was
elected by a great majority on March 28. In May follow-
ing he surrendered himself up, and was committed to the
prison of the King's-Bench: on which account great
disturbances ensued; and one William Allen, a youth,
being singled out, was pursued by the soldiers, and shot
near his father's house in a manner which the occasion
could in no respect justify. This affair made a great
impression; and the odium of the transaction was rather
increased than lessened by the pains the ministry took
to suppress and vindicate the military. On the eighth
of June Mr. Wilkes's outlawry was reversed; and on
the eighteenth of the same month he was sentenced to
pay a fine of 500l. and be imprisoned ten months,
for re-publishing the North-Briton, Number Forty-
five, and also to pay a fine of 500l. and be imprisoned
twelve months, to be computed from the expiration of
the term of his former imprisonment, for publishing
the Essay on Woman. He complained to the house,
by petition, of the injustice and illegality of the pro-
ceedings against him; but his complaints were voted
frivolous and groundless. He was also again expelled,
for being the author of some prefatory remarks on a
letter he published, written by one of the secretaries
of state, respecting the military being employed in St.
George's-Fields.

Mr. Wilkes's popularity increased still more by the
rigour of his prosecutions, and the spirit and firmness
he displayed throughout. He had been chosen alderman
of London before his expulsion; and on February 16,
1769, he was without opposition re-elected member for
Middlesex. The house declared his election void, by
reason of his expulsion; he was, however, immediately
re-elected by the freeholders, and the election again
declared void by parliament. A new election being
ordered, colonel Luttrell, in order to recommend him-
self to the court, vacated his seat, and became a candi-
date for Middlesex, in opposition to Mr. Wilkes.
The latter, however, notwithstanding the whole weight
of court-interest was against him, obtained a majority
of near four to one, Wilkes having 1143, and Luttrell
only 296 votes. The House of Commons, however,
two days afterwards, resolved that Mr. Luttrell ought
to have been chosen, and ordered the return to be
amended, by erasing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and in-
serting that of Mr. Luttrell in its place. These pro-

ceedings excited a general discontent, and loud com-
plaints were every-where made against them, as the
rights of election were thought to be thereby grossly
violated; petitions were, therefore, in very strong
terms, presented to the throne, from different parts,
complaining of this and other national grievances, in
which the county of Middlesex, as the most imme-
diately affected, took the lead.

In 1771 the term of Mr. Wilkes's imprisonment was
expired; he was then chosen one of the sheriffs for
London and Middlesex. The same year several printers
were ordered to attend the house, being accused with
inserting in their papers the parliamentary debates. One
of them, who was apprehended in his own house by
the messenger, refused to attend the summons, and
caused the messenger to be carried by a constable to the
Mansion-House, where the aldermen Wilkes and Oliver
then were. The deputy-serjeant at arms, being also
present, demanded, in the name of the speaker, that
both the messenger and the printer should be delivered
up to him. He was told, that the warrant, not being
backed by a city magistrate, was invalid. The printer
was therefore discharged; the messenger not having
sufficient bail, a warrant was made out for his commit-
ment to prison; and the serjeant's bail was accepted.
The issue of this affair was, the lord-mayor Crosby,
and alderman Oliver, both members of parliament,
were a few days after committed to the Tower, by the
authority of the house.

After these transactions, all future contest with Mr.
Wilkes was studiously avoided. That gentleman was
afterwards again chosen member for the county of
Middlesex, in the subsequent parliament, and permitted
quietly to take his seat there; in the year 1775 he exe-
cuted the office of lord-mayor of the city of London,
and hath since been elected to the lucrative office of
chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the
change of lord North's administration, on Mr. Wilkes's
motions, all the declarations, orders, and resolutions
of the House of Commons, respecting his election for
the county of Middlesex, were ordered to be expunged
from the journals of that house, "as being subversive
of the rights of the whole body of electors of this
kingdom." It may be proper to mention here, that in
consequence of Mr. Wilkes's manly and spirited con-
tests with the government, general warrants were de-
clared to be illegal, and an end was put to such war-
rants, and to the unlawful seizure, by state-messengers,
of an Englishman's papers in his own house.

As the most material transactions respecting this
country are involved in the late unhappy contest between
England and America, we shall therefore close our
history with an account of the rise and progress of the
war between Great-Britain and her colonies, and the
most remarkable military events during the course of it.

The unhappy divisions which had for several years
subsisted between Great-Britain and the American colo-
nies (exclusive of some disagreeable previous restrictions)

commenced on account of that unpopular act of the British legislature passed in 1765, "for laying a stamp-duty on the British colonies in America." The first commotions were in the province of Massachusetts-Bay, and more particularly at Boston, where the commissioners for enforcing the revenue acts, and collecting the monies arising therefrom, were badly received, and narrowly escaped with their lives. All persons, directly or indirectly, belonging to government, were looked upon with a suspicious eye; the cool and dispassionate were silent, and the commonalty declared they would not be taxed by the British parliament without their own consent, that is, without actual representation. Some of the commissioners were compelled, upon oath, to renounce at that time, and for ever, all concern with these taxes. The tax-gatherers were tarred and feathered; the ships, which carried over the stamps, were threatened with conflagration, unless they delivered up the exceptionable parts of their cargoes to be committed to the flames; and, in fine, anarchy succeeded amity, and mutual enmity usurped the place of reciprocal concord. The inhabitants of Boston, and some other parts of New-England, at length came to a determination, not to make use of any articles of British manufacture; and about the beginning of February 1768, the house of representatives gave their sanction to this resolution.

The most acrimonious disputes now took place between many of the inhabitants of New-England in general; most of the people of Boston in particular on the one part, and governor Barnard, with the loyalists, on the other. Aggravating things were said, ill-natured actions done, and libels were published by both parties. Thus a war of sentiments commenced before real hostilities; the obsolete terms of Whig and Tory were revived, and the souls of each faction were in arms, previous to any mutual exertions of their animosity.

In the middle of June 1768, the captain of a shallop waiting to run some wine, and ill-using the tide-waiter, the vessel was seized, and for better security put alongside of the Romney man of war. This occasioned a riot, when the comptroller and collector of the customs took refuge on board the said man of war. Government, however, in order to conciliate matters as much as possible, repealed the stamp-act; but still the Americans were dissatisfied, for they insisted, that though the act itself was repealed, yet the spirit of it remained, while a revenue was demanded from the colonies; besides which, other laws had been passed in England, one relative to quartering troops in the colonies, and another for suspending the legislative powers of New-York, which gave the Americans great umbrage. Unlawful meetings were continual; riots were frequent, and interested persons fomented the disputes. About the same time the governor directed the house of representatives at Boston to rescind a resolution concerning a circular letter to some of the other governments;

but they refusing, he dissolved the assembly on the third of August following.

It was at length determined to coerce the Americans, and a body of troops arrived there for that purpose, from Halifax, September 30, 1768, escorted by some ships of war. But the riotous proceedings of the Bostonians increasing, more troops were ordered to Boston, and a variety of altercations took place, not only between the governor and the people, but between General Gage and the latter.

In the beginning of the year 1769 many persons in the colony of New-York thought proper to adopt the sentiments of the Bostonians, and to engage in the political squabbles which were daily heightening in New-England. Other colonies soon after acceded to the combination, and in particular to the resolutions for the non-importation of the British manufactures, and East-India goods; and thus the fire of dissension increased with great rapidity, and the flame of discord blazed through the greatest part of the North-American continent.

The inhabitants of Boston now summed up a variety of grievances; among which complaints were these, "That the civil power was disregarded, and centinels placed in various parts of the town. That the negroes had been united to take away their masters' lives and property, and to repair to the army for protection. That some of the soldiers had attacked the magistrates of the town. That many soldiers had been repeatedly rescued from the peace-officers. That many persons had been wounded by the military; and that on the 5th of March 1770, eleven persons were either killed, or dangerously wounded."

These charges were either denied, or palliated by the other party, by the plea of the military being compelled to act as they did, and to defend themselves; and at the same time accusations, equally atrocious, were brought against the people of New-England. Some persons were tried for the murders, but none executed. Sir Francis Barnard having returned to England, the animosities and disputes still continued between the people and lieutenant-governor Hutchinson, who remained in his room.

Affairs thus remained, when about the middle of December 1773, some ships laden with tea, being at Boston (as a duty was to be paid) the people would not suffer it to be landed. The ships being refused a clearance by the governor, unless the cargoes were landed, and properly disposed of, a mob, dressed like Mohawk Indians, entered the three ships, which contained the tea, and were commanded by the captains Hall, Bruce, and Coffin, and emptied their cargoes, consisting of 342 chests of tea, into the water. This and other outrages occasioned the Boston-Port Bill, passed April 4, 1774, by which the town of Boston was proscribed and blocked up.

The people of New-England now began to form themselves into companies, practise the military arts, enter

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into solemn leagues and covenants, &c. Several other colonies followed the example, provincial assemblies were held, and a general congress established, to which deputies from the several provinces were invited.

After many bickerings and animosities between the patriots and provincials, and the martial parade of the latter, the next material transaction was the seizure of Fort-William and Mary, near Portsmouth, in New-Hampshire, by the provincial militia, in which they found 106 barrels of gunpowder, several cannons, shot, small arms, &c.

General Gage being informed that a great quantity of military stores were in the possession of the provincial troops, at the town of Concord, sent a detachment of troops, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Smith, and major Pitcairn, supported by another body, commanded by lord Percy, in order to seize or destroy them. This service was effectually performed, after some skirmishes; but on April 19, 1775, the troops were attacked at Lexington, on their return towards Boston, the provincials firing from behind stone-walls, hedges, bushes, &c. The loss of the king's troops on this occasion amounted to sixty-five killed, 170 wounded, and about twenty prisoners. The Americans were computed not to have lost more than sixty, including killed and wounded.

The provincials now invested the town of Boston; and the people of New-York, hearing of the action at Lexington, and the affair of Concord, rose in a tumultuous manner, entered the town-house, seized a great many stands of arms, appropriated to their own use the cargoes of two ships laden with military stores for general Gage, and then marched to the assistance of the Bostonians. They also not only continued to block up the town of Boston, but began to raise batteries on the heights of the peninsula of Charles-Town, in order to cannonade his majesty's troops. This brought on the action of Bunker's-Hill; for on the 17th of June 1775, a considerable body of troops, under the command of major-general Howe and brigadier-general Pigot, were sent to dislodge the provincials. This body of forces, with a proportionable quantity of artillery, made good their landing near Bunker's-Hill, under the protection of the ships of war, armed vessels, floating batteries, &c. and being soon after reinforced by another detachment, a desperate action commenced; in which the British troops were victorious, the provincial lines being forced, and themselves compelled to retreat, leaving behind several pieces of cannon and other military stores. The loss of the provincials in killed and wounded was very great; of the British troops, according to the return of general Gage, 226 were killed, and 113 were wounded; some of the latter dying soon after; and more than a proportional number of officers being included in both lists.

In the night of the twenty-third of August 1775, the cannon at New-York were seized upon, by order of Congress, though the Asia man of war, which lay

in the harbour, tried to prevent it, by cannonading the town. At the same time general Carleton was indefatigable, in putting the province of Canada into a proper state of defence; and the earl of Dunmore, governor of Virginia, having thought proper to take refuge on board a ship of war, harassed the coast, and made frequent descents upon the last-mentioned province, laying waste the country, carrying off or spiking up a great number of cannons, destroying vast quantities of military stores, belonging to the provincials, &c. &c. But on the other side, Fort St. John surrendered to the provincial forces, on the third of November 1775, and the garrison became prisoners.

On the eighteenth of November 1775, the regulars and provincials had a hot engagement, near Savannah in Georgia, in which the latter were defeated; and on the thirty-first of December, in the same year, the provincial general Montgomery, who had for some time laid siege to the city of Quebec, attempted to take it by storm. In this attempt, however, he was defeated and slain, with several of his officers, and about sixty private men, and 300 were taken prisoners. On January the fourth 1776, some ships of war destroyed the town of Norfolk in Virginia. While this dreadful havoc was going forward in America, several attempts were made in the British parliament by the duke of Richmond, Mr. Burke, Mr. Hartley, Mr. Wilkes, and others, to adopt some measures for bringing about a reconciliation; but no schemes for that purpose obtained the countenance of the government; and it was still hoped by the court and ministry, that the Americans might be subjugated by force. With this view, large bodies of Hessian troops were taken into the pay of Great-Britain, and the war continued to be carried on against the Americans with great ardour.

General Gage having been recalled, general Howe, who succeeded in the command, thought proper to evacuate the town of Boston, which he effected on the seventeenth of March 1776, and made good his landing, and capture of New-York. In June 1776, a battle was fought in Canada, between the regulars, under general Carleton, and the provincials, at a place called Three Rivers, when the latter were defeated, many of them being killed and wounded, and about 200 taken prisoners. In June 1776, an attempt was made on Charles-Town, South-Carolina, by Sir Peter Parker, at the head of a fleet of ships of war, and general Clinton, with a body of land forces; but it failed of success; and on the fourth of July following, the Congress declared the colonies "Free and Independent States."

After the king's troops were in possession of New-York, many skirmishes happened between them and the provincials, but nothing decisive, till October 1776, when the latter were defeated, in an action, which, from the place where it was fought, was termed the battle of the White Plains.

In the dispatches from general Howe, dated Nov. 30,

1776, besides an account of a variety of skirmishes, we are informed of the taking of Fort-Washington, and Fort-Lee, by the British forces, together with a great variety of military stores, and many prisoners. In December 1776, Rhode-Island was taken by general Clinton; about the same time lord Cornwallis took possession of East-Jersey, and general Lee was taken prisoner by a patrol, consisting of thirty British dragoons, commanded by lieutenant-colonel (since lord) Harcourt. Had general Howe pushed on at this time to Philadelphia after Washington, it hath been maintained there would have been an end of the contest, as this appeared to be the crisis of American danger; but Providence, directed it otherwise, and the general's orders from home are said to have prevented him. This gave way for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradesman, and labourer, to join general Washington, who, in the night of the twenty-fifth of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton; he took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he repassed the river, having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near 1000 stand of arms.

Several skirmishes happened in the beginning of the year 1777, in the Jerseys, with various success. On the twenty-third and twenty-fourth of March, a great quantity of provisions, stores, &c. with barracks, store-houses, &c. belonging to the provincials, were destroyed by the king's troops at Peck's-Hill, upon the North River. The cruizers belonging to lord Howe, and commodore Hotham's fleet, continued to take many prizes. In Connecticut, on the twenty-seventh of April 1777, the king's troops destroyed a great quantity of stores at Danbury.

General Burgoyne, with the northern army, proceeded to Ticonderago, and Fort Independence, which he took possession of July 6, 1777, and found in them great quantities of stores and provisions, besides what he destroyed of both at Skeneborough; soon after, he took possession of Fort-Edward, which the provincials abandoned, and then proceeded to Saratoga, where they were strongly posted.

On the eleventh of September 1777, the troops, under the command of general Howe, had an engagement with the provincials on the heights of Brandywine, in which many were killed and wounded on both sides; 400 provincials were taken prisoners; but though the latter were defeated, and the action at first seemed of an indecisive nature, yet it occasioned Philadelphia to fall into the hands of the British troops. While general Howe was thus employed, an unsuccessful attack was made by the provincials on Staten-Island, for they were repulsed; and much about the same time general Clinton stormed and took Fort-Clinton and Fort-Montgomery.

On the sixteenth of October 1777, the provincials,

under the command of general Gates, having surrounded general Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, the latter thought proper to enter into articles of capitulation, by which himself and his troops, after laying down their arms, were to have a free passage to Great-Britain; but the congress, under various specious pretences, did not ratify the stipulation, but detained the men at Boston; and general Burgoyne came to England on his parole of honour.

In the latter end of the year 1777, several surts were taken by the troops and shipping, and many skirmishes happened on the banks of the Delaware, in order to keep up the communication with the army at Philadelphia. The provincials likewise evacuated their encampments at Red Bank. The French court seems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Great-Britain; the Americans, during some part of the war, received considerable supplies of arms and ammunition from France. Some French officers entered into the American service; and on the sixth of February 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies. The conduct of France towards Great-Britain occasioned hostilities to be commenced between the two nations, in which Spain afterwards took an active part against the English.

On the seventeenth of June 1778, the *Licorne* and *La Belle Poule*, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel; and on the twenty-seventh of July, a battle was fought off Brest between the English and French fleets; the former, consisting of thirty capital ships, and the latter of thirty-two; of the English, 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; the loss of the French is supposed to have been very great.

By a letter from general Howe, dated Philadelphia, May 11, 1778; that commander signified his intention to return to England, and to delegate the command of the British troops to general Clinton; he likewise informed the ministry of the ravages made by the British troops in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, and of their having seized or destroyed great quantities of military stores, provisions, vessels, &c.

On the eighteenth of June, general Clinton (Sir William Howe having previously departed for England) pursuant to the instructions received from government, evacuated Philadelphia. He was attacked on his march by the provincials, whose principal object appeared to be the gaining possession of the British baggage; but in this they were disappointed, and every where repulsed, by means of the judicious manner in which general Clinton had disposed his troops. This failure occasioned a dispute between the provincial generals Washington and Lee, the termination of which we are unacquainted with.

The earl of Carlisle, Mr. Eden, and governor Johnstone, having been sent as commissioners from Great-Britain, to treat of a pacification with America, did not meet with that success which every true lover

of both countries earlier period were now regarded as the United-States, and speedily terminated in America, and this fleet, attempted in the Island; but had succeeded, it would have been meeting with and finding the French approaching the Island, and ever, competing being separated great difficulties.

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of both countries wish for. The terms, which at an earlier period would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain; nor would the Congress enter into any treaty, unless the independency of the United-States of America was previously acknowledged, and the British forces withdrawn. Perhaps the speedy termination of this destructive war was in some measure impeded by the arrival of a French fleet in America, under the command of the Count d'Estaing. This fleet, in concert with an army of provincials, attempted in September 1779 the reduction of Rhode-Island; but the British troops behaved so well on the land side, that the provincials were repulsed, and compelled to retreat; at the same time the French fleet meeting with a warmer reception than they expected, and finding that lord Howe, with his fleet, was approaching them, quitted their design upon Rhode-Island, and attempted to escape. Lord Howe, however, compelled them to engage; but the two fleets being separated by a storm, the French squadron, with great difficulty, got into Boston in a very shattered condition.

At the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war and merchant ships were taken in the West-Indies, by a fleet commanded by Sir Hyde Parker. And Spain being brought, by the intrigues of the French court, to engage in the war against England; Sir G. B. Rodney, on the 8th of January 1780, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging to the royal company of Caraccas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy: he soon after engaged a Spanish fleet consisting of eleven ships of the line, and two frigates under Don Juan de Langara; of which four of the largest were taken, two driven on shore, and one of seventy guns blown up. But, to counterbalance this loss, the combined fleets of France and Spain, on the 8th of August, took five English East-Indiamen, and fifty merchant ships bound for the West-Indies, and carried them into Cadiz. But to return to America:

Sir Henry Clinton, on the 4th of May 1780, made himself master of Charles-Town, South Carolina; and on the 6th of August, earl Cornwallis obtained a very signal victory over general Gates in that province: but on the 10th of July the French landed 6000 men, commanded by the Count de Rochambeau, at Rhode-Island. Soon after this, major-general Arnold deserted the service of the Congress, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal service at New-York. This officer had concerted a scheme, with general Clinton, for delivering up to him his troops, and the post he commanded; which if it had taken place, the destruction of the whole American disciplined force, most of their best officers, with a loss of artillery, magazines and stores, must have been the immediate consequence. But the whole of this dangerous plot was detected by the capture of Major André, in the American lines, on his return to New-York, for which

he suffered death, though the Americans would have exchanged him for general Arnold. The fate of this young officer was much regretted by all persons on account of his many able qualities, which rendered him universally beloved and esteemed: he was only twenty-seven years old when he died; and though he had served but eight years, his merit promised to raise him soon to the highest honours. Besides his military talents, he was remarkable for a well-cultivated genius, which began to display itself in several fugitive pieces of his composition.

This year (1780) teemed with disturbances at home of a very singular nature, which originated from an aversion to some indulgences lately granted by parliament to the Papists, by a relaxation of the penal laws. Hereupon an association was formed, at the head of which was lord George Gordon; and a petition was prepared, said to be subscribed by more than 100,000 persons, to be presented to the house, complaining of the repeal of those laws. Lord George undertook to carry the petition; and accordingly gave the members of the Association public notice to meet him on Friday, June 2, in St. George's Fields, where near 40,000 people met his lordship, whom they accompanied, in martial parade, with blue cockades in their hats, to the house. The petition being postponed by the House of Commons till another day, irritated the profligate and abandoned part of the multitude to such a degree, that, dividing themselves into parties, in the course of the day several members of parliament were grossly insulted and ill-treated by the rabble; and in the evening, the Romish chapel in Lincoln's-Inn-Fields, and another in Warwick-Street, Golden-Square, were entirely demolished. On Sunday they destroyed a Popish chapel in Ropemaker's-Alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished a school and three dwelling-houses in the same place, belonging to the Romish Priests, with a valuable library of books, and a Mass-House in Virginia-Street, Ratcliffe-Highway; they also destroyed all the household furniture of Sir George Savile. On Tuesday evening they made a most daring and violent attempt to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to release the five rioters who had been confined there; and the keeper refusing to deliver up the keys, they set fire to his house, after burning his furniture in the street; soon after this, the prison was in flames: and great part of it consumed, by which means upwards of 300 prisoners escaped, many of whom joined the mob. The same night another party set fire to the house of lord Mansfield in Bloomsbury-Square, which was entirely consumed, together with a collection of pictures of great value, and many of the scarcest manuscripts in the possession of any private person in the world; besides all his lordship's notes on great law cases and the constitution of England, which was an irreparable loss to the public: the house of Sir John Fielding, that of Justice Cox, and several other private houses, were also destroyed about this time, be-

sides two other prisons. On Wednesday they destroyed by fire the King's-Bench and Fleet prisons. Two houses, one at the bottom of Holborn, and the other near the Bars, belonging to Mr. Langdale, an eminent distiller, were set fire to and consumed, as were the dwellings of many other persons professing the Roman Catholic faith; and, in short, every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations. The rioters even made two attacks upon the Bank, and one upon the Pay-Office, but were repulsed by the soldiery, who were now through extreme necessity introduced into the city, and by whom many persons were on this occasion killed and wounded: three men were also shot dead upon Black-Friars-Bridge; the toll-houses of which were destroyed.

Upwards of 130 of these people were tried for these outrages in London and Southwark, many found guilty, but only twenty-seven of the principal actors were executed. Lord George Gordon, having been taken into custody, and committed to the Tower, as the instigator of these disturbances, was on the 5th of February 1781 tried in the Court of King's-Bench at Westminster for high-treason, and acquitted. If a timely exertion of authority and force had been made in the city during these extraordinary scenes, no doubt can be made that great part of the mischiefs which were afterwards perpetrated by a lawless banditti might have been prevented; but it is to be lamented, that for several days there was a most shameful inactivity in the Lord-Mayor of London, and in most of the other Magistrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the militia appeared to be panic-struck, and to be only attentive to the preservation of their houses, and of the royal palace. On the 20th of December following these internal commotions, a declaration of hostilities was published against Holland: this, in the present circumstances, was deemed a very rash, precipitate, and impolitic step. On the 3d of February 1781, admiral Rodney and general Vaughan seized on the island of St. Eustatia, belonging to the Dutch, and took possession of all the private property, goods, merchandise, and specie of the inhabitants, as well as the public and military stores, shipping, &c. The islands of St. Martin and Saba also surrendered; but the seizure of the private property at St. Eustatia was thought a very rigorous and shameful measure; altogether unprecedented among civilized nations, and disgraceful to the British name. On the 5th of August the same year a very bloody engagement was fought off the Dogger-Bank between the English and Dutch fleets, the former consisting of eight, and the latter of seven ships. Both squadrons claimed the victory. The English had 104 men killed, and 339 wounded; and the loss of the Dutch is supposed to have been much greater: a Dutch seventy-four gun ship sunk after the action. On the 27th of November the same year, Mr. Bouillé, the French Admiral, retook Eustatia with a small force.

While the war was carrying on at home with various success, the French made themselves masters of the island of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida. On Monday 23 1781, earl Cornwallis obtained a victory (as it was called) over general Green's army at Guilford in North Carolina; but it was a hard fought battle, and the loss on both sides considerable. Some ravages were also committed in Virginia by the generals Phillips and Arnold, who destroyed much shipping, and about 8,000 hogheads of tobacco. None of these events at that time promised any speedy termination of the war; but next year the decisive blow was struck, which firmly established American Independence.

The army of lord Cornwallis now amounted to above 7000, all excellent troops; but such was their plundering and desolations on their route, and the order of the Americans, that his situation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton was prevented from sending those succours to him which he otherwise would have done by his fears for New-York, against which he apprehended Washington meditated a formidable attack. This American general, by causing some letters to be intercepted, confirmed Sir Henry Clinton in his opinion, who, by being continually amused and deceived, was prevented from giving any assistance to lord Cornwallis, and also from forming any suspicion of the real designs of the enemy. At length, the English general receiving information that the Count de Grasse was expected every moment in the Chesapeake, with a large fleet to co-operate with Washington, now seriously attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without success. Presently the most effectual measures were adopted by general Washington for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army; and on the 30th of September it was closely invested in York-Town, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The intrenchments were opened in two attacks above and below York-River, in the night between the 6th and 7th of October, with a considerable train of artillery. The works which had been raised by the English sunk under the weight of the enemies' batteries; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and greatly enfeebled by constant watching and fatigue; when all hope of relief failing, lord Cornwallis, on the 19th of October, surrendered himself and his whole army, by capitulation, to general Washington, prisoners of war. There were found in the ports of York and Gloucester 6000 regular troops, twenty-two pair of colours, 1500 seamen, 150 pieces of cannon of different calibres, of which seventy-five were brass, and eight mortars; about forty ships, one of them of fifty guns, which was burnt. Twenty transports were sunk, in which number was the Guadalupe frigate of twenty-four guns. The American return made the number of prisoners 7247, land and marine.

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The capture of this army was too heavy a blow to
 be soon or easily recovered; it threw a gloom over the
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 selves with the subjugation of the colonies by arms. The
 surrender of this second British army may be considered
 as the closing scene of the continental war in America:
 The immense expence of carrying it on so distant
 from the seat of preparations and power; the great
 accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the
 nation; the plentiful effusion of human blood it had
 occasioned; the diminution of trade, and the vast in-
 crease of taxes, were evils of such a magnitude, arising
 from this ever-to-be-lamented contest, as could scarcely
 be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid.
 Our repeated disgraces and losses obliged the ministers
 to walk in a more moderate strain; and the parliament,
 on the 1st of March 1782, requested the king, in an
 address, to put a stop to any further prosecution of so
 offensive a war against the American colonies. In con-
 sequence of this application to the throne, with other
 concurrent causes, a complete revolution in the cabinet
 was effected March 27, 1782, under the auspices of
 the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first
 lord of the treasury; lord Shelburne and the Honour-
 able Charles Fox, secretaries of state; lord Camden,
 president of the council; lord Cavendish, chancellor
 of the Exchequer; admiral Keppel, first lord of the
 admiralty; and the duke of Richmond, master-general
 of the ordnance, &c.

Measures were immediately taken by the new minist-
 ry for effectuating a general peace; and Mr. Grenville
 was accordingly invested with full powers to treat at
 Paris with all the powers at war, and directed to pro-
 pose the independency of the Thirteen United Pro-
 vinces in America in the first instance. The new
 ministers also applied themselves to make some re-
 trenchment in the public expences, and to reform some
 of the various abuses they had complained of. A series
 of losses however still continued to agitate the minds of
 the people, so that peace became every day more de-
 sirable to the nation. January 18, 1782, the French
 took Nevis; on the 5th of February, the island of
 Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards: and on the 13th
 of the same month, the island of St. Christopher's was
 given up to the French. On the 12th of April a most
 obstinate engagement happened between the English
 fleet under admiral Rodney, and that of the French
 under the Count de Grasse, in their way to join the
 Spanish fleet at St. Domingo. The battle lasted with
 unremitting fury from seven o'clock in the morning
 till half past six in the evening, when victory declared
 in favour of the British flag. The Ville de Paris, of
 110 guns (a present from the city of Paris to the
 French king) commanded by Count de Grasse, with
 four others of the line, were captured, and another of
 the line sunk in the action. The Caesar, one of those
 taken, was blown up, and the whole crew, among

whom were fifty English seamen, perished. A few
 days after, two more of the same fleet, of sixty-four
 guns each, were taken by Sir Samuel Hood's Squadron.
 By this victory, the enemy's design against Jamaica was
 frustrated, and admiral Rodney's reputation and in-
 terest were greatly promoted: he received the public
 thanks of the British senate, and was further honoured
 by being created a peer of the realm. This glorious
 victory cost the English many brave officers and seamen,
 230 having been killed, and 759 wounded. Unhappily,
 the Ville de Paris, and most of the other ships taken
 by admiral Rodney, besides two of our own ships of
 the line, were lost at sea before they could reach
 England.

After this, the military operations were few and of
 little consequence. Negapatnam, a settlement in the
 East-Indies, and Trincomale, in the island of Ceylon,
 were taken from the Dutch by the British forces; but
 the French soon after receiving considerable succours
 from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale,
 forced the British fleet in several actions, but none
 decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withstand with
 various success all the efforts of Sir Eyre Coote and
 his troops. On the 8th of May, the Bahama islands
 surrendered to the Spaniards. But the credit of the
 British arms was well sustained at Gibraltar, under
 general Elliot, the governor, and captain Curtis, who
 defeated the combined efforts of France and Spain. On
 the 13th of September at ten in the morning, the ten
 battering ships, or gun-boats, commanded by admiral
 Moseno, were stationed as near the fortrefs as possible,
 covered by the combined fleet. All things being ready,
 a general attack began, and the heavy pieces from the
 gun-boats were discharged with great rapidity. But
 the design of this grand project (on which their hopes
 of success principally depended) was soon rendered
 abortive. The brave general Elliot had caused furnaces
 to be made, in which having heated the balls till they
 were red hot, they were in that state fired against the
 enemy. This produced the total destruction of the
 floating batteries, and most of the assailants in them;
 for the balls entering their sides, set them on fire, and
 the whole blew up one after another, except three, which
 were burnt to the water's edge. Thus was this grand
 scheme totally frustrated by the distinguished courage
 and military prowess of the British commanders. The
 battering ships burnt before Gibraltar, carried 212 brass
 cannon, &c. the proportion of men on board them was
 thirty-six for each of the guns in use, exclusive of
 officers, and marines for working the ships. The gar-
 rison was in the month of October relieved by lord
 Howe, who offered battle to the combined force of
 France and Spain, though twelve sail of the line
 inferior.

On the death of the marquis of Rockingham, which
 happened on the first of July 1782, lord Shelburne was,
 without the knowledge of his colleagues, appointed
 first lord of the treasury. This gave great offence to
 Mr.

Mr. Fox, lord Cavendish, and others, who resigned their places. However, the duke of Richmond, general Conway, and others, continued to act with lord Shelburne, till under his auspices the preliminaries for a general peace were settled. Then the public beheld Mr. Fox, and even lord John Cavendish, coalescing with the old ministers, lord North particularly; embracing the very men whom they had driven from their seats, and threatened with impeachments; and continuing to join with them in reprobating the peace, as making too great concessions to the enemy, that they might storm the cabinet, drive lord Shelburne and his friends from it, and seat themselves, and the men they had despised, in their places. This accordingly happened; for on April 2, 1783, the duke of Portland was made lord treasurer, and Mr. Fox and lord North were the two secretaries of state. Every thing went on just as the coalition administration pleased, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the East-India-Company, and their commercial affairs and territories. This bill being rejected in the House of Lords on December 17, by a majority of nineteen, occasioned a great ferment in the cabinet and in both houses of parliament. The result was, the two secretaries were dismissed; and Mr. Pitt succeeded the duke of Portland as first lord of the treasury, bringing his friends into the respective departments, which formed the twentieth administration in the present reign. We shall not trouble our readers with a tedious and uninteresting detail of the many political squabbles and trivial altercations which ensued on the appointment of the new ministry just now mentioned, but proceed to lay before them an account of the preliminary articles of peace agreed on between the contending powers on the 20th of January 1783.

The preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic Majesty and the most Christian King, were twenty-three in number, and contained in substance as follows:

Great-Britain ceded to France, of her possessions before the war, the island of Tobago in the West-Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few districts in the East-Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry and Karikal; it agreed also to restore the islands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the island of Goree, with Pondicherry, Karikal, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the Comptoire of Surat, in the East-Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent disputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fishery, it was agreed, that the French line for fishing should begin from Cape St. John on the eastern side, and, going round by the north, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the western side; and Great-Britain renounced every claim, by former treaties, with respect to the demolition of Dunkirk.—France, on the other hand, was to restore to Great-Britain the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and

Montserrat; and guaranteed Fort James, and the river of Gambia; agreeing that the rum trade should remain in the same condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each state in the East-Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification; but if they were averse to peace, no assistance was to be given them from either of the contracting parties.

The articles of peace with his Catholic Majesty specified, that Great-Britain gave up East-Florida to Spain, and also ceded West-Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all causes of complaint and misunderstanding for the future, it was agreed that British subjects should have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the district lying between the rivers Wallis or Belize, and Rio Hondo, taking the course of the said rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed also to restore the islands of Providence, and the Bahamas, to Great-Britain, in the same condition in which they were when conquered by the arms of Spain.

The articles of the treaty of peace with the United States of America specified, that the king of Great-Britain acknowledges, New Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode-Island, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be free, sovereign, and independent states, and for himself, his heirs and successors, relinquished all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof.

To prevent all disputes in future on the subject of boundaries between these states and the remaining provinces to Great-Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which were properly noticed, as well as delineated on the map of the United States of America: and some favourable clauses were obtained for the loyalists. The navigation of the Mississippi, and also the Newfoundland fisheries, to remain open and free to both parties.

Great difficulties arose in the treaty with the Dutch, but at length it was stipulated that Great-Britain should restore Trincomale in the island of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it, and that the Dutch should yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies in the East-Indies, with liberty to treat for its restitution on the point of an equivalent for the same.

By this treaty a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great-Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousand valuable lives, and expended or squandered nearly 150 millions of money. The address of thanks for the peace was carried in the House of Lords, by a majority of seventy-two to fifty-nine; but lost in the House of Commons by a majority of 224 to 208. The terms of the peace were to many a subject of great regret, and reprobated as highly injurious to the dignity and interests of the nation; but had the war continued, it would have

been necessary millions and millions would have millions at according to therefore, the avoidable ruin the terms of able, and ce or faction, the intrigue.

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been necessary to have borrowed annually seventeen millions and a half, by which a million per annum would have been added to the taxes, and twenty-five millions at least to the capital of the public debt, according to the usual modes of funding. Considering, therefore, the true state of the nation, and the unavoidable ruinous consequences of protracting the war, the terms of the peace were advantageous and honourable, and could only be opposed by pride, ignorance, or faction, the effect of party rage, and ambitious intrigue.

On July 14, 1786, a convention between his Britannic majesty and the king of Spain was signed at London. It consists of sixteen articles, and grants full liberty to the English to cut and carry away logwood, mahogany, &c. from the Mosquito-Shore, belonging to Spain. And,

On Sept. 26, 1786, a treaty of navigation and commerce was agreed to, and signed at Versailles, between his Britannic majesty and the most Christian king. This treaty consisted of forty-seven articles, and the same was acceded to by the British parliament in 1787. And,

On the 13th of August 1788, a definitive treaty of defensive alliance was signed at Berlin between the king of Prussia and the king of Great-Britain. This treaty consists of six articles.

A disagreeable affair occurred in the year 1791, between Great-Britain and Spain, which had like to have been attended with very serious consequences; the grounds of the dispute were these: a small association of British merchants, resident in the East-Indies, had, early in the year 1786, formed the project of opening a trade to the north-western coast of America, for the purpose of supplying the Chinese market with furs. The principal point towards which these expeditions were directed was Port Nootka, or King George's Sound; and the adventurers, being in some degree satisfied with their traffic, took measures, in the year 1788, to secure to themselves a permanent settlement; at the same time that the shipping employed in this expedition was generally of two, and never exceeded the amount of four small vessels.

The Spaniards conceived some jealousy of the intrusion of the English into a part of the world which they had long been desirous of considering as their exclusive property; and, accordingly, a Spanish frigate of 26 guns was dispatched from the province of Mexico, in order to put an end to this commerce. The Spanish frigate arrived in May 1789, and captured two vessels in the following July, at the same time taking possession of the little settlement which had been formed upon the coast. This transaction was first notified to the English government by the Spanish ambassador resident at the court of London, who, at the same time, demanded that measures should be taken by the English government to prevent British subjects from frequenting these coasts, which were alleged to have been previously occupied by the subjects of Spain.

After much altercation respecting this business, and the preparation of an expensive armament on the part of Great-Britain, the court of Spain thought proper at length to consent to the satisfaction and indemnification demanded by Mr. Fitzherbert, the English ambassador to the Spanish court. Accordingly dispatches were sent, Nov. 4, 1790, from the said ambassador to the British court, containing an account, that a convention for terminating the differences which had arisen with that court, had been agreed upon by his excellency on the part of his Britannic majesty, and by the count de Florida-Blanca on the part of the Catholic king.

By this convention it was agreed:

I. That the buildings and tracts of land situated on the north-west coast of North America, or on islands adjacent, of which the British subjects were dispossessed in April 1789, shall be restored.

II. Reparation is to be made for all acts of hostility committed since April 1789, by the subjects of either nation; and in case any of them shall, since that period, have been dispossessed of their lands or property there, they shall be re-established in the possession, or a just compensation made.

III. The subjects of each nation shall not be molested, either in navigating, or carrying on their fisheries, in the Pacific Ocean, or in the South Seas, or in landing on the coasts of those seas, in places not already occupied, for the purpose of carrying on their commerce with the natives, or making settlements there.

IV. To prevent the navigation and fishery of the British in the Pacific Ocean, or in the South Seas, from being made a pretext for illicit-trade with the Spanish settlements, British subjects are not to navigate or carry on their fishery in these seas, within ten leagues from any part of the coasts already occupied by Spain.

V. Wherever the subjects of either nation shall have made settlements since April 1789, or shall hereafter make any, the subjects of the other shall have free access to carry on their trade without molestation.

VI. With respect to the east and west coasts of South America, and the islands adjacent, no settlement shall be formed by either nation in such parts as are situated to the south of those parts already occupied by Spain; but each party shall retain the liberty of landing, for the purposes of their fishing, and of erecting temporary buildings for those purposes.

VII. In all cases of complaint, or infraction of this convention, the officers of either nation, without previously committing any violence, shall make report of the circumstances to their respective courts.

VIII. This convention shall be ratified within six weeks from the date.

Dated Oct. 8.

(L. S.) ALLEYNE FITZ-HERBERT.

(L. S.) EL CONDE DE FLORIDA BLANCA.

In consequence of the decapitation of Louis XVI. the late king of France, on the 21st of January 1793, by order of the French convention; their hostile invasion of the neighbouring countries, together with a declaration of war denounced by the French republic against England and Holland in the February following; a coalition of several powers of Europe took place, in order to counteract the designs of France, and restore monarchy and the public tranquillity. The English sent over to Holland a considerable body of troops to the assistance of the Dutch, who, in concert with the Austrians, drove the French from their territories; and afterwards took Conde, Valenciennes, and other places, on the frontiers of France. The English also sent a powerful fleet, under lord Hood, against Toulon, which place the inhabitants delivered up to him, in trust for Louis XVII. when monarchy should be re-established in France on the same footing as in 1789, that is, by a limited government.

With respect to the events and termination of this war of the combined powers of Prussia, Austria, Holland, Russia, England, Spain, Portugal, &c. against the French republic; and for further satisfaction on this head, together with an ample account of the revolution in France, and the conduct of the French nation thereupon, we must refer our readers to the concluding part of their history.

With respect to our own country, whose constitution we venerate; whose welfare, from every motive of affection and interest, must lie nearest our hearts; we are perfectly satisfied, we cannot more religiously fulfil our duty towards it, than by wishing most fervently the return of peace. Our commerce requires it, our finances require it, the preservation of our constitution, which can only be endangered by public distress, requires it.

The soundest politicians that have directed the affairs of the British empire, Burleigh, Clarendon, Walpole, and Chatham, have all declared against continental wars, and continental connections and alliances: these have drained Britain of its wealth, and incessantly involved it in calamity and in blood; while the ungrateful house of Austria, our good friends of Hesse, or the other petty despots of Germany, have been the only gainers.

We can no longer consider France as formidable. Should she be able to resist the present attack of Austria and Prussia, it must be the utmost limit of her operations for a century to come; and we cannot, on the princi-

ples of sound policy, wish her totally annihilated in the scale of European politics. For what, then, is the blood and treasure of Britain lavished? The question we trust, will be calmly and rationally considered by the people, as well as the ministers; and we are not without hopes that, in a short time, we shall have to congratulate our fellow-citizens on the return, and permanent duration in future, of that wise and pacific system which has hitherto constituted the wealth, the happiness, the political consequence, and the real dignity of Great-Britain and her dependencies.

A GENEALOGICAL LIST of the ROYAL FAMILY of GREAT-BRITAIN.

GEORGE III. king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, elector of Hanover, and son of Frederick Lewis, was born June 4, 1738; succeeded his grandfather George II. on Oct. 25, 1760; married, Sept. 8, 1761, to the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Stralitz, born May 16, 1744, by whom he has issue,

1. George, prince of Wales, born Aug. 12, 1762.
2. Frederick, duke of York, bishop of Osnaburgh, born Aug. 16, 1763; married, Sept. 29, 1791, Frederique Charlotte Ulrique Catherina, eldest daughter of the king of Prussia.
3. William-Henry, duke of Clarence, born Aug. 21, 1765.
4. Charlotta-Augusta-Matilda, Princess Royal, born Sept. 29, 1766.
5. Edward, born Nov. 2, 1767.
6. Augusta-Sophia, born Nov. 8, 1768.
7. Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.
8. Ernest-Augustus, born June 5, 1771.
9. Augustus-Frederic, born Jan. 27, 1773.
10. Adolphus-Frederic, born Feb. 27, 1774.
11. Mary, born April 25, 1776.
12. Sophia, born Nov. 3, 1777.
13. Amelia, born Aug. 7, 1783.

THE KING'S BROTHER and SISTER.

1. Augusta, duchess of Brunswick, born Aug. 12, 1737.
2. William-Henry, duke of Gloucester, born Nov. 25, 1743; married, Sept. 6, 1776, Maria, countess-dowager of Waldegrave, by whom he has one son and two daughters.

Notwithstanding we have, in the preceding Geographical and Historical Descriptions of this Country, been as full and minute as our limits will permit, yet (as to works composed expressly on the subject, and giving ample, accurate, entertaining, and impartial Accounts of the various interesting Transactions and Events relating to Great-Britain and Ireland) we wish also to recommend to the perusal of our numerous readers the following excellent performances:

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W A L E S.

Boundaries and Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Inhabitants, Cities, Mountains, Trade, History, &c.

WE have thought proper to assign a separate article to this principality, which, though politically annexed to England, is distinct from it in language and manners. This country was formerly of much greater extent than it is at present; but the Saxons having conquered all the plain country, obliged the ancient Britons to retreat westward; and, ever since that period, Monmouthshire and Herefordshire have been reckoned part of England. Wales is bounded on all sides by the sea and the Severn, except on the east, where it joins to the counties of Chester, Salop, Hereford, and Monmouth. Its length, from the southernmost part of Glamorgan-shire, to the extremity of Flintshire, is computed at 114 miles; and its greatest breadth, from the river Wye, east, to St. David's, in Pembrokeshire, west, is about 96 miles. It is situated between 51 and 54 deg. north lat. and between 2,41 and 4,56 deg. west long. and contains 7011 square miles. The divisions have already been given in the account of England: which see in p. 596.

The seasons are pretty much the same in Wales as in the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, producing large crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Vast herds of black cattle, for which this country is famous, sheep, deer, and goats, are fed on the mountains. Their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Their horses are remarkably small, but can endure vast fatigue. Here are mines of silver, copper, lead, and some iron; quarries of free-stone, and abundance of coal-pits. The crown has a certain, though small property, in the product of the silver and lead mines.

There are upwards of thirty rivers in Wales; the principal are the Clywd, Wheeler, Dee, Severn, Elwy, and Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish. This country likewise abounds in lakes; the chief are Lhyn, Tigid, or Pimble Meer; and Lhyn Sauedhan, or Brecknock Meer; the latter of which is so full of fish, that the inhabitants say, two-thirds of it is water, and the rest fish. At Holywell, a small town in Flintshire, is a mineral water, esteemed salutary in many disorders; it is an excellent cold-bath, and has been very beneficial to many who have used it.

The inhabitants of Wales are computed at about 900,000; and the land-tax, some years ago, brought in 43,752l. a year. The revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from this principality is about 8000l. per annum. 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 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 co-eval with the incarnation: however, great part of their ecclesiastical history is certainly more ancient and better attested than that of the Anglo-Saxons. In most places of North Wales, they continue the ancient method of entertaining the company who come to their inns with the Welsh harp; and the novelty of this reception, joined to the agreeable wildness of the music, renders it generally very acceptable to strangers.

The Welsh clergy having refused to conform to the rites of the church of Rome, were all massacred by order of Augustine, who had been sent by the pope into England, in the reign of Ethelbert, king of Kent, to convert the nation to Christianity; and, after their pastors were gone, the inhabitants were easily overcome. At present, the established religion is conformable with that of the church of England, though there are many Romish superstitions still remaining, and numbers of families who yet profess that mode of worship. Most of the clergy are natives of the country, and, though they understand English perfectly well, yet the public

worship.

worship is frequently performed in Welsh, except in those towns where the English is the prevailing language. Most places in Wales are now blessed with free-schools, and the dark ignorance with which it was formerly over-run, is happily removed by the society for propagating Christian knowledge. Among the many methods put in practice for this purpose, are the circulating schools, which consist of persons nominated school-masters, who are appointed to travel from place to place, instructing the poor, both old and young, in reading, prayer, and in the tenets of the Protestant religion. This laudable society expends considerable sums in bibles, common prayers, and other religious books, which are distributed gratis to the colliers, &c. And we earnestly hope and believe that the late excellent institution of Sunday-Schools, by private subscriptions, in various parts of England, will have the happiest effects on the morals of youth, by infusing into them right principles, and rendering them useful members of the community. It is matter of astonishment, that the case of the lower clergy in Wales, many of whom are incapable of procuring themselves and families the necessities of life, has never been taken into consideration by this useful charity, and recommended to the attention of higher powers. The principality also contains great numbers of Protestant Dissenters. At Trevecha, in South Wales, the countess of Huntingdon instituted a seminary for training up students in divinity; here have been also several places of public worship erected, under that lady's patronage, where the reformed doctrines are preached both in Welsh and English, according to the principles of the Methodists.

This country was formerly famous for its poets and bards, among whom was Thalieffin, who flourished about the year 456, and part of whose works being repeated to Henry II. of England, were the means of discovering the burying-place of king Arthur and his wife. Learning suffered greatly in this country by the extirpation of the bards, whose poetical genius was supposed to raise in the inhabitants an enthusiastic warmth for independency, which, according to some authors, induced Edward I. to make a general massacre of them. Numbers of learned men flourished in Wales before the Reformation, particularly Giraldus Cambrensis; and, since that period, it has been rendered conspicuous by several divines and antiquaries. Among the former were Hugh Broughton, Hugh Holland, and Williams; archbishop of York, lord keeper in the time of Charles I. Among the latter were several gentlemen of the name of Lhuyd (Lloyd) particularly the author of the *Archæologia*; and Rowland, author of the *Mona Antiqua*. There is no doubt but learning was at a great height in Wales, when the English scarce knew the use of letters; though this is supposed to have consisted chiefly in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and history, of their own country; but the scene was afterwards changed, and ignorance took full possession of the ancient Britons. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales when it

was persecuted in England; and, since the Reformation this country has produced several excellent antiquaries and divines. Some of the Welsh at present make a considerable figure in the republic of letters, and many of their clergy are excellent scholars. The purity of the Welsh language will evidently appear from the Paternoster, which here follows: "Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoddd, sancteiddur dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y daear, megis y mae yn y nefoddd; dyro i ni heddyw ein barn beunyddiol; madden i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddenwn ni i'n dylediwy; ac nae arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared i rhiag drwg; canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a' gogoniant, yn eos oesoedd. Amen."

There are no cities or public edifices in Wales which are remarkable, either for populousness or magnificence we shall, however, describe some of the principal.

Beaumaris, the chief town of the isle of Anglesea, has two good streets, a handsome church, and a harbour.

Denbigh is a good town, and Wrexham has a very handsome church.

Cardigan has an elegant church, a county gaol, public hall, and a good harbour.

Caermarthen has a fine stone bridge over the Towy, and a very commodious quay.

Pembroke has two handsome bridges over Milford Haven, two churches, and a custom-house. Caermarthen and Pembroke are esteemed the two politest cities in Wales, and are inhabited by numbers of gentlemen and wealthy tradesmen.

Milford-Haven, in Pembrokeshire, is supposed to be one of the finest harbours in Europe; and notwithstanding many efforts have been made, and considerable sum granted by parliament to render it useful, it still remains neglected.

Haverfordwest is a handsome town, having three parishes, a commodious quay, a stone-bridge over the Doulgyde, a free grammar-school, a charity-school, custom-house, and an alms-house.

As the copper-mine, which is now working to such extraordinary advantage in Anglesea, engages much conversation, it may prove agreeable to our readers to receive some account of its nature and produce: the happy source of this national as well as private wealth is situated on an eminence called Paris Mountain, in the island of Mona, the ancient seat of the Druids in North Wales, at about eight miles distant from the Holyhead road, and two miles inward. The ore found here is the richest and most abundant in its produce of any mine of this metal that our country ever produced. It is found so near the surface of the earth, with so little labour and expence, that the proprietors are enabled to undersell all other dealers in this useful article. We have been under the necessity of importing yearly an immense quantity of this metal from Sweden before the discovery was made, which was a considerable loss to this country, the balance of trade being against us,

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even Ireland. Denbigh is famous for gloves and tanned leather.

The tutelar saint of the Welsh is St. David, commonly called St. Taffy; his badge is a leek, worn in commemoration of him on the 1st of March, and for which various reasons have been assigned. The arms of the prince of Wales differ from those of England only by the addition of a label of three points: the motto is, "Ich Dien," I serve. His cap, or badge of ostrich feathers, was occasioned by a trophy of that kind which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poitiers.

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF WALES.

IT would be a vain and useless task to attempt to give the ancient history of Wales. We are, however, certain, that the love of independence was so strongly rooted in the breasts of the Britons, that they defended their country during a long series of years against all the force of the Romans; and even when the greater part of their country was subdued, and the soil drenched with the blood of its inhabitants, many of them retired to the mountains, where they bid defiance to the Roman arms.

The Saxons also attempted the conquest of this country, but penetrated no further than the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, which were afterwards considered as parts of England. The Welsh, however, were far from being subdued; they continued an independent people, and were still governed by their own princes and their own laws.

The first blow to the liberties of the Welsh was given about the year 870, when Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; these divisions were Demetia, or South Wales; Povesia, or Powis-Land: and Venodotia, or North Wales. This division gave rise to many wars, during which the kingdom of Povesia, or Powis-Land, was conquered, and part of it annexed to North Wales, and part to South; divisions which subsist even to this day.

Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the borders of Wales, about the year 1112, hoping that they would soon form a barrier to England. But, though the Welsh were unable to drive the Flemings from their settlements, they resisted, with remarkable intrepidity, several attempts made by the Norman kings of England to deprive them of their liberty. At last, their old and infirm prince Llewelin put himself under the protection of Henry III. to whom he did homage for his kingdom, in order to procure the assistance of that prince against his ferocious son Griffin, who had taken up arms against his father. This incident, which happened in 1237, furnished a pretence for considering Wales as a fief of England, and of making an entire conquest of that country.

On the death of that prince, his son Llewelin suc-

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

C H A P. XII.

I R E L A N D.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Products, Rivers, Lakes, Inhabitants, Learning, &c.

THIS island is situated on the west side of England, between the parallels of 51 and 55 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 6 and 10 deg. west long. or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longest day is sixteen hours and a half, and the twenty-fourth parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longest day is seventeen hours and a half. This kingdom is 290 miles in length, 172 in breadth, and contains an area of 31,966 miles; it also contains 11,067,712 Irish plantation acres, which makes 17,227,864 acres of English statute measure, and is said to bear proportion to England and Wales as eighteen to thirty. It is bounded on the north by the Deucaliedonian Sea; on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the east by the Irish Sea, or St. George's Channel, which divides it from the western shores of Great-Britain. It is sixty miles

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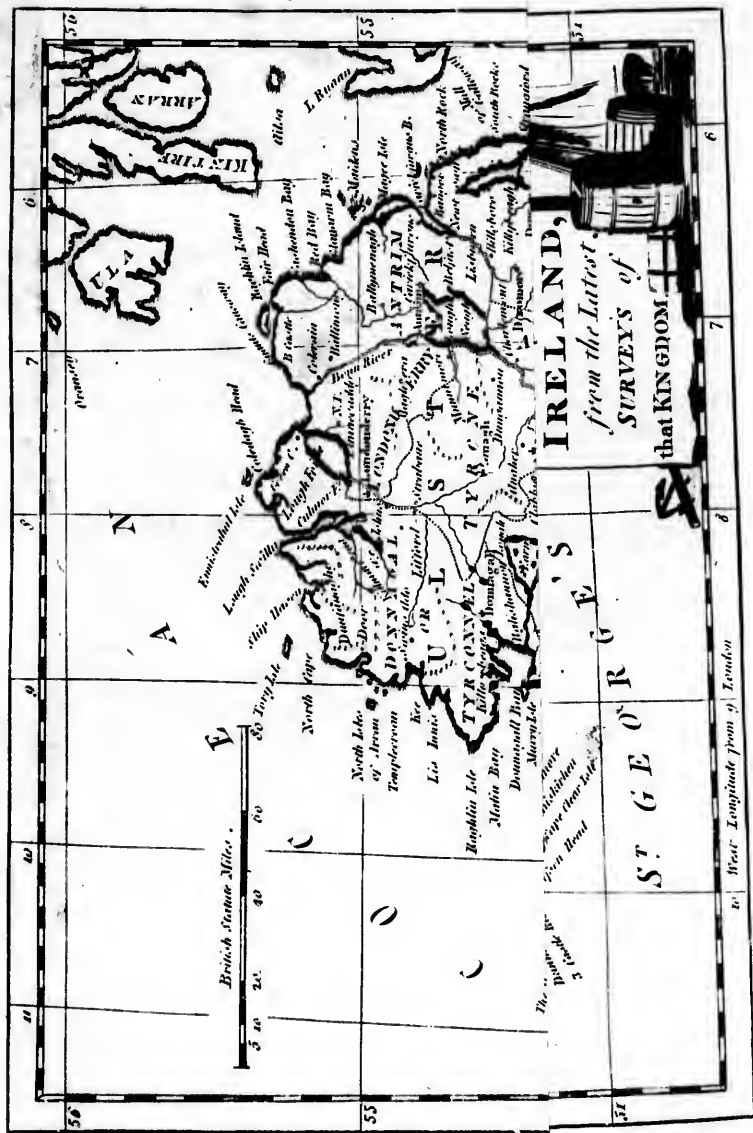
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7. West-Meath County; chief town, Drogheda.

11. Carlow; chief town, Carlow.

II. Ulster contains nine counties. Down Patrick ditto. 4. Carrickfergus. 6. Tyrone; chief town, Coleraine.

III. Munster six counties; 1. Cork; chief town, Cork. 2. Limerick; chief town, Limerick.

IV. Connaught four counties; 1. Sligo; chief town, Sligo. 2. Donegal; chief town, Donegal. 3. Leitrim; chief town, Leitrim. 4. Fermanagh; chief town, Fermanagh.

The air of England in the north where it is more temperate, and more violent winds, in the winter.

The soil is not so fertile as in the south, and is often prejudicial to the health.

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miles distant from Holyhead in Wales, but not more than twenty miles from the Mull of Galloway in Scotland. Its name is probably derived from a Phœnician or Gallic term, signifying the furthest habitation westward.

Even modern authors are not agreed with regard to the divisions of Ireland, some dividing it into five circuits, and others into four provinces; but as the latter method is more generally followed, and at the same time more ancient, we have thought proper to adopt it. The provinces are,

I. Leinster; its principal town, Dublin, the capital of the kingdom. II. Ulster; its chief place, Londonderry, a city. III. Munster; its chief place, Cork, a city. IV. Connaught; its chief town, Galway.

I. The province of Leinster is situated on the east, and contains twelve counties; viz. 1. Dublin; its chief town, Dublin. 2. Louth; chief town, Drogheda. 3. Wicklow; ditto. 4. Wexford; ditto. 5. Longford; ditto. 6. East-Meath; chief town, Trim. 7. West-Meath; chief town, Mullingar. 8. King's-County; chief town, Philipstown. 9. Queen's-County; chief town, Maryborough. 10. Kilkenny; ditto. 11. Kildare; chief towns, Naas and Athy. 12. Carlow; ditto.

II. Ulster province is situated in the north, and contains nine counties; viz. 1. Down; its chief town, Down Patrick. 2. Armagh; ditto. 3. Monaghan; ditto. 4. Cavan; ditto. 5. Antrim; chief town, Carrickfergus. 6. Londonderry; chief town, Derry. 7. Tyrone; chief town, Omagh. 8. Fermanagh; its chief town, Enniskillen. 9. Donegall; its chief town, Lifford.

III. Munster is situated in the south, and contains six counties; viz. 1. Clare; its chief town, Ennis. 2. Cork; ditto. 3. Kerry; chief town, Tralee. 4. Limerick; ditto. 5. Tipperary; chief town, Clonmell. 6. Waterford; ditto.

IV. Connaught is situated in the west, and includes five counties; viz. 1. Leitrim; chief town, Carrick on Shannon. 2. Roscommon; ditto. 3. Mayo; chief towns, Bullinrobe and Castlebar. 4. Sligo; ditto. 5. Galway; ditto.

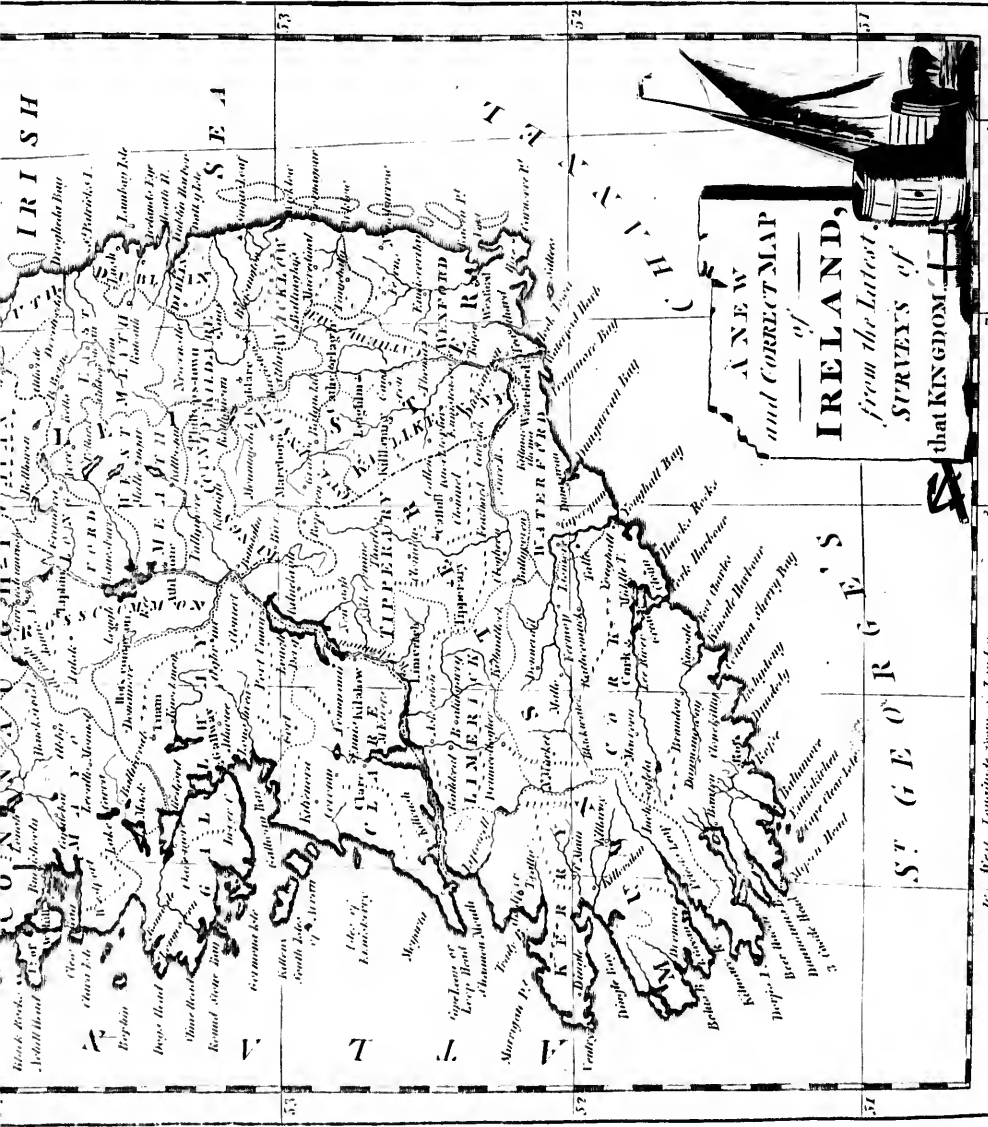
The air of Ireland is nearly the same with that of England in the same latitudes, except in some parts where it is rendered more gross and impure by lakes, bogs, and marshes. The climate, however, is more temperate, it being cooler in the summer, and warmer in the winter than in England. It is more subject to violent winds, clouds, and rain, than to hard frosts in winter; and even in summer rain is very frequent, and often prejudicial to the fruits.

The soil is various; in some places it is so rich as to want no manure, and in others so barren, that no husbandry can render it fertile. In the county of Roscommon is a fine vale called Sheep-Walk, extending twenty-one miles in length, and remarkable for its fertility and fine pasture. The soil in many places is a

blackish earth, in some a blackish clay, and in others a mixture of earth, sand, and clay; but the red earth and chalky ground, so common in England, is not found in Ireland. In many parts of the kingdom, the upper stratum is good mould, but very thin, and nothing under it but stone. These parts, however, produce considerable crops of corn. Where the lands are not naturally fertile, the inhabitants have spared no pains in manuring them with the dung of animals, ashes of sea-weeds, mud, and sometimes lime, in order to enrich the soil. By these, and various other improvements lately made in agriculture, the lands in Ireland produce much larger quantities of corn, flax, artificial grasses, culinary vegetables, &c. than formerly. This happy change is in a great measure owing to a society established at Dublin for the improvement of various arts and manufactures, among which husbandry engages a very considerable share of their attention. The premiums offered by this society have introduced the cultivation of clover, trefoil, saintfoin, lucern, rye-grass, and various other vegetables for the food of cattle. Many unprofitable bogs have also been drained, and rendered excellent land. Pasture-land abounds in Ireland, where vast numbers of black cattle, hogs, and sheep, are reared and fed; and hence the inhabitants are able to supply the prodigious quantities of salt provisions, butter, &c. annually shipped off at Cork, and other parts of the kingdom, to foreign markets, which are the strongest proofs of the natural fertility of the soil. The Irish wool is very valuable, and great quantities of it are exported to England.

Among the uncultivated parts of Ireland are the large bogs, found in various parts of the kingdom. Some of these bogs are dangerous; they are generally covered with fine grass, and the soil so very spongy, that it will bear neither man nor beast. Some of them shake under foot in an alarming manner, but they may be often crossed with safety.

This country is greatly enriched with the numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, spacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which it abounds. The Shannon is a very noble river, larger than any in England, but not navigable above fifty miles, on account of a ridge of rocks south of Killaloe, and stopping all navigation further up; but this might be remedied by a short canal, at the expence of ten or twelve thousand pounds, and communications might also be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. This river runs from north to south upwards of 300 English miles, spreading itself into many large and beautiful lakes of different extent, from five to fifteen miles, abounding with salmon, pike, &c. of a very large size; and some of the lakes are adorned with fertile and beautiful islands. The Lee rises in the county of Cork, below which city it falls into the sea, after an easterly course of above twenty-six miles. The Liffey rises in the county of Wicklow, and falls into the Irish sea below Dublin. The Boyne rises in the



A NEW
and CORRECT MAP
of
IRELAND,
from the Latest
SURVEYS of
that KINGDOM.

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the King's County, and falls into the sea at Drogheda. The Barrow, Nore, and Suir, water the south part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their streams below Ross, fall into the channel at Waterford-Haven. The Bann, famous for a pearl and salmon fishery, rises in the county of Down, and falls into Lough-Neagh, in the county of Armagh.

There are also in Ireland a great number of lakes, or loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught; though the Irish, like the Scots, frequently give the term lough to an inlet of the sea. Though those loughs, in the main, have but few properties that are not common with the like bodies of water in other countries; yet they have given rise to many fabulous accounts concerning the natives, which disgrace their true history. The great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Many of these lakes contain large quantities of fish.

Here are a great number of spacious bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coast, and render this country, beyond any other, the best fitted for foreign commerce. The most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinfales, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kinmare, Dingle, Shannon-mouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegal, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle, besides a great many barred havens, some of which have been much improved by acts of parliament, particularly that of Dublin.

Many of the roads of Ireland are now the finest in Europe. They are carried several miles in straight lines; to effect which, no expence has been spared to cut through mountains, and fill up vallies; in some places they are carried for many miles through the middle of bogs, which before were impassable. Add to this, that as there is no such thing as a heavy waggon in the country, the roads are hard and smooth, in some measure resembling the gravel walks in a garden.

The many rivers that water the plains of Ireland render it very susceptible of improvements, with regard to inland navigation; and the legislature, convinced of the great utility that must attend the communications between different places in the kingdom, by means of canals, have, at different times, granted large sums of money for carrying on these useful works. One of these canals is extended above sixty miles, from the river Shannon to the Liffey near Dublin. By this artificial navigation, a communication is opened from the channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In surveying the grounds for this canal, it was found necessary to carry it through a bog twenty-four miles over, which greatly increased the labour and expence of the undertaking, in strengthening the banks with additional works, to prevent them from falling in, to which they would otherwise have been very subject, from the spongy nature of the soil.

In this kingdom are several lofty chains, as well as

high mountains; and the Irish have these words which express the different degrees of their elevation and size, namely, knock, slieu, and bein or binn: knock signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; slieu denotes a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending, and continued in several ridges; a bein or binn means a pinnacle, or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom; of which Slieu Denard is calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, some of which contain veins of iron, lead, copper, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate, and marble.

About two miles from Kilkenny, in the neighbourhood of the park-house of Donmore, are a number of caves, as curious, perhaps, as any mentioned in natural history, except those of Antiparos in the Archipelago. After a difficult descent of about 100 feet, the entrance into this subterraneous world is gained. The appearance of the first cavern is uncommonly awful, and gives rise to an idea of a grand Gothic structure in ruins. The solemnity of this place is not a little increased by the gaiety of those scenes that present themselves on every side previous to our entering it; the floor is uneven, and stones of various sizes are promiscuously dispersed upon it; the sides are composed of ragged work, in some parts covered with moss, and in others curiously frosted; and from the roof, which is a kind of arch, several huge rocks project beyond each other, that seem to threaten ruin. The circumference of this cave is not more than 200 feet, and in height about fifty. Here is a small but continual dropping of water from the ceiling, and a few petrifications resembling icicles.

This place has its inhabitants; for immediately on entering into it, you are surprised with a confused noise, which is occasioned by a multitude of wild pigeons; hence there is a passage towards the left, where by a small ascent a kind of hole is gained, much like but larger than the mouth of an oven, which introduces to a place, where, by the help of candles, daylight being entirely excluded, a broken and surprising scene, of monstrous stones heaped on each other, conquered with various colours, inequality of rocks overhead, and an infinity of stactical stones, present themselves. Nature, one would imagine, designed the first cave as a preparative for what remains to be seen; but it the eye is familiarized with uncommon and awful objects, and the mind tolerably fortified against those ideas that result from a combination of appearances unthought of, surprising, and menacing. The spectator flatters himself that he has nothing to behold more awful, nor any thing more dangerous to meet, than what he finds in the first cavern; but he soon discovers his mistake; for the bare want of that light which

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dresses nature with gaiety is alone sufficient to render
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rain frowns upon him from several parts, but in this
it is threatened from a thousand vast rocks rudely piled
on each other, that compose the sides which seem bend-
ing in, and a multitude of no smaller size are pendent
from the roof in the most extraordinary manner; add
to this, that by a false step one would be dashed from
precipice to precipice. Indeed, it would be matter of
much difficulty, or rather impracticable, to walk over
this apartment, had not nature, as if studious for the
safety of the curious, caused a sort of branches to shoot
from the surface of the rocks, which are remarkably
unequal, and always damp. These branches are from
four to six inches in length, and nearly as thick; they
are useful in the summits of the rocks to prevent slip-
ping, and in the sides are ladders to descend and ascend
with tolerable facility. This astonishing passage leads
to a place far more curious than any of the rest. On
entering into it, one is almost induced to believe him-
self situated in an ancient temple, decorated with all
expense of art; yet, notwithstanding the beauty and
splendor that catch the eye on every side, there is some-
thing of solemnity in the fashions of the place, which
must be observed by the most ordinary spectator. The
floor in some parts is covered with a crystalline sub-
stance; the sides in many places are incrustated with the
same, wrought in a mode not unlike the Gothic style of
ornament, and the top is almost entirely covered with
inverted pyramids of the like elegantly white and lucid
matter. At the points of these statelike strata are
perpetually hanging drops of pellucid water; for when
one falls, another succeeds; these pendent gems con-
tribute not a little to the brilliancy of the roof, which,
when the place is properly illuminated, appears as if
formed of the purest crystal.

Here are three extraordinary and beautiful congela-
tions, which, without the aid of a strong imagination,
may be taken for an organ, altar, and cross. The
former, except when strictly examined, appears to be a
regular work of art, and is of a considerable size; the
second is of a simple form, rather long than square;
and the third reaches from the floor to the roof, which
must be about twenty feet. These curious figures are
owing either to water that fell from the upper parts of
the cave to the ground, which coagulated into stone
from time to time, until at length it acquired those
forms which are now so pleasing; or to an exudation, or
exhalation, of petrifying juices out of the earth; or
perhaps they partake of the nature of spar, which is a
kind of rock plant. The former seems to be the most
probable supposition, as these figures in colour and con-
sistence appear exactly like the icicles on the top, which
are only seen from the wet parts of the caverns; and
in this place there is a greater oozing of water, and a
much larger number of petrifications, than in any
other. When this curious apartment has been suffi-
ciently examined, the guides lead you for a considerable

way through winding places, until a glimmering light
agreeably surprises. Here the journey of above a
quarter of a mile through those parts is ended; but
upon returning into the first cavern, the entrance into
other apartments, less curious indeed, but as extensive
as those we have described, offers itself. The passages
into some of these are so very low, that there is a neces-
sity of creeping through them; by these we proceed
until the noise of a subterraneous river is heard; further
than this none have ventured.

In the mountains of Wicklow are also some of those
deep vallies called gyls, very beautiful and picturesque,
together with some grand and astonishing water-falls.

There are few forests in Ireland; the chief lie in
Leinster and Ulster, the King's and Queen's-Counties,
and in those of Wexford and Carlow, Donegal, Far-
managh, along Lough-Earne, and in the north parts
of the counties of Tyrone and Down, wherein is some
good timber; and the oak is esteemed as good as any
of the English growth, and as fit for ship-building.
Some years ago the proprietors of many of the smelt-
ing-houses were obliged to relinquish them for want of
fuel; but some new plantations having been lately
made, and the growth of timber encouraged by the
patriotic Dublin society, it is hoped a sufficient quan-
tity will be raised.

The vegetable and animal productions of Ireland
nearly resemble those of England and Scotland. Some
of the meadows are covered with excellent grass; others
yield plenty of turf and peat, which are very service-
able for firing. Great quantities of hemp and flax are
raised in the northern parts of the kingdom. Bees
abound here, and vast quantities of wild honey are
found in caverns and trunks of trees. Wolves were
formerly very numerous here, but have long since been
destroyed by the wolf-dogs, which are much larger than
mastiffs, shaped like greyhounds, yet very gentle and
governable. Their herds of black cattle, flocks of
sheep, hogs, and also rabbits, are amazingly nume-
rous: one rabbit warren is affirmed to be forty miles
in length; they have geese and fowls of all kinds, and
a species of excellent hawks. The fish on the coasts
of Ireland are in greater plenty than on those of Eng-
land, and some of them larger and more excellent in
their kind. The assertion that venomous animals will
not live in Ireland, begins to lose credit, as numbers
of toads are found in that kingdom.

Most of the mines of Ireland have been discovered
in this century; some contain a mixture of silver and
lead; thirty pounds of lead ore is said to produce a
pound of silver; but the richest silver mine is at Wick-
low; two mines, one of copper, and another of lead,
have been discovered at Tipperary. Iron mines are
dispersed all over the kingdom; here are also quarries
of free-stone, some of a grey or ash-colour, and others
blue. There are quarries of fine slate and marble in
most of the counties. There is a peculiar species of
coal at Kilkenny, resembling the canal-coal of Lan-

cafter, very hard, of a bright black, burns freely, and emits little or no smoke; these qualities, with the fertility of the air and gravelly soil in that county, have given rise to the well-known proverb, that "Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog." There are few mineral waters in Ireland; the principal spring of this kind is situated on the banks of the Liffy, at the village of Leilip, seven miles from Dublin: but there is hardly a place without a holy well, the virtue of whose waters is the offspring of superstition.

Some authors fix the number of inhabitants in Ireland at two millions, others at two millions and a half; and in some debates in parliament about twelve years ago, it was asserted that they amounted to three millions. The following calculation, made in the year 1733, of the people in each province, may perhaps enable the reader to form some idea of the population of that kingdom:

Protestant Families.	Popish Families.
In Ulster.....62,62038,459
Leinster.....25,23892,424
Munster.....13,337106,407
Connaught.....4,29944,133
Total 105,494	Total 281,423

Allowing this calculation to be right, and that each family in the country consists of five persons, those in the city of Cork of seven, and those in Dublin of ten, the total of the whole will be 2,015,229 persons: though it must be observed that of late years the balance of numbers has greatly increased in favour of the Protestants.

The first settlers of Ireland are supposed to have been emigrants from different parts of the globe, and at different times. The Irish, in general, are a strong bodied people, nimble, active, of great softness and pliancy in their limbs, bold, haughty, ready of apprehension, cunning, hospitable, credulous, vain, full of resentment, and violent in all their affections.

The Papists, in consequence of a blind submission to their priests, are ignorant and superstitious. At home they are not remarkable for bravery, probably owing to the many legal disabilities they labour under, which lays a restraint both on their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes, they generally distinguish themselves by their courage and fidelity. O or Mac, which signify grandson and son, usually precede their surnames, especially of the better sort.

These people are too justly accused of hard drinking, and are not supposed to have made a person welcome at their house, who is suffered to leave it sober. Some writers have accused the Irish of want of genius, and others have even gone so far as to call them a nation of blunderers; but it is plain they were either actuated

by partiality, or ignorant of proper distinction; for it is well known that Ireland has produced several men of unquestioned abilities; and at present the politer part of that nation do not yield the palm in any one respect to the English, of whose manners, language, dress and customs, they are true copyists.

The old, or mere Irish, as they are termed by the Protestants, are indeed a miserable race, inhabiting the most unpolished provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught. These poor people are without dispute the most ignorant; but at the same time appear to be the most oppressed people in Europe; being in a manner denied all the benefits common to a civilized people. Subjected even to a state of slavery by their tyrannical lords or leaseholders, their only wealth consists of a cow; sometimes, but very rarely, of a horse; a small number of poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Their food is coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, butter, milk, and sometimes fish; but seldom taste butcher's meat of any kind. They reside in miserable huts, termed by them cabins, built of clay and straw, which are generally divided in the centre by a partition of the same materials. In one part the family 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 appropriated for the reception of a cow, and such pieces of lumber as are not in immediate use. Their children, plump, roblust, and hearty, scarcely know the use of clothes, and are not ashamed to gaze upon strangers, or make their appearance in that primitive manner, upon the roads.

There is no doubt that many thousands, by living in this idle and deplorable state, have been lost to the community and to themselves, who if they had been properly educated, and instructed in the real principles of Christianity, and inured and encouraged to industry and labour, would have become useful members of society, and also added considerable strength to government. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themselves of the uncomfortable situation in which the Irish were at home, by alluring them to enter their service; and in this they have been assisted by priests and Jesuits, whose interest it was to infuse into the minds of their credulous disciples an aversion to the British government; but we have now the pleasing hopes of a happy reformation among these people, in consequence of the late laws passed by the parliament of Great-Britain in favour of Ireland, and from the number of English Protestant working-schools lately established over the kingdom; which institution will strike deeper at the root of Popery, than all the endeavours of the British monarchs to seduce them: since it must be admitted, that most of the enormities perpetrated, and the miseries suffered by the lower clafs of people, both in Ireland and England, chiefly spring from the want of a due attention to their education, and their gross ignorance of the first principles of religion.

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The pre- three distin- ignorant, a- upon the- of the Eng- Cork, and- roast facin- commerce, the true C- descendents- ted from t- the first wh- wealth, the-

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The present inhabitants of Ireland are composed of three distinct classes of people; the old Irish, poor, ignorant, and depressed, who inhabit, or rather exist, upon the interior and western parts; the descendants of the English, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coast facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, science, and more liberal and just ideas of the true God and primitive Christianity; thirdly, the descendants of the Scots, who in the reign of James I. fled from that kingdom to avoid persecution, and were the first who introduced the present great source of Irish wealth, the linen manufactory.

The gentry and better sort of the Irish nation in general differ little in language, dress, manners, and customs, from those of the same rank in Great-Britain, whom they imitate. Their hospitality is well known, but in this they are sometimes suspected of more ostentation than real friendship. Their music is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a very melancholy strain; though some of the latest airs are more lively, and, when sung by an Irishman, 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. Their custom of placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid out upon a table, having a plate upon the body, to excite the charity of passers, is practised even in the skirts of Dublin, though one would wish to see it abolished. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, is offensive to every stranger; but, as we observed before, these customs are chiefly confined to the more unpolished provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught, the common people there having the least sense of law and government of any in Ireland, except their tyrannical landlords, or leaseholders, who squeeze the poor without mercy.

The church of England and its discipline form the established religion of Ireland; but among the bulk of the people, in the most uncultivated parts, Popery, and that too of the most illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish Papists still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy does not prevent Protestantism from making a very rapid progress in the towns and communities. This happy circumstance may in a great measure be ascribed to the great efforts which have been made, ever since the days of James I. in erecting free-schools for civilizing and converting the Irish Papists. The institution of the incorporated society for promoting the English Protestant working-schools, already mentioned, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly successful, as have many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish; and no country in the

world can shew greater public-spirited exertions than have been made by the government of Ireland, since that time, for these laudable institutions; but many of the parliamentary grants of this kind have been unhappily trifled with and perverted. There are many sectaries in Ireland; particularly Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers, and Methodists, all of whom are either connived at or tolerated.

There are four archbishoprics of the established church in Ireland, viz. Armagh, Dublin, Cathell, and Tuam: the bishoprics are, Clogher, Clonfert, Cloncyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, Waterford, Kilmore, and Killala.

The Irish language is a dialect of the Celtic, and fundamentally the same with the Erse used by the Scots Highlanders, and not remarkably different from the Welsh. But it is now greatly altered from its original simplicity by provincial alterations, and the introduction of foreign words; and it is probable that in a few centuries the Irish will be considered as a dead language. The common people have a disagreeable tone in speaking, which diffuses itself even among the better sort who do not understand Irish.

Learning, the ancient Irish historians tell us, flourished in this country when the rest of Europe was overwhelmed with the grossest ignorance. The old natives of Ireland also dispute the honour of the poems of Ossian with the Scots Highlands, insinuating that he was a native of Ireland: however this be, it is well known that the Irish still repeat many parts of his poems, which have been transmitted by tradition, from father to son, for many generations. With regard to writers, since the revival of learning, the Irish are nearly equal to those of their neighbours. They cannot indeed boast of a Newton, a Milton, or a Shakespeare; but, among a variety of other writers of that country, Usher, Leland, Swift, Steele, Farquhar, Bishop Berkeley, Parnell, Sterne, and Goldsmith, have done honour to literature.

The only university in Ireland is that of Dublin, denominated Trinity-College, which was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth: It consists of two squares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings of eight rooms each. Three sides of one of the squares are of brick, and the fourth is a very superb library. The inside is beautiful and commodious, and embellished with the busts of several ancient and modern worthies. The new square, three sides of which have been built within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament-Square, is of hewn stone; and the front of it, near the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilasters, festoons, &c. The Provost's house has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland stone. The chapel, and the old hall, where college exercises are performed, are mean structures; but the new hall, in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room.

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The original foundation of this seminary consisted only of a provost, three fellows, and three scholars: it has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, seventy scholars, and thirty sizers. The whole number of students is at present about 400, who are of three classes, fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizers or writers. Of the fellows, seven are called seniors, and the annual income of these is about 700l. The provostship is supposed to be worth 3000l. a year. Trinity-College has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, masters, and doctors in all the arts and faculties. The visitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin. In the museum of this university is a set of figures in wax, representing females in every state of pregnancy: they are done upon real skeletons, and are the labours of almost a whole life of a French artist.

Ireland has several free-schools for the instruction of youth, which are endowed both by public and private munificence. Many of these institutions were founded by James I. and queen Elizabeth; one by the first duke of Ormond, and another by Erasmus Smith, Esq; in the year 1748, the free-schools in Ireland amounted to 168, in which 3006 children were educated. But the most extensive and useful charity of this kind in Ireland, and perhaps in the universe, is the incorporated society for promoting English Protestant working-schools already mentioned. James I. made great efforts for this purpose; but this beneficial undertaking was not incorporated by charter till 1733, by George II. and the parliament of Ireland appropriates near 3000l. a year to the use of it, and the late king contributed 1000l. immediately, and 1000l. per annum towards its support. There is also a charitable institution in Dublin, termed a charter nursery, where the infants of the poor are received, fed, clothed, instructed, and taken very great care of, by proper persons appointed, till they are old enough to be sent to some of the above-mentioned schools: and there are other nurseries of the same kind in different parts of the kingdom.

The natural and artificial curiosities of Ireland are not so numerous as they are remarkable. The Irish gos-hawks and gos-falcons are celebrated for their shape and beauty: besides the shape and fashion of their body, they stand so erect, and delight the eyes with such an elegant form, that they give as it were a grandeur to the diversion of hawking. The Irish wolf-dogs, before mentioned, have been accounted presents worthy the acceptance of monarchs. The caves, glyns, and cataracts, already noticed, certainly deserve to be mentioned among the natural curiosities of this kingdom. But that which merits our greatest attention is the Giant's Causeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Coleraine, which Dr. Pococke, a celebrated traveller and antiquary, has thus described: "I measured," says this learned writer, "the most westerly point at high water, to the distance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low

water, it extended sixty feet further upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the eastern point, I found it 540 feet from the cliff; and saw as much more on 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 and 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 resemble a cement, about four inches in thickness; upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another stratum ten feet thick, divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone, twenty feet deep, and above that a stratum of upright pillars; above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above them; where they are called the chimneys. The face of these cliffs extends about three English miles."

The greatest artificial curiosities in Ireland are the tall, slender, round towers, called Pharos, built of lime and stone, and dispersed through various parts of the kingdom. They are supposed to have been erected by the Danes or Norwegians, as watch-towers or beacons.

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is situated on the banks of the river Liffey, about seven miles from the sea, and at the bottom of a large bay of the same name. The whole extent of this city is about one-third of London, including Westminster and Southwark; and one fourth at least of the whole has been built within these forty years; more than 4000 houses having been erected in that short period of time. Those parts of the town that have been added since that time are substantially built, and the streets in general well laid out, especially on the north side the river, where the most considerable additions have been made.

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The city is now adorned with many spacious and regular streets, particularly Sackville-Street, in the north-east part of the town, which, with some alterations and improvements, would have been one of the finest, perhaps, in Europe. The most elegant, and best finished piece of architecture in Dublin, is the lying-in-hospital. The view of Dublin from the top of any of their towers, is the most beautiful of any large city in the king's dominions, in a similar point of view, from the neatness of the blue slating with which the houses are universally covered. The bay below the city to the east, with the adjacent country, adds greatly to the beauty of the prospect.

The river Liffy, which runs through almost the centre of the city, from west to east, and contributes much to its health, is but small, not being more than one-fifth as wide as the Thames at London, consequently cannot be supposed capable of bringing up to the town-ships of above one hundred and fifty, or two hundred tons burden. Over this river there are five bridges, of which that called Essex-Bridge is well built, and a new Street is opened from the foot of this bridge to the castle, where the lord-lieutenant resides, and adds greatly to the beauty and utility of the city. A spacious and elegant Exchange has been lately erected; it is a handsome structure of white stone, richly embellished with semi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments. There are two large and elegant theatres here, which are generally well filled, and serve as a kind of nursery to those in London. Here are summer entertainments also, in imitation of those in London. Adjoining to the lying-in-hospital, and belonging to it, is a large square piece of ground enclosed, and three sides out of four very prettily laid out in walks, plantations of shrubs, trees, &c. the fourth being taken up with one of the fronts of the hospital. The ground on the side opposite the hospital, being much higher than the rest, is formed into a fine hanging bank, with a slope of near thirty feet, on the top of which is laid out a grand terrace-walk, commanding a fine view of the hospital. On the upper side of this terrace, and nearly encompassed by the groves and shrubberies, is built a very pretty orchestra. This garden, the most agreeable about Dublin, is much frequented in fine summer evenings by the genteel company of the city; and though not so generally calculated for a musical entertainment as the gardens of Vauxhall, near London, yet there are some walks in it where the music has a very fine and pleasing effect.

A new and spacious square is erected in the neighbourhood of St. Stephen's Green; the houses are lofty, uniform, and carried on with stone as high as the first floor, which gives the whole an air of magnificence equal to any thing of the kind in Great-Britain, except at Bath. The parliament-house is a very elegant structure, and was finished in 1739, at the expence of 40,000*l*. The front of this superb pile is of the

Ionic order, and highly esteemed for its elegance; the portico, in particular, is perhaps, without a parallel. Nor are the internal parts destitute of beauties; and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. One of the greatest and most laudable undertakings this age can boast of, is the erecting a stone wall about the breadth of a moderate street in thickness, of a proportional height, and three miles in length, in order to form a pier for sheltering vessels in stormy weather.

The linen-hall is a fine building, erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as are brought to Dublin for sale. It is entirely under the direction of the trustees for the encouragement of the linen manufacture of Ireland. By this national institution all frauds are prevented in this capital branch of trade, which finds employment for many thousands of the industrious poor, and is the source of such vast riches to the kingdom.

The barracks are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river. They consist of four large courts, in which four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horse, are generally quartered. They are thought to form the largest and most complete pile of building of that kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot, and 1000 horse. The castle and city guards are relieved from hence daily.

The greatest defect of this large and populous city is, the almost total want of good inns for the accommodation of strangers and travellers. There are not above two or three that are barely tolerable. This may in some measure be accounted for by the long and sometimes dangerous passage from Chester and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from visiting that island; but as it is now proposed to make turnpike-roads to Port-Patriek in Scotland, from whence the passage is short and safe, the roads of Ireland may by this means become more frequented, and good inns opened, especially when the rural beauties of that kingdom, which are wonderfully adapted to delight the imagination of the curious traveller, are more generally known. Dublin is the see of an archbishop, who has a handsome cathedral, and a chapter consisting of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, two archdeacons, and twenty-two prebendaries. Among other establishments for the good of this country, is the Dublin society, which hath been of considerable benefit to the kingdom, by distributing premiums to a very considerable amount yearly, for encouraging and promoting husbandry, and other useful arts and manufactures.

The chief magistrate, or mayor of Dublin, as in London, bears the title of Lord during his mayoralty. Every year the lord-mayor and twenty-four companies perambulate the city and its liberties. The provisions of this city are generally good, and at a reasonable price, liquors especially: the best spirits may be purchased at half the price they sell for in London.

Their wine is chiefly claret, the common price of which is two shillings the bottle; and the best the town affords may be had for two shillings and sixpence. The rates of hackney coaches and chairs are fixed here, as in London, for the different distances, or set-downs, as they are called. But here are two sorts of carriages peculiar to the place. The one is called a noddly, which is nothing more than an old cast-off one-horse chaise, or chair, with a kind of stool fixed on the shafts, just before the seat, on which the driver sits, over the rump of the horse, and drives you from one part of the town to another, at stated rates. Though this is neither a very safe nor easy vehicle, yet it is convenient for single persons, the fare being not much more than half that of a coach; and they will go to any part of the kingdom on reasonable terms. The other is called a chaise-marine, and is little more than a common car with one horse. They are used throughout the kingdom, for the conveyance of people on parties of pleasure, by the genteel as well as the common, and for the carriage of goods and merchandize of every kind, hay, corn, straw, dung, turf, &c. When used for parties of pleasure, a mat is laid on the level part for the commonalty, and a bed for the genteel sort.

Besides the lying-in hospital already mentioned, here is another for lunatics, erected and endowed by the late celebrated Dr. Swift, a royal hospital for invalids, like that at Chelsea, besides others for patients of every kind. Dublin has eighteen parish churches, eight chapels, three for French, and one for Dutch Protestants, seven Presbyterian meeting-houses, one for Methodists, two for Quakers, and sixteen Roman Catholic chapels. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are now rebuilding in a more elegant manner. In a word, the spirit of elegance and improvement has extended itself over this whole kingdom, as well as over England and Scotland, so that the works of ornament as well as public utility in Ireland, almost keep pace with those erec^ting great as they are, over the different parts of Gr. Britain. The number of inhabitants in this city are now computed at about 300,000.

Cork stands 129 miles south-west of Dublin, contains above 8,500 houses, and, next to the capital, is the largest, most opulent and populous in the kingdom; it is encompassed by walls, and likewise by the channel of the river Lee, over which it has bridges on all sides. This city is an episcopal see, and a place of great trade, situated fifteen miles up the river. The large vessels generally ride at a place called Pailage; but the smaller come up to the key. Its haven is deep, and well sheltered from all winds. The city, together with its liberties, makes a county, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs. It has the most trade of any town in the kingdom, particularly in beef, pork, butter, and tallow, of which great quantities are exported to France, Holland, Flanders, and the American provinces; and many ships bound to the West-Indies, put in here

to victual. It formerly had several abbeys, and has now many handsome public structures, particularly a cathedral, custom-house, and two gates, one on the north, and the other on the south. Five miles below Cork, the channel of the river is divided into two by an island on which are several villages. Cork is nearly as large as Bristol, but infinitely better situated as to its navigation. The churches here are the neatest and most superb of any in the kingdom. There is likewise a very large and magnificent theatre, in which dramatic performances are exhibited by a company from Dublin, during the summer vacation at the capital. The houses in general are well built, but many of the streets are narrow.

Waterford is situated on the river Sure, and was originally built by certain pirates of Norway. Most of the houses are built with timber, and make a very indifferent appearance; but the cathedral is esteemed a very noble structure. The city carries on a very considerable trade, particularly with England, and ships of burden come up close to the key, which is excellently adapted to the purpose of loading and unloading goods. Waterford-Haven extends near eight miles and a half from north to south, almost in a straight line, the water all the way very deep and clear, and but little incumbered with rocks or sand. The city and its liberties make a distinct county. There is a citadel on the west side, and on the east a block-house and store-house.

Limerick is a handsome, populous, commercial, strong place, situated on both sides the Shannon, and contains 5,297 houses. It is a county town.

Kinsale is a neat, populous, and strong town, stands at the mouth of the river Bann, or Bandon, and is only inferior to Cork in point of trade. Prodigious quantities of provisions are shipped off from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the West-Indies. The port is barred, but ships of any burden may enter the harbour at high-water. There is a light-house on a point of land called the Old Head of Kinsale, to direct ships in the night to the mouth of the river.

Galway is seated near a noble bay, which, running above thirty miles up into the country from the western ocean, has many harbours and roads on every side, and is sheltered by several isles at its mouth, between which are broad and deep channels called sounds. It is a very neat, strong, and flourishing city, and very advantageously situated for trade with France, Spain, and the West-Indies. The buildings, both public and private, are most of them of stone, and very elegant. The city is walled, and was once the see of a bishop, but is now within the archbishopric of Tuam. It carries on a considerable herring fishery, and is almost the only place upon the coast that has any foreign trade. The harbour is about two miles from the city, to which the goods are brought in lighters.

The other towns, though less considerable, are thus described: Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) by some deemed the capital of the province, has a good harbour and

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and cattle, but little commerce. Downpatrick has a
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port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen-
water, where it falls into Carrickfergus-Bay. Derry
(or Londonderry) stands in Lough-Foyl, and is a
strong little city, having linen manufactures, with some
commerce and shipping.

All this extreme part of Ireland is situated so near
to Scotland, that they are in sight of each others coasts.

Donegal (otherwise called Tyrconnel) the county
town of the same name, is a place of some trade; as
is likewise Enniskilling. The last mentioned places,
and many more less considerable ones, are chiefly and
most industriously employed in the manufacturing of
linen and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole
kingdom.

The places already mentioned are the principal for-
tifications in the kingdom; but besides these there are
Culmore-Fort, Duncannon, Ross-Castle, Charlemont,
Maryborough, and Athlone.

The commerce and manufactures of Ireland nearly
resemble those of England. The Irish chiefly export
linen cloths, cambricks, lawns, hemp, flax, coarse rugs,
frizes, fine stuffs, ratteens, yarn, wool, beef, pork, raw
and tanned hides, calf skins dried, butter, cheese,
tallow, caudles, ox and cow horns, horse hair, ox hair,
some lead, copper ore, dried fish, salmon, herrings,
otter skins, goat skins, and rabbit skins; but the furs
of these are not so fine as those of England.

It is probable that the exports of Ireland will be
greatly increased by the late laws passed in favour of
the trade of that kingdom. The principal manufac-
tures of Ireland, and indeed the chief branch of its
commerce, consists of linen cloths, lawns, and cam-
bricks, to which great encouragement is given by the
British legislature. The manufacture of stuffs in Ire-
land is exceedingly beautiful, but the importation of
them into England is prohibited.

The Dublin Society for the encouragement of ma-
nufactures and commerce was incorporated in 1750.

Before we speak more particularly of the constitution
and government of Ireland, it is necessary to observe,
that as Scotland and England are now one and the
same kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws;
so England and Ireland are distinct kingdoms, and yet
in general agree in their laws.

After the conquest of Ireland by king Henry II. the
laws of England were received and sworn to by the
Irish nation, assembled at the council of Liffmore; and
as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed,
continued dependent on England, it was thought ne-
cessary that it should conform to, and be governed by,
such laws as the superior state thought proper to pre-
scribe. But this state of dependence being almost for-
gotten, and ready to be disputed by the Irish nation, it
was thought proper, some years ago, to declare how
that matter stood: and therefore, by statute 6 Geo. I.
it is declared, " that the kingdom of Ireland ought to

be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial
crown of Great-Britain, as being inseparably united
thereto; and that the king's majesty, with the consent
of the lords and commons of Great-Britain, hath power
to make laws to bind the people of Ireland."

This determination of the British parliament was,
however, far from being cordially received by the Irish
nation in general, many of whom disputed, more than
ever, the dependency of Ireland upon the parliament of
Great-Britain. After many struggles, perceiving their
own strength by means of their volunteer associations,
and encouraged and favoured by the several parties con-
tending for the administration in England, the Irish, in
the year 1782, obtained a formal repeal of the above
galling statute; which was considered as a renunciation,
on the part of Great-Britain, of every claim of legislation
over Ireland. Since this memorable period, the Irish
government, with respect to distributive justice, has
continued nearly the same with that of England.

Since the subjection of this island to England, it has
received viceroys under various appellations; but the
chief governor is at present generally styled the lord-
lieutenant. The appointment of this great officer is
entirely in the king's power. His jurisdictions and au-
thority are ample, and, in some degree, even royal;
but, at the same time, they are modified by the terms
of his commission; being in some restrained, and in
others enlarged, according to the monarch's pleasure, or
the exigencies of the times. The lord-lieutenant is
usually appointed for three years, but is often continued
much longer.

When any nobleman enters upon this great office, his
letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber;
and, having taken the usual oath before the lord-chan-
cellor, the sword, which is to be carried before him, is
delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of
state, attended by the lord-chancellor, the members of
the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at
arms, a serjeant at arms, and other officers of state. He
has a council composed of the great officers of the
crown, viz. the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the
archbishops, earls, bishops, barons, judges, and gen-
tlemen, as his majesty is pleased to nominate. When
a lord-lieutenant dies, or his place becomes vacant by
surrender, or departure out of the realm without leave,
by virtue of a statute made in the reign of Henry VIII.
the chancellor issues writs to the king's counsellors in
certain shires, to appear and make an election of another
to serve until the king sends a successor, and he is sworn
accordingly.

The parliament in Ireland, like that of England, is
the supreme court, convened by the king's writ, and
prorogued or dissolved at his pleasure. Till very lately
they were continued for the king's life; but, since the
accession of his present majesty, Irish parliaments have
been rendered biennial. It consists, as in England,
of a house of lords and commons, among the former of
which are many English peers, and commons of Great-

Britain;

Britain; some few are Papists, who, being properly qualified, are allowed to sit in this assembly; the number of commonsers amount to about 300. The laws made by the parliament of Ireland are sent to England for the royal approbation, when, if approved of by the king and council, they pass the great seal of England, and are returned. Thus this parliament has power to make laws which are binding to the kingdom, raise taxes for the support of government, and for the maintenance of an army of 16,000 men, who are placed in convenient barracks in different parts of the kingdom. The representation of the people in the senate of Ireland is, in many instances, like that of England, partial and inadequate. If parliaments were more limited in their duration, it would be better for the public, and greatly promote national prosperity.

In Ireland, as in England, there are four terms held annually for the decision of causes; and four courts of justice, viz. chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. In the first of these a single person presides under the name of the king's high chancellor, and keeper of the great seal. In the king's-bench and common-pleas are three judges each; and in the exchequer, the treasurer, the chancellor, and three barons. All these courts have their subordinate officers.

Here are also several inferior courts; such as, the exchequer chamber, where errors at law in the other courts are corrected; also judges of assize and gaol delivery for the trial of prisoners; a court of admiralty; courts of prerogative, and a consistory court; besides governors and justices of the peace, appointed by his majesty, in the several counties: the high sheriffs are now nominated by the lord-lieutenant.

The revenues of Ireland are computed to exceed half a million sterling, near 70,000*l.* of which is granted in pensions. The revenues are of two sorts, public and private. The public revenues of that kingdom arise from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee, for applying it to particular uses: but the private revenue is the unlimited property of the crown, and arises from the ancient demesne lands; from forfeitures for treason and felony; prisage of wines; light-house duties; and a small part of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament. Besides these, large sums are annually raised by the legislature for the noble purposes of improving their country. To their patriotic spirit the prodigious works carried on in that kingdom owe their origin. They have already constructed several noble canals for the benefit of inland navigation; built bridges, churches, and other public structures; made roads; given premiums for improvements in husbandry, and other useful arts; and largely assisted the useful design of Protestant working-schools. At the same time it must be observed, that the money necessary for these, and many other noble purposes, is raised in so easy a method, that the people are hardly sensible of the impost; no taxes are laid on their land, and few on any of the branches of their trade; their foreign commerce

is not clogged with innumerable duties, nor the necessities of life burdened with heavy taxes. In consequence of this, labour is cheap, and their manufactures are sent to market at a moderate price. They are in no fear of being undersold by foreigners, nor of being able to supply the orders of their correspondents. In a country like this, manufactures must flourish; and it will give pleasure to every ingenious mind to know, that the linens of Ireland are not excelled by any manufactured in Europe. A description of the ancient coins of Ireland, would be a needless undertaking, as they are now totally disused; the money of England is at this time the currency of that nation, with this difference only, that one of our shillings passes there for thirteen-pence, other pieces in the same proportion.

The land-forces now maintained in Ireland consist of 15,000 men, who have been often of singular service to England; and their military force has been gradually increased by the many volunteer associated companies which have been lately formed in that kingdom. The most uncultivated parts contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little sense either of divine or human laws, consequently regular forces are absolutely necessary for keeping them in order; witness the late insurrections of the White-Boys, and other banditti, who were intigated by their priests: though it must be confessed that many of the common people of Ireland have laboured under such oppressions as afforded them just grounds for discontent.

The history of this kingdom, like that of most other nations, is involved in fable and obscurity: it has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may very justly be distinguished into the legendary and authentic. Some of their writers have presented us with a succession of wife and learned kings, commencing a few years after the deluge: others have given an uninterrupted succession of 197 kings of Ireland, to the year 1170; and even the more moderate Irish antiquaries carry their history up to about 500 years before the Christian era. But, as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and contested parts of their history, we shall only observe, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that St. Patrick introduced the knowledge of letters, and planted Christianity in Ireland. The soil was very friendly to religion, and afforded the monks at once a safe retreat, and sufficient leisure to pursue their studies. The invasion of the Danes and Norwegians, about the seventh century, destroyed the peace of this asylum; and it is highly probable, that the greatest part of the Irish coasts were afterwards peopled by the Normans and Danes, commonly called Easterlings, who built the cities of Dublin, Limerick, Waterford, Wexford, and Cork, and reduced as much of the adjacent country as was convenient for their purpose. But, as the rest of the kingdom offered nothing worth their contending for, the native Irish living mostly in caverns, and a few wretched houses made of hurdles, and

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covered with straw and rushes, the Easterlings seemed satisfied with the sea-coasts, without attempting to extend their conquest to the inland parts of the country. Their numbers were indeed too inconsiderable to people the island, their manners too barbarous to civilize it, and their necessities too pressing to be gratified with so unavailing an acquisition.

It is, however, probable that these foreigners formed alliances with the natives, and resembled them in their manners. The fertility of the soil, the temperature of the air, the convenience of its harbours, which to other nations are the source of riches, were to the Irish matters of reproach. The fairest blessings of nature lay unimproved by ignorance, nourished by pride. Their healthful vigour was impaired by inactivity, and they seem to have been equally void of the virtues as well as the vices of mankind.

In the time of Henry II. of England there were five kings in Ireland. This prince, provoked at their piracies, and the assistance they gave his enemies, determined to subdue them. Accordingly, he applied to Adrian IV. who then filled St. Peter's chair, and obtained an ample bull for the conquest of Ireland. Soon after the pope's consent was obtained, a fair pretence offered for carrying this design into execution. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinster, one of the most oppressive tyrants Ireland ever knew, invaded the territories of all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of O'Ruark, king of Meath. Fired with this indignity, the injured prince formed an alliance with Roderic, king of Connaught, and Dermot was driven out of Ireland. Thus distressed, he passed over to England, in order to implore the protection of Henry II. This event happened in the year 1167, while the English monarch was in Normandy, and prevented from assisting Dermot in person. He, however, recommended the cause of the Irish prince to several of his barons, particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Morris Fitz-Gerald. Strongbow was a nobleman of unbounded ambition and large possessions in Wales, where his tenants were numerous, and the situation of his estate very convenient for passing over to Ireland. Strongbow therefore readily undertook to assist Dermot in the recovery of his country, on condition that the latter should give him his daughter in marriage, and leave him heir to his dominions. It was also agreed that Dermot should cede for ever to Fitz-Stephens and Fitz-Gerald the town of Wexford, with the two hundreds adjoining. The treaty being finished, the adventurers landed in Ireland, at the head of a small body of forces, and soon reduced the city of Wexford; and the city of Dublin afterwards surrendered upon capitulation, by which it was agreed that the city should continue in the possession of Hasculf, the Danish prince to whom it belonged.

These successes, which ought to have united, served to divide the Irish. Public spirit, the only cement of patriotic union, was to them unknown; dissensions,

inspired by revenge, envy, and avarice, prevailed among the chiefs, and Ireland fell a prey to the English; after a much less glorious struggle indeed, but by the same vices and mistakes which had before reduced Britain to a Roman province. Strongbow took the city of Waterford, drove the Danish prince from Dublin, and completed his marriage with Eva, the daughter of Dermot.

Henry, alarmed at these unexpected conquests in Ireland, and the death of Dermot, which happened soon after, resolved to visit that island in person. Accordingly he embarked his forces at Pembroke in Wales, on board 400 transports, in the autumn of the year 1171, and the next day landed in Ireland, about five miles from Waterford. All the Irish princes, except the king of Ulster, immediately repaired to Henry, and submitted to his government. Thus the king of England became master of Ireland, without shedding a drop of human blood, and in much less time than was sufficient to travel over it. Henry kept a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the cities of Ireland among his followers, settled a civil administration nearly resembling that of England, planted a colony from Bristol in that capital, and returned to England.

A few years after, Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his son John, who personally visited that island in 1185, attended by a company of Norman knights. But John and his giddy courtiers made a very ill use of their powers, and, by their imprudent behaviour, incurred the hatred of the people. Richard I. was too much taken up with the crusades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland. King John, however, after his accession to the crown, endeavoured to make amends for his former behaviour to the Irish. He enlarged his father's plan, and laboured to establish a scheme of policy in that kingdom, upon the same footing as in England. For this purpose, he ordered sterling money to be struck at Dublin, according to the English standard; he issued a proclamation to render that money current in both kingdoms: he divided the island into counties; appointed sheriffs; ordered a fair copy of the English laws to be engrossed, and deposited in the exchequer at Dublin: he commanded the observance of the English laws and customs; erected courts of law on the same plan, and confined their proceedings to the same rules as those in England. But, notwithstanding these noble attempts to civilize the Irish, they were far from being sufficient to answer the intended purpose: the original inhabitants in many parts of the island were still governed by their own laws, and refused to conform to the customs of the English, or profit by their improvements. Their prejudices were greatly increased during the unsettled reign of Henry III. which gave them a very mean opinion of the English government; but we have no account of their disturbing the peace of their country during the life of his son Edward I.

During the reign of Robert Bruce in Scotland, the Irish seemed willing to transfer their allegiance from

the English to the Scottish crown, and Bruce sent his brother Edward, at the head of a considerable army, to assist them against the English. Edward defeated the enemy in several engagements, was actually crowned king at Dundalk, but miscarried in his attempt upon Dublin, and was afterwards defeated and slain in battle by Birmingham, the English governor. After this decisive action, the Irish submitted, and Edward II. in order to gain their confidence, governed them with great moderation, and passed several excellent acts for the benefit of their country.

Several of the succeeding kings of England pursued the same conduct with success; and many attempts were made to reduce the inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England, but without success. Henry VIII. persuaded that the title of king would have a more powerful effect on the Irish than that of lord, passed an act of parliament, by virtue of which Ireland was erected into a kingdom. He was not deceived: the Irish, who had so long refused to acknowledge the authority to a lord, very readily paid a perfect submission to a king. Even O'Neil, who pretended to be the successor to the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The dominion of the English over Ireland was however still little more than nominal. The Irish princes and nobles, divided among themselves, readily paid the exterior marks of obedience to a power they were not able to resist; but, as no durable force was ever kept on foot to retain them to their duty, they often relapsed into their former state of independence. Too weak to introduce order and obedience among the rude inhabitants, the English power was only sufficient to check the growth of any enterprising genius among the natives: and, though it could bestow no true form of civil government, it was able to prevent the rise of any such form, from the internal combination or policy of the Irish.

Most of the English institutions also by which that island was governed, were to the last degree absurd, and such as no state before had ever thought of, for preserving dominion over its conquered provinces. The minds of the English, always engaged on the romantic scheme of subduing France, neglected all other enterprises, to which their situation so strongly invited them, and which would in time have acquired them an accession of riches, grandeur, and security.

The Irish seemed to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the side of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual disputes she had with the Roman Catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneasiness; and the pope and the house of Austria always found new resources against her in Ireland. The Spaniards possessed themselves of Kinsale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and defeated her favourite general, the earl of Essex, are well known. But what Essex did not, perhaps could not perform, was attempted with success by lord

Mountjoy, the first Englishman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by whose suggestions and assistance the flames of rebellion were kept up in that kingdom. Mountjoy totally defeated the combined forces of the Spaniards and Irish before Kinsale, and took Tyrone prisoner. But this happening at a time when Elizabeth was under dreadful apprehensions from the Popish interest in Ireland, Tyrone was pardoned, in 1602, though he had always intended to bring him to condign punishment.

The island was now entirely reduced to obedience; but a more difficult task still remained, to civilize the barbarous inhabitants, to reconcile them to laws and industry, and to render their subjection durable and useful to the crown of England. James I. applied himself assiduously to this troublesome, but necessary business. He formed a steady, regular, well-concerted plan; and in the space of nine years made greater advances towards the reformation of that kingdom than had been done during the interval since the conquest was attempted. But such was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to seize the castle of Dublin; but their plot being discovered; their chiefs fled beyond the seas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they instigated Sir Calim O'Dagharty to a fresh rebellion, by promising him speedy supplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was slain in the dispute, and his adherents were taken and executed. 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 Donnegal, Tyrone, Coleraine, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that Protestant plantation in the north of Ireland, which now, from the most rebellious province in the kingdom, is the most quiet and reformed. But those prodigious attainders, though apparently just and necessary, operated fatally for the English in the reign of Charles I. The Irish Roman Catholics in general were influenced by their priests, to hope not only to recover the lands of their forefathers, but to restore the Popish religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and most detestable conspiracy for massacring all the English Protestants in that kingdom. This infernal scheme was originally formed in the year 1641 by Roger More, a gentleman of narrow fortune, but descended from an ancient Irish family, and much celebrated among his countrymen for valour and capacity. Perhaps this horrid scheme had never been thought of, had not the unhappy dissensions that then subsisted between Charles I. and his parliaments in England and Scotland, encouraged More to hope the present opportunity favoured the execution of this diabolical undertaking, which was perpetrated by the Papists with a degree of infernal cruelty that beggars all description, and might shock the breasts of all who have the least feelings of humanity. Authors are not agreed with regard

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The Irish did not, however, long escape unpunished;
Cromwell retaliated the cruelties they had exercised on
the innocent and peaceable English, on themselves,
broke their force and courage; and Ireton, his success-
or, totally subdued the island. Five millions of acres,
forfeited either by the Popish rebellion, or by their ad-
herents to Charles I. were divided partly among the
adventurers, who had advanced money to the parlia-
ment, and partly among the English soldiers, who had
served due to them. Examples of a more sudden and
violent change of property are scarce to be found in
history. The Irish having lately smarted so severely,
were quiet during the reign of Charles II. but soon
after the accession of James II. to the crown of Eng-
land, the most violent and precipitate methods were
taken to restore the Popish religion in Ireland. Tyr-
connel was vested with full authority, and carried over
with him as chancellor, one Fitton, a person lately
convicted of forgery and other crimes, but who com-
pensated for all his enormities by a headstrong zeal for
the Romish religion. The Catholics were also put in
possession of the council-table, of the courts of judi-
cature, and of the bench of justices. The Protestant
members were expelled from the parliament, and their
places supplied by Catholics; it is therefore no wonder
that this bigoted prince found shelter in Ireland,
after he had abdicated the throne of England, and was
even induced to hope that, by the assistance of his
Popish subjects, he should be able to recover the
throne of his ancestors. But the battle of the Boyne,
where his whole army was totally defeated by king
William, destroyed all these flattering ideas, and he was
obliged to have recourse to a foreign prince for pro-
tection.

In consequence of this defeat, most of the large
estates in Ireland were forfeited; and had the govern-
ment disposed of all the lands which fell into their
hands, the greater part of Ireland must have been peo-
pled with British subjects; but it was thought more
prudent to endeavour to conciliate the minds of the
Irish, than drive them to despair. It was also thought
proper to preserve a proper balance of interest between
the Catholics and Protestants in that kingdom; and ac-
cordingly, after the friends to the Revolution and the
Protestant religion were sufficiently gratified out of the
forfeited estates, the insurgents, on a proper submission,
were pardoned, and suffered to enjoy their fortunes,
and the protection of the British government.

These prudent and lenient measures have been at-
tended with the desired success. Ireland is now a very
respectable kingdom. Manufactures, especially those
of linen, are carried on with spirit and advantage. Im-
provements are daily made in agriculture, and other
useful arts. The inhabitants know their own interest

and importance. The Catholics are greatly lessened
with regard to numbers; and the rays of learning have,
in a great measure, dispersed the clouds of ignorance,
and dissipated the fury of blind enthusiastic zeal. Some
acts of parliament have been made in their favour;
salted beef, butter, pork, tallow, and other necessaries
of life, are occasionally permitted to be exported from
Ireland into any of the ports of Great-Britain. But
notwithstanding some laws and regulations had taken
place in favour of Ireland, the inhabitants of that
country were still found to labour under considerable
grievances, in consequence of sundry most unjust and
injudicious restraints of the parliament of England re-
specting their trade. In October 1779, both houses of
the Irish parliament presented addresses to his majesty,
in which they declared that nothing but granting Ire-
land a free trade could save it from ruin.

The members of the opposition, in the English par-
liament very strongly represented the necessity of an im-
mediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ire-
land, and of a compliance with their wishes. The ar-
guments on this side the question were also enforced by
the accounts which came from Ireland, that the vol-
unteer associations in that kingdom amounted to 40,000
men, unpaid, self-appointed, and independent of gov-
ernment, well armed and accoutred, daily improving
in discipline, and their number afterwards increased to
80,000. The British ministry appeared to be for some
time undetermined what part they should act in this im-
portant business: but the remembrance of the fatal ef-
fects of rigorous measures respecting America, and the
very critical situation of Great-Britain, at length in-
duced the British ministry to bring in such bills as were
calculated to afford commercial relief to the people of
Ireland. Laws were accordingly passed, by which all
those acts were repealed which had prohibited the ex-
portation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and
other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to for-
eign countries had been restrained: and it was likewise
enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the British
colonies in America and the West-Indies, and the Brit-
tish settlements on the coasts of Africa, should be al-
lowed to be carried on in the same manner, and subject
to similar regulations and restrictions, with that carried
on between Great-Britain and the said colonies and set-
tlements. These laws in favour of Ireland were re-
ceived with much joy and exultation in that kingdom.

The commercial advantages afforded the Irish by the
acts above mentioned, have greatly contributed to pro-
mote the prosperity of their country; and, by the act
repealing the statute of 6 Geo. I. they are fully and
completely emancipated from the jurisdiction of the
parliament of Great-Britain: the appellate jurisdiction
of the British House of Peers in Irish causes was like-
wise given up. The last material event respecting this
country, is that, in the year 1783, the government, the
nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other
in countenancing and giving an asylum to many families
of

of the Genoese, who were banished from their own country, 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. There is a convenient town building for the reception of these people, whose emigration thither will, by the manufactures they are engaged in, prove very beneficial to the country.

The order of St. Patrick was instituted Feb. 5, 1783, and the installation of the first knights was performed on the 17th of March following. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord-lieutenant of Ireland for the time being officiates as grand-master of the order, and the archbishop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbishop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the register of the order. The knights are installed in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are splendid, and the badge is three crowns united together in a cross, with the motto round, *Quis separabit?* "Who shall separate?" 1783, fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial. The coat is encircled with a star of eight points. This is the only order of knighthood in Ireland.

Before we conclude the geography of the British dominions, it will be necessary to give a short description of the isles of Man, Jersey, Guernsey, &c. as they all enjoy some local privileges, and could not be comprehended under any of the foregoing general heads of the British dominions.

C H A P. XIII.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Air, Soil, Produce, Cattle, Inhabitants, Government, Towns, &c.

THIS isle is situated in St. George's Channel, between England, Scotland, and Ireland, its distance from all three being nearly equal; a circumstance to which, according to some authors, it owes its present name, which they derive from the Saxon word *Mang*, which signifies among. It was formerly distinguished by several different appellations, as *Mona*, which seems to have been a general name with the ancients for any detached island; *Monocla*, *Monabia*, *Menavia*, *Eubonia*, and *Manaw*. Its length from north to south is about thirty miles; its breadth from east to west about twelve: the middle of the island lies in 54 deg. 16 min. north lat. and in 5 deg. 8 min. west long. It is divided into thirteen parishes, and has four towns, where the greater part of the trade of the island is carried on. The weather in this island is less variable than that of England, but the summers are shorter and cooler, and the winters more severe. The air is exceedingly pure and wholesome, and the soil, in the hilly parts, barren; but in the vallies and champaign

country very fruitful; these abound in corn, barley, oats, rye, hemp, flax, roots, pulse, and fine pasture.

This island abounds in a small breed of black cattle, and on the mountains are great numbers of hogs and sheep, which run wild, and are never housed; the meat of both is excellent. The horses which are bred in this island are very small, but swift and hardy. There are no foxes, badgers, otters, snakes, &c. and it is asserted, that a frog was not to be found in the place till some spawn was brought over from Ireland. Eagles, and a species of mottled hawks, inhabit the island; and, in a small island called the Calf of Man, separated from the Isle of Man by a narrow channel, an infinite number of sea-fowl harbour, among which are clark geese, or barnacles, and those delicious birds called puffins, said to breed in the holes of the rabbits, which for that time leave them to these strangers. The old ones leave their young all day, and fly to the sea, and, returning late at night with their prey, disgorge it into the stomachs of their young; by which means they become almost an entire lump of fat. In August they are hunted, as it is called, and no less than 5000 of these young fowl are generally taken every year; these are mostly eaten on the island, but many of them are pickled, and sent abroad as presents.

A ridge of mountains, which runs almost the whole length of the island, furnishes the inhabitants with excellent water, together with peat and turf for fuel.

The Isle of Man contains about 20,000 inhabitants; who are in general very peaceable, hospitable to strangers, and charitable to the poor. The lower class live in thatched huts, which they secure against the high winds, common to this place, by a contrivance made of ropes of straw; but the gentry reside in exceeding good houses, built of stone, and roofed with slate. Their method of improving their lands is by manuring them with sea-weed, lime, and marle, or sometimes by folding their sheep upon them, whereby they procure excellent crops of wheat, notwithstanding which the common bread of the country is made of oatmeal.

The curiosities of this island consist chiefly in Runic sepulchral inscriptions, written in the old Norwegian language; monuments of brass and large white stones; daggers and other instruments of brass, which have been found buried under ground, together with nails of pure gold.

At present its trade consists in black cattle, lamb's wool, fine and coarse linen cloth, hides, skins, honey, tallow, and herrings, of which the inhabitants formerly exported twenty thousand barrels annually to France and other foreign countries: and it is to be hoped that this fishery will now increase, the British parliament having lately given a very considerable sum of money for the encouragement of that useful undertaking.

The language used by the natives, is radically Erse, or Irish, with a mixture of Latin, Greek, Welsh, and English words. This composition is termed *Manks*: the New Testament and Common-Prayer have been

translated

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black cattle, lamb's hides, skins, honey, inhabitants formerly annually to France it is to be hoped that e British parliament rable sum of money of undertaking. es, is ratically Erse, Greek, Welsh, and n is termed Manks: on-Prayer have been ranslated

translated into this language. Strangers, being unacquainted with their laws and language, are forced to employ others to plead for them; and it is not long since they had any attorneys, consequently law-suits were determined without much charge.

The tenets of the church of England are professed by the inhabitants. Christianity was first planted here by St. Patrick about the year 440. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Germain, who was the first bishop of the Isle. There are 17 parish churches in the Isle of Man, and each of the market-towns has a chapel.

The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminence of other bishops, but does not sit in the British House of Peers; his see never having been created into an English barony: One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over that diocese upwards of 57 years, and died in the year 1755, aged 93. He was eminently distinguished for the piety and exemplariness of his life, his benevolence and hospitality, and his unremitting attention to the interests of the people intrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools for the instruction of the children of the inhabitants of the island, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Mank language, to render them more generally useful, and founded parochial libraries in every parish in his diocese. Some of his notions respecting government and church discipline were not of the most liberal kind, but his failings were so few, and his virtues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the Isle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man. The ecclesiastical courts are held by the bishop either in person, or by his vicars general; and the archdeacon in person, is his official. Ecclesiastical discipline is here maintained very strictly according to the canons; and the better to secure it, the bishop calls a convocation of his clergy, at least once a year, in order to inquire how the discipline of the church has been observed, and to make such constitutions as are necessary for its better government. In all the courts of this island, ecclesiastical and civil, both men and women, who are natives of the island, usually plead their own causes. There are no Papists natives of this island, nor Dissenters of any denomination, except Quakers. If the bishop's tenant is found guilty of a capital crime, for which he may be tried in the bishop's court, and by a jury of his tenants, he forfeits his lands to the bishop, but his person and moveables are at the king's disposal.

This island is under the immediate command of a governor, who resides at Castle-Town, and is appointed by his majesty. He has power over all officers, civil and military; and to him, as chancellor, there lies an

appeal in matters of right and wrong, and from him to the king in council.

The supreme court of the island, termed the Tingwald, is held on a hill near the centre of the island, in the open air, and consists of the governor, officers spiritual and temporal, the two deemsters, and twenty-four keys. The two deemsters are the temporal judges both in civil and criminal causes; and the twenty-four keys are persons so denominated from solving, or as it were unlocking, the difficulties of the laws. Their business is to make new laws, assist the deemsters in interpreting them, and to decide all difficult cases. In the tingwald every person has a right to present any uncommon grievance, and to have his complaints heard and redressed in the face of the whole country. All new laws, having first been agreed to by the governor, council, deemsters, twenty-four keys, and received the royal assent, are likewise published in this court.

The council of the Isle of Man consists of the governor, bishop, arch-deacon, the two vicars-general, the receiver-general, the comptroller, the bailiff, and the attorney-general.

This island is divided into six sheathings, each of which has its coroner, who, in the name of the sheriff, is intrusted with the peace of his district, by securing criminals, and bringing them to justice. A moor and a captain are likewise two officers belonging to every parish. The former of these, who are properly the king's bailiffs, are changed yearly, and obliged to be answerable for the rents in their respective divisions. The captains have the care of the militia or trained bands.

In this island, if a single woman prosecutes a single man for a rape, and he is found guilty, the deemster, or justice, delivers to the woman a rope, a sword, and a ring, which gives her the choice of having him hanged, beheaded, or, by marrying him, saving his life.

The principal towns are Castle-Town or Castle-Ruffin, Peele, Douglas, and Rainsea; all of which are situated on the sea-coast.

Castle-Town is the metropolis of the island, and derives its appellation from a beautiful old, but still entire castle, built of a coarse kind of marble. Here the governor and chief officers reside, the chancery is kept, and the assizes are held twice a year.

Peele was denominated Holm-Town by the Norwegians, from a small island adjacent to it, wherein stands the cathedral, at this time in ruins, except the chancel, which is kept in repair by the bishop. Thomas, earl of Derby, notwithstanding this isle was sufficiently strengthened by nature, surrounded it with a wall, towers, and other fortifications. Of late the town of Peele has been much enlarged, several excellent houses having been built by merchants settled there.

Douglas is the richest and most populous town in the whole island, has the best market, and enjoys the greatest trade. The harbour, which has a fine mole

extending into the sea, is esteemed one of the best in the three kingdoms. There is a free-school, and noble warehouses, vaults, and cellars belonging to the merchants.

Ramfea was formerly a very inconsiderable town, but its trade has increased considerably of late years. It is noted for a spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds, except the north-east, and the harbour is tolerable.

HISTORY OF THE ISLE OF MAN.

THE Isle of Man is a distinct territory from England, and is not governed by our laws; neither doth any act of parliament extend to it, unless it be particularly named therein, and then an act of parliament is binding there. Frequent mention is made in history of the kings of Man, but we can find no regular account of their succession. This island was formerly a subordinate feudatory kingdom, subject to the kings of Norway; then to king John and Henry III. of England; afterwards to the kings of Scotland, and then to the crown of England; and at length we find Henry IV. claiming the island by right of conquest; and disposing of it to the earl of Northumberland; upon whose attainder it was granted, by the name of the Lordship of Man, to Sir John de Stanley, by letters patent, 7th Henry IV. In his lineal descendants it continued for eight generations, till the death of Ferdinando, earl of Derby, A. D. 1594, when a controversy arose concerning the inheritance thereof, between his daughters and William his surviving brother; upon which, and a doubt that was started concerning the validity of the original patent, the island was seized into the hands of the queen (Elizabeth), and afterwards various grants were made of it by James I. all which being expired, or surrendered, it was granted afresh, in 7th James I. to William, earl of Derby, and the heirs male of his body, with remainder to his heirs general; which grant was the next year confirmed by act of parliament, with a restraint of the power of alienation by the said earl and his issue male. On the death of James, earl of Derby, A. D. 1735, the male line of earl William failing, the duke of Athol succeeded to the island, as heir general by a female branch.

In the mean time, though the title of king had been disused, the earls of Derby, as lords of Man, had maintained a sort of royal authority therein, by assenting to, or dissenting from laws, and exercising an appellate jurisdiction.

Yet, though no English writ or process from the court of Westminster was of any authority in Man, an appeal lay from a decree of a lord of the island to the king of Great-Britain in council: but the distinct jurisdiction of this little subordinate royalty being found inconvenient for the purposes of public justice,

and for the revenue (in affording a commodious asylum for debtors, outlaws, and smugglers) authority was given to the treasury, by stat. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. to purchase the interest of the then proprietors for the use of the crown; which purchase was at length completed in the year 1765, and confirmed by statutes 5 Geo. III. c. 26. and 30. whereby the whole island, and all its dependencies, so granted as aforesaid (except the landed property of the Athol family, their manorial rights and emoluments, and the patronage of the bishopric, and other ecclesiastical benefices), are unalienably vested in the crown, and subjected to the regulations of the British excise and customs.

CHAP. XIV.

THE ISLE OF WIGHT.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Chief Town, Ports, &c.

THIS delightful island is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and within the diocese of Winchester. It is situated over-against the coast of Hampshire, being separated from it by a channel, which varies in breadth from two to seven miles. Its greatest length, from east to west, is nearly twenty-three miles; and its breadth, from north to south, about thirteen. The purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of the island, have obtained it the appellation of the garden of England. In the southern parts, the air is in general particularly healthy; the soil is various; but so great is its fertility, that it was long ago computed that more wheat was produced here in one year, than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight; and under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, its present produce is supposed to have more than kept pace with the increase of population. Through the middle of the island, a range of hills extends from east to west, which affords fine pasture for sheep. Every part of the island affords a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral, but also in the great and romantic style; of these beauties, the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situation of their houses, as in their other improvements; some of their country-seats are very elegant; in short, the island itself is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes. Domestic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; and from this island the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother-Bank, and Cowes, commonly furnish themselves with those articles.

There are thirty parishes in the Isle of Wight.
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Most of the farm-houses are built of stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each a little garden belonging to it. According to a very accurate computation, made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to 18,024, exclusive of the troops quartered there.

Newport, which may be considered as the capital town, stands nearly in the centre of the island. The three principal streets extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean, and well paved. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes-Harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up the river, renders it commodious for trade.

There are several forts in this island, which were all erected about the thirty-sixth year of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouses were built in different parts of the coast of England. Carisbrooke-Castle has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner, from November 1647 to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it.

C H A P. XV.

THE islands of JERSEY, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, and SARK, in the British channel, are all subject to England, and within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's Bay, between Cape La Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany, Sark being four, Guernsey seven, and Alderney nine leagues from Jersey.

The island of JERSEY, which was known to the Romans, and by them called *Cæsarea*, is situated in 49 deg. 26 min. west lon. eighteen miles west of Normandy, and eighty-four miles south of Portland. It is about twelve miles in length, and eight in breadth. The rocks on the northern side form a natural and inaccessible fortification; but to the south the island is almost level with the water. The air is very salubrious; and the soil, particularly in the valleys, rich, fruitful, and well-cultivated; but there is no wood for firing. The higher land is generally appropriated for orchards, and great quantities of excellent cyder are made there. There are no animals in this island which are not found in England, but it is well stocked with black cattle and sheep. Fish and wild fowl of every kind abound there, and some of these are peculiar to the place. The Jersey honey is esteemed very delicious.

The whole island is divided into twelve parishes, and its capital town is St. Holier, which contains a number of exceeding good houses, and make an elegant appear-

ance. The people, who are about 20,000 in number, employ themselves in cultivating their orchards, and a manufacture of knit stockings and caps, wherein their commerce chiefly consists, though they carry on a considerable trade in fish to Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. Their language is French, but most of them intermix it with English words. The religion here, and likewise in the other three islands, is that of the church of England. The governor is appointed by the king, but the civil administration is vested in a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats.

The property of this island formerly belonged to the Carterets, who were originally Normans; and Jersey, being the chief remains of the duchy of Normandy, depending on the kings of England, still preserves the ancient feudal forms, particularly the assembly of states, which is, as it were, a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the reign of Edward the First.

GUERNSEY, which is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony, is thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west. It has an harbour, at St. Peter le Port, guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Castle, the other Castle-Cornet. The island is divided into ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers, four of the parishes being united; and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, having one apiece. Though this is a much more desirable spot, it is not so populous as Jersey, and consequently not so valuable, because less cultivated. It abounds, however, in cyder, and in most other respects resembles the island last described; but want of firing is the greatest inconveniency that both islands labour under. The number of inhabitants in this, and the islands of Alderney and Sark, are computed at 20,000; they speak the French language.

ALDERNEY is separated from Normandy, by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, from the prodigious velocity of the current; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island, which is about eight miles in compass, has nothing in it remarkable but a fine breed of cows, many of which have been brought into England, where they are known by the name of Norman cows. It has a healthy air, and fruitful soil.

SARK is a very small island depending upon Guernsey, from which it does not differ in any thing material; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy, from the products of nature, all the conveniences of life; their number is about 300.

THE ISLES OF SCILLY, anciently called the ST. LURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's-End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part. Some of these islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours. These rocks being situated between the English channel and St. George's

channel,

channel, many ships and lives have been destroyed by them.

C H A P. XVI.

THE NETHERLANDS.

Situation, Extent, Divisions, Rivers, Animals, Produce, Population, Trade, Language, Learning, Religion, &c.

THESE provinces, which are seventeen in number, obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais Bas, or Low Countries, from their situation in respect

of Germany. They were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium, or Burgundy, in the German empire. Their situation is between 2 and 7 deg. east long. and between 49 and 54 north lat. and extend, from north to south, 350 miles; the breadth, from east to west, is 300. Their boundaries are, the German sea, on the north; the British channel, on the west; Germany, on the east; and Lorraine in France, on the south.

The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight; viz. Holland, Overijssel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they are always considered as seven.

Geographical Division of the UNITED NETHERLANDS.

COUNTIES NAMES.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	CHIEF CITIES.
Overijssel.....	66	50	1,900	Deventer.
Holland.....	84	52	1,800	Amsterdam.
Guelderland.....	50	40	986	Nimeguen.
Friesland.....	44	34	810	Leuwarden.
Zutphen.....	37	33	644	Zutphen.
Groningen.....	45	37	540	Groningen.
Utrecht.....	41	22	450	Utrecht.
Zealand.....	29	24	303	Middleburg.
Texel and other islands.....			113	
Total.....			7,546	

The United Provinces are situated between 3 and 7 deg. east long. and 51 and 54 north lat. being 150 miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. They are bounded by the German sea, on the north and west; by Westphalia, on the east; and by Flanders, Brabant, and the duchy of Cleves on the south. Their subdivisions and chief towns are as follow:

1. HOLLAND.

SUBDIVISIONS.	CH. TOWNS.
	Amsterdam.
	Rotterdam.
	Delft.
	The Hague.
	Haerlem.
South Holland.....	Leyden.
	Dort.
	Williamstadt.
	Naerden.
	Goccum.
	Heusden.

SUBDIVISIONS.

North Holland.....

	Voorn.....	Briel.
	Illemond.....	Helvoetsluys.
	Goree.....	Goree.
	Overflake.....	Somerdyke.
	Texel.....	Burg.
	Vlie.....	Two villages only
	Schelling.....	Five villages.

2. ZEALAND.

Walcheren.....	Middleburg.
	Flushing.
	Tuaver.
	Rammekins.

SUBDIVISIONS;

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CH. TOWNS.

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 Edam.
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 Alkemaer.
 Monckdam.
 Puermereent.
 Briel.
 Helvoetsluys.
 Goree.
 Somerdyke.
 Burg.
 Two villages only
 Five villages.

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Middleburg.
 Flushing.
 Luveer.
 Rammekins.

SUBDIVISIONS.

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S U B D I V I S I O N S.

South Holland.....



SUBDIVISIONS.

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N. Beveland.....	
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3. FRIESLAND.

North East OF Holland. }	} Ostergoe.....	} Leuwarden. Dockurn. Franker.
Sevenwolden		

4. GRONINGEN.

North East OF Holland. }	} Groningen	} Groningen. Winschotten.

5. OVERYSSEL.

East of the Zuider Sea. }	} Ifeland.....	} Deventer. Zwall.
Invent		Otmarzen.

6. GUELDERLAND AND ZUTPHEN.

South-East of Holland and Utrecht.	} Velewe.....	} Arnhem. Loo Palace. Hardewick.		
			} Betew, olim Batavia	} Nimeguen. Skenkenschans. Bommel.
	} Guelder Quarter...	} Guelder, subject to Prussia. Venlo, subject to the Dutch.		

7. UTRECHT IN THE MIDDLE.

On the old Channel of the Rhine ..	Utrecht.
North of the Old Rhine	Amersfort.
South of the Old Rhine	Duerstardwyck.

The United Provinces, which are about ninety miles distant from the English coast, lie very low, having neither mountains, rising grounds, nor forests, to diversify the scene; and 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.

In the southern parts, the climate does not differ

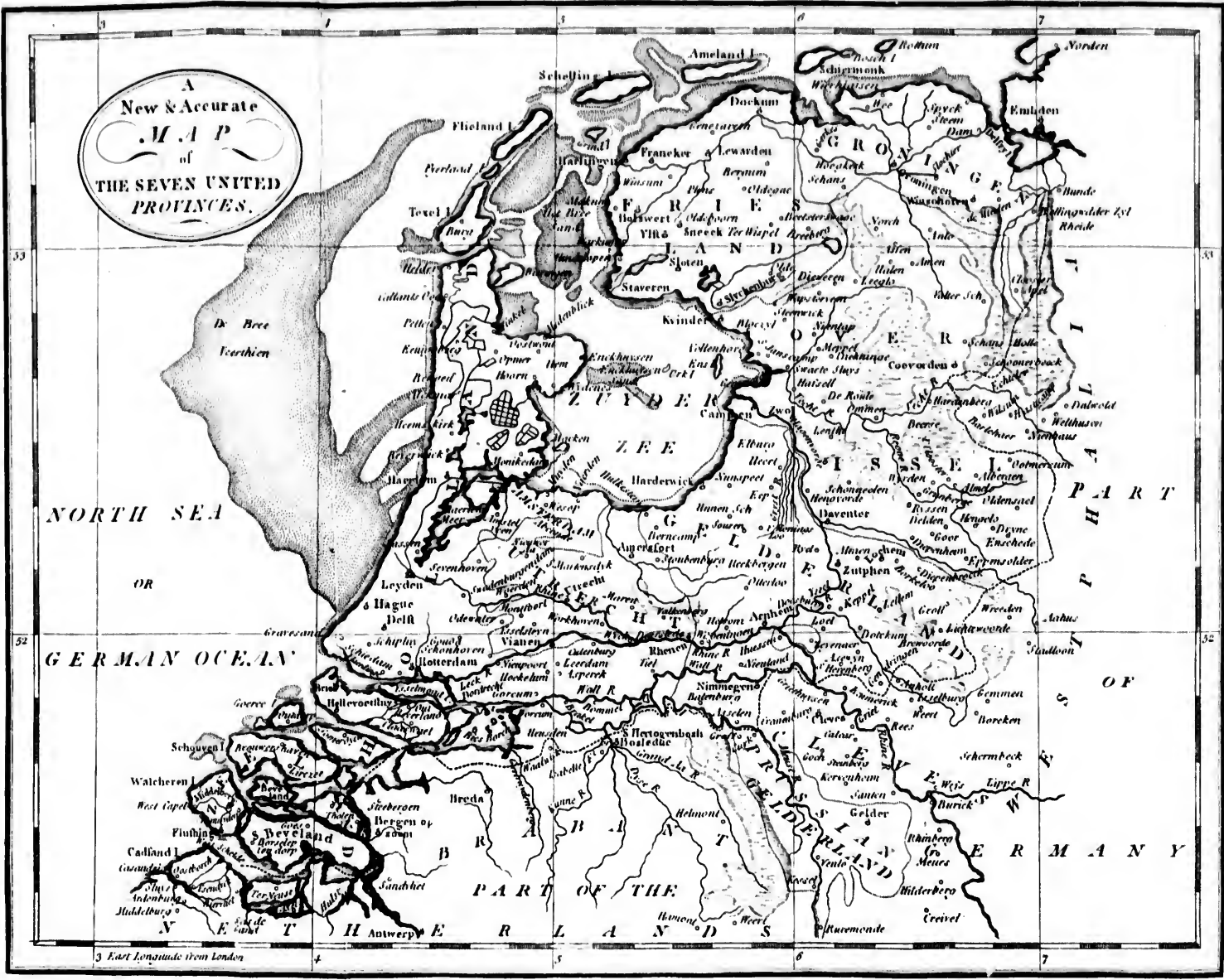
materially from that of England, but in the northern, the winter is generally very sharp, and the summer sultry hot; neither the excessive heat or cold, however, lasts above a month or six weeks. The air is foggy, moist, and would be very unwholesome, if not purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually blows for about four months, during which season their harbours are entirely frozen up. The soil is by nature unfavourable to vegetation, an obstacle which the industry of the inhabitants has in a great measure surmounted, in making canals, &c. to drain their lands; which, by this method, are rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage.

The principal rivers are, the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe; the Maese, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. The first, we shall describe in our account of Germany. The Maese, after dividing itself into two branches, and again uniting these, falls into the north sea, below Rotterdam. The Scheldt, below Antwerp, divides itself into two branches, called the Western and Eastern Scheldt, the first separating Flanders from Zealand, and the other running north by Bergen-op-Zoom; and afterwards, east, between the islands of Beveland and Schowen, falls into the sea a little below. The Vecht runs from east to west through the province of Overysse, and falls into the Zuider sea. There are many smaller rivers that join these, and a vast number of canals. There are few good harbours in the provinces. The best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing. The harbour of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass, without being lightened or unloaded. Haerlem, the only lake in this country, has a communication with Amsterdam and Leyden, by means of canals.

The animals are much the same as those in England. The inhabitants buy lean cattle in Denmark and the north of Germany, which they fatten to a prodigious bulk; and the horses are larger than those of any other nation. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and it is said that in some places they have wild boars and wolves. Storks build and hatch in their chimnies; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country, together with their young, about the middle of August, and do not return till February. The fish found in the seas and rivers there, are the same as ours, though larger; but they have no herrings on their coasts: there are many excellent oyster beds about the islands of the Texel.

Very little corn is produced in these provinces; but in some parts they grow madder, tobacco, and a little fruit. Vast quantities of the latter are sent yearly from England, together with all kinds of roots and garden-stuff, particularly cauliflowers. The provinces, however, in general, abound with rich pastures, fine groves of trees, vegetables, though not in such perfection as those of England, and exceeding fine flowers.

A
New & Accurate
MAP
of
THE SEVEN UNITED
PROVINCES.



3 East Longitude from London

According to the best calculation, the Seven United Provinces contain 113 cities and towns, 1,400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants, who are distinguished by the general appellation of the Dutch. They are usually tall and strong built; the women have good skins and tolerable features, but both sexes are very clumsy in their shapes, to which their dress contributes greatly, for the men wear coats without plaits, and their long pockets reach nearly to their arm-pits: the women have their petticoats, of which they wear a great number, no lower than the middle of their legs; their waists are excessively short, and on their heads they sometimes wear a plain round-ear cap, but frequently only a black ribband, tied in a particular manner: this, however, is not to be understood of the higher ranks of people, who imitate the French greatly in their method of dress and living. The manners of the people differ according to their situations in life. The gentry are polite and hospitable. The tradesmen are no otherwise honest than the law, or the discernment of the persons they deal with, obliges them to be so; for whenever they can evade the one, or impose upon the judgment of the other, they seldom fail to do it. The boors or husbandmen are exceedingly dull of understanding, impatient if treated harshly, but easily guided by gentle methods, and yielding to the conviction of plain reasoning, if they are allowed time to comprehend it. The seamen are a plain, rough, surly, ill-mannered people, seldom making use of more words than is necessary about their business. Every class, however, agrees in being exceedingly industrious and frugal, never spending the whole of their income, let it be ever so trifling. They are naturally phlegmatic, and seldom in a passion, except heated by liquor, or provoked by any one acting contrary to their interest, which is dearer to them than life; in every other respect, they are quiet neighbours, and peaceable subjects. Though a Dutchman, when drunk, is guilty of every act of brutality, and though they have been known to exercise the most shocking inhumanities abroad, from lucrative views, yet in their own country they are in general quiet and inoffensive. They are seldom seen to express any great emotions of joy or sorrow, and the passion of love is a thing talked of, but scarce ever felt by either sex; for they are so similar, that in displaying the dispositions of the men, those of the women are likewise delineated. The Dutch drink great quantities of spirituous liquors, wine, &c. and both men and women smoke tobacco. They are remarkable for cleanliness; and nothing can exceed the neatness of their houses, which is greatly owing to the necessity they are under of perpetually rubbing and scouring, from the moisture of the air, which causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country. The nobility, magistrates, and rich merchants, who have retired from trade, endeavour to rival each other in the beauty of their equipages, and the elegance of their houses and sur-

niture. Among the middling ranks of people, there is scarce any distinction between masters and servants, and it would be difficult for a stranger, at first sight, to know the one from the other.

No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants, whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency, and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a multitude of taxes and contributions, such as no other country experiences, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water that had overflowed a considerable part of it during many ages, while at the same time they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the incursions of an enemy. To this end, they have covered their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most impetuous inundations are admitted, so that they become in a few hours inaccessible. Their remarkable frugality and perseverance has also enabled them, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West-Indies, at the expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most formidable enemy. The rise of their military and marine establishments was also equally wonderful, since, in their celebrated contention with Louis XIV. and Charles II. of England, they maintained no less than 150,000 forces, and upwards of eighty ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality is not now so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly: the rich traders and mechanics begin to adopt English and French luxuries in dressing and living; their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their tables, buildings, furniture, and equipages; gaming is likewise practised among many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known here in former times.

The summer diversions of the Dutch differ little from those of the English; and in winter they shoot wild geese and ducks: they delight in skating, at which they are very expert; and it is amazing to see with what inconceivable velocity both men and women dart, or rather fly along upon the ice, having perhaps at the same time a load on their heads.

The usual way of passing from town to town in Holland is by covered boats, called treckscuits, which are dragged along the canals by horses on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they

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they are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling is exceedingly convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap, but at the same time extremely dull and disagreeable. The principal people travel on the ice in sledges, which a man, placed behind, pushes along with great swiftness. These sledges ply on the rivers and canals, in the same manner as our boats on the Thames.

The inland navigation of the United Netherlands is of the greatest advantage to their trade. Almost every town enjoys the benefit of a navigable canal, which is now become the principal method of communication between one town and another. Among the many benefits derived from these canals may be reckoned that of sending goods into various parts of Germany and the Austrian and French Netherlands, from the principal trading towns of Holland, at a very small expence: some of the canals communicate with the Rhine, others with the Maese, and others with the Ems. Hence a very extensive inland commerce is carried on throughout this country; and the goods imported from foreign states, by the great trading towns of Rotterdam, Amsterdam, &c. are dispersed into various parts in large quantities; so that these provinces may be considered as one large mart of trade. The canals are lined for several miles together with elegant neat country-houses, seated in the middle of gardens and pleasure-grounds intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge: genteel families, in fine weather, spend much of their time in these little temples, smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear to behave with complaisance and politeness. A treckscuit, in which goods are conveyed on these canals, is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, smoke, eat, drink, or converse with people of various nations, dresses, and languages.

As to commerce and manufactures, the United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe, and goods may be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their East-India-Company, which is the most opulent and powerful of any in the world, have had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than 100 years, and, till the late war with England, was extremely wealthy and powerful; but their commerce hath greatly suffered since that period. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is said to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Asia. Here the viceroys appear in greater splendor than the stadtholder; and some of the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother-country. Their India settlement on the Cape of Good Hope is extremely pleasant, healthful, and useful, being the grand rendezvous of the outward and homeward-bound ships of all nations.

The manufactures of Holland are as extensive as its commerce, and consist in fine linen, table damasks,

woollen-cloths, sail-cloth, paper, delft-ware, pots, tobacco-pipes, refined salt, sugar-works, oil-mills, cotton, silk, wax-bleaching, leather-dressing, hemp, and starch. Vast sums are amassed annually by their mills for sawing timber, used in building ships and houses; and great wealth is acquired by the herring, whale, and cod-fisheries, which they have wrested from the native proprietors, and in these the provinces of Holland and Zealand are chiefly concerned, and employ a vast number of ships; in the two first only, about 350 fail. The herrings cured there are preferable to those of any other nation; and, in a good season, the profits on this branch of trade only are said to amount to 2,000,000 of Holland guilders yearly, clear of all deductions. It is, however, thought that the riches and luxury of individuals have damped the general industry of the inhabitants, and that the Dutch commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fisheries, are not in the same flourishing state as they were in the beginning of this century.

The principal trading company in Holland is that to the East-Indies, incorporated in 1602. About the year 1660 the Dutch divided 40 per cent, and afterwards 60; the dividends are at present much reduced; but, in 124 years, the proprietors, on an average, divided yearly above 24 per cent. and, so late as in 1760, they divided 15 per cent. The Dutch West-India-Company was incorporated in 1621, and, in the year 1760, divided only two and a half per cent. The bank of Amsterdam is immensely rich, and under an excellent direction. According to Mr. Anderson, the cash bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, amount to thirty-six millions sterling, though others say only thirty millions: this treasure is kept in the vaults of the stadthoufe.

The constitution of the United Provinces is a very intricate article. They all, indeed, form a general confederacy; and the statutes made in the assembly of the states, after they have acquired the necessary sanctions, become binding on all the inhabitants of the United Provinces. But, notwithstanding this particular, each province has a separate internal government, wholly independent of the others; but as these independent governments, considered separately, could not defend themselves against the attempts of a foreign enemy, they are formed into one collective body, by a certain number of deputies, or representatives, chosen by each, who constitute the legislative power, and are termed the States-General. Their power is, however, in some respects, limited; for, when a resolution is taken by the States, it has not the force of a law till it has received the approbation of every province, every city, and every republic in that province; nor are even a majority of voices in these different and subordinate assemblies sufficient, it must be unanimously approved, one dissenting voice being sufficient to render the whole abortive. But these tedious formalities are usually laid aside in times of imminent danger, when the approbation of the States-General is allowed to be sufficient.

Next in authority to the States-General is the Council of

of State, which consists of deputies from the several provinces. It is composed of twelve persons, of whom Holland sends three, Guelderland one, Zealand two, Utrecht one, Friesland two, Overyffel one, and Groningen two. In this council they do not vote by provinces, as in the States-General, but by personal voices, and every deputy presides in his turn. When the votes happen to be equal, the stadtholder has a decisive voice. The business of this council consists in preparing estimates, finding out ways and means for raising the public revenues, and other matters necessary to be laid before the States-General.

Subordinate to these two bodies is the chamber of accounts, which is likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a separate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Amsterdam, which takes the lead in all public administrations, the magistracy is lodged in thirty-six senators, who are chosen for life; and every vacancy among them is filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elects the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland, in which the people neither choose their representatives nor their magistrates. Hence this country, in its government, may more properly be styled an oligarchy than a republic.

The power of the stadtholder is very limited, except when he appears at the head of an army. He is indeed president of the states of every province, and can, by his influence, procure such deputies to be sent to the assembly of the States-General as are friends to his interest, and may change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. To his office are annexed certain prerogatives, which vary in different provinces; but they may all be changed by the authority of the States-General. The appointment of the stadtholder from the States is 100,000 guilders, or 9,500l. sterling, besides which he has several principalities and large estates of his own.

The States of the provinces are styled Noble and Mighty Lords, but those of Holland Noble and Most Mighty Lords; and the States-General, High and Mighty Lords, or, the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, or, their High Mightinesses.

Justice is said to be no-where dispensed with more impartiality than in this country. Every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeals lie from all the petty and country courts. The stadtholder has the power of pardoning condemned malefactors.

Christianity was first introduced into the Netherlands in the eighth century by St. Winifred. After that period, Popery continued to be preferred till the Reformation, when many of the people embraced Protestantism; which giving umbrage to the king of Spain, he issued orders to punish with death all those whom the church of Rome declared heretics. This occasioned

the total alienation of the seven Dutch provinces, the established religion of which, at this time, is the Presbyterian or Calvinism; but all persuasions and sects are tolerated; and the inhabitants of Holland live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are associated together by the common ties of humanity and the 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. The Papists and Jews are very numerous: none but Presbyterians are admitted into any office or post in the government, except the army.

Low Dutch is the language of these provinces: it is compounded of the Teutonic, or ancient German, with several French and Latin words. We shall transcribe their Lord's prayer, as a specimen: "Onse Vader, die in de hemelin zyn uwen naam worde geheylight; uw'konin-gryk 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 onso schuldenaaren: ende en laat ons niet in ver-soer kingemaer verstoof on van der hoosen. Amen." The sound of this language, to those who are ignorant of it, is harsh and unpleasing; but this is greatly softened by the accent and pronunciation of the more learned and polite. The higher ranks of people commonly speak English and French.

Many of the Dutch have distinguished themselves by their learning, and some even by their wit and ingenuity. They are famous for controversial divinity, which at one time insinuated itself so much into the state, that it had nearly proved fatal to the government. They boast of excellent writers in all branches of medicine, and numerous commentators upon the classics. Their Latin poems and epigrams are very common, and, about the year 1747, Van Haaren published some poems in favour of liberty. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments in the church, universities, or state. The city of Haarlem dispenses the invention of printing with the Germans; and the magistrates keep in their town-house the first book printed by Colter, about the year 1440. Be that as it may, it is certain that the most elegant editions of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns.

Among the principal of the Dutch writers, are, Erasmus, Grotius, Boerhaave, Grævius, Burmann, and Van Haaren.

There are five universities in the United Netherlands, viz. Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Francker. Leyden is the oldest and largest in these provinces, and was founded in 1575. It enjoys many privileges, has a library well furnished, particularly with manuscripts; a physic-garden stocked with all kinds of plants, many of which have been brought from the Cape of Good Hope and the East-Indies; an anatomy-

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hall, and an observatory. The professors, who are usually men of eminence, read public lectures four times a week, gratis; but every person who attends a course of private lectures, which lasts a whole year, pays about three guineas: the lectures are always in Latin. The professors wear gowns only when they preside at public disputations, read public lectures, or meet in the senate: their salaries are from one to two hundred pounds per annum. The students do not lodge in the university, but where they please in the town: they have no distinct habit, and all wear swords. The university of Utrecht was founded in 1636, and is in a very flourishing state, though it does not enjoy the privileges of most other universities, being entirely subordinate to the magistrates of the city. The number of students are computed at 2000. The university of Groningen was founded in 1615, and well endowed out of the revenues of the suppressed monasteries. The university of Harderwicke was only a *Schola illustris* till 1648, when it acquired its present title. The university at Francker was founded in the year 1585, and has a fine physic-garden. The students of all these colleges enjoy the privilege of not paying any tax for their wine and beer.

No oaths or religious tests are imposed in these universities; so that Roman Catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here with as little scruple as Protestants. These seminaries of learning have each three or four divinity professors, as many of physic, and two or three of law; besides others of history, language, and eloquence, or the belles lettres; and others of philosophy, mathematics, the Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Hebrew and Oriental languages. The professors in the universities of Holland frequently become men of great learning and eminence; and, indeed, there is a laudable emulation between the states of the different provinces, which shall have the greatest men to adorn their universities, and this induces them to attract numbers of students from all parts of Europe to enrich their towns, and very liberal encouragement is given to able professors.

The external appearance of these universities is rather mean, and the buildings old; but these defects are amply compensated by the variety of solid and useful learning taught in them. There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries of literature; and, as every one may live as he pleases, without being obliged to be profuse in his expences, or so much as quitting his night-gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here.

The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these seats of learning; for frugality in expence, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in every thing, being the characteristics of the natives, strangers who continue among them soon adopt their manners and method of living. And, though the students are under no restraint, but live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are

in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the diligence and success with which they apply themselves to their respective studies.

Amsterdam is the capital city of all the United Netherlands. It is built upon piles, and, next to London, is esteemed the most commercial city in the world. Among the public edifices, those most worthy notice are the stadhous, the exchange, the arsenal, the inn called the Three Waggon, the gymnasium illustre, the East and West-India houses, the Lombard and loan-bank, the theatre, the physic-garden, the chyrurgical and anatomical college, the naval storehouses, the docks, sluices, churches, hospitals, houses of correction, harbour, towers, warehouses, and weighing-houses. The beauty of the canals, and walks under them planted on their borders, in this and all the other cities in Holland, are admirable; and the neatness every-where observed within doors is particularly pleasing. This city, however, labours under two very great disadvantages, namely, the want of good air and water; notwithstanding which, it is greatly resorted to by strangers. The number of inhabitants is computed at 240,000, of which a great part are Papists and Jews.

Rotterdam is twenty-eight miles from Amsterdam, and next to it in commerce and wealth. Its streets are spacious and handsome. The principal public buildings are, the exchange, the East and West-India houses, the bank, the arsenal, and St. Laurence's church, near which stands a small house, where the famous Erasmus was born: its inhabitants are calculated at 56,000.

Leyden is a large and fine city, and celebrated for its university: here are also some fine churches, and several long, broad, and elegant streets. This city maintained a long and severe siege against the Spaniards in 1573.

Utrecht, nineteen miles from Amsterdam, and twenty-seven from Leyden, is a large populous city. The churches are magnificent; the other public buildings are the university and the town-house. The streams which run through several of the streets contribute greatly to the cleanliness and beauty of this town.

The Hague, though but a village, is one of the most considerable places in Holland, and is said to contain about 40,000 inhabitants: it is exceedingly beautiful, and situated upon the highest ground in the whole country, so that the air is more salutary than that of the other cities. It has neither gates nor walls, but is surrounded by a moat, over which there are a number of draw-bridges; and, being the residence of the stadtholder, it is likewise that of foreign ministers, and the resort of all persons of distinction who visit Holland. The streets and squares are spacious, particularly de Plaats, which is an open, airy place, in form of a triangle, and adorned with elegant buildings. An eminence, called the Vyverberg, is laid out into several fine shady walks, and, at the bottom, is the Vyver, a large basin of water. But the most celebrated part of the Hague is the Voorhout, which consists of a mall, and three spaces on each side for coaches, the whole

being in much the same taste as St. James's-Park. Here people of distinction take the air in their coaches.

Middleburg, the capital of Zealand, is fifty miles distant from Rotterdam. The public buildings are magnificent, and the streets broad and well-paved. The gates are eight in number, the harbour and city are strongly fortified: the latter contains thirty-three parishes, about 4000 houses, and near 26,000 inhabitants.

Leuwarden, the capital of Friesland, stands sixty miles north-east of Amsterdam. It is a large, well-built, and populous town: the streets are clean, the houses splendid, the bridges well paved, and the gardens pleasant: the churches, governor's palace, and the senate-house, are fine structures. This city and Francker choose their own magistrates.

Groningen, twenty-seven miles from Leuwarden, and eighty from Amsterdam, is the capital of the province of the same name. The town is large and populous, being the seat of the high colleges, containing twenty-seven streets: here are many fine houses, besides churches, three spacious market-places, and several public structures. Ships of considerable burden can come up to this city, by which means it enjoys a pretty good trade.

Deventer, in the province of Overijssel, stands forty-four miles from Utrecht: it is a neat, populous, well-built, and strongly-fortified city, containing several churches belonging to different sects. Five annual fairs are held here. Along the river side is a fine quay, adorned with rows of trees.

Nimeguen, in the province of Guelderland, is fifty-two miles distant from Amsterdam. It is a large ancient city, strongly fortified, and pleasantly situated. On the east side of it stands an old castle, and it also contains several churches belonging to different sects. The peace between the French and confederates was concluded here in 1678.

Amersfoort, in the province of Utrecht, seventeen miles distant from the city of that name, is an ancient and large town, but of no great strength, being commanded by a neighbouring hill. The buildings are in general very neat. They have three churches here, one of which is a large and stately fabric. They have likewise a public school, where several eminent persons have had their education.

There are but few natural and artificial curiosities in these provinces. In Overijssel, there are stones, the enormous size of which cause an equal astonishment in the spectator with those of Stonelenge upon Salisbury-Plain; and near Maestricht, under a hill, there is a stone quarry, which is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. In Friesland, they have a species of bituminous earth, that takes fire in a surprising manner; and, in the sixteenth century, according to some historians, burnt the length of two leagues before it could be extinguished. Among the chief artificial curiosities may be placed the prodigious dykes, seventeen elis thick, with the mounds and

canals, made to protect them from those dreadful inundations from which they suffered greatly in the last century: these stupendous works excite the admiration of every beholder. Several museums, containing valuable antiquities and curiosities, are to be found in this country, particularly in the university of Leyden, where is to be seen a shirt made of the entrails of a man; also two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity, with all the muscles and tendons of the human body, curiously set up. In the city of Nimeguen are many Roman antiquities; and, in the church at Gouda, there are some exquisite paintings upon glass. At Saardam (famous for being the place where Peter the Great served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured at that trade) the town-house is adorned with paintings; and there is a remarkable clock and dial, which cost 150,000 guilders.

The taxes in these provinces are so many, and so heavy, especially in Holland, that it is not without reason that a certain author asserts, that the only thing that has escaped taxation there is the air they breathe. The taxes consists of an almost general excise, a land-tax, a poll-tax, and hearth-money, so that the ordinary revenues of the republic are computed at between two and three millions sterling annually. Out of 100 guilders, the province of Holland contributes 58, and, consequently, above one-half of the whole public expences. For the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are said to be exceeding low. Notwithstanding the number and greatness of the taxes, every province is said to labour under very heavy debts, especially Holland, and the public credit is not in the most flourishing condition.

With respect to their land-forces in time of peace, they seldom exceed 40,000, and very often fall short of that number. They employ a great many foreigners, especially Swifs and Scots, in their service; and, in time of war, hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder, under whom is the field-marshal-general. In 1756, the expences of the army only amounted to 9,765,004 guilders. No nation in the world can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vast quantities of timber prepared for building of ships, and such numbers of ship-carpenters and mariners: however, in time of peace, they usually have no more than thirty in commission, for the protection of their trade in the Mediterranean, and to convoy their homeward-bound Indiamen, &c. By the last accounts, their navy consists of one ship of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of fifty, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36 (forty-nine in all) besides vessels of inferior force: they have also many ships upon the stocks.

Every province being a sovereignty in itself, has consequently the right of coinage; but all the money must be of the same intrinsic value. The coins are as follow: a deut, worth about half a farthing; a grot

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Flemish, two farthings; a siver, equal to a penny
 English; a dubbelchin, to two-pence; a schilling, to
 six-pence; but there are also schillings worth only five-
 pence halfpenny; a guilder, twenty-pence; a thaler,
 or dollar, thirty-pence; a lowen-thaler, or lion-dollar,
 forty-two pence; a rix-thaler, or rix-dollar, fifty-pence;
 a ducatoon, sixty-three pence. The gold ducat is
 worth about eight shillings and eight-pence; and the
 ruyder is almost equal to a guinea. Besides these, there
 are half and three guilder pieces, and half and quarter
 six-dollars.

One of the most ancient as well as powerful orders of
 Europe was that of the Teutonic knights, which is
 now divided into two branches; the first for Papiists,
 and the other for Protestants. This branch have a house
 at Utrecht, where they transact their business. The
 ensign is a cross pattie, enamelled white, surmounted
 with another, black; above the cross is a ball twisted,
 white and black. It is worn pendant to a broad black
 watered ribband, which is worn about the neck. The
 same cross is embroidered on the left breast of the upper
 garment of each knight. The nobles of Holland, if
 they propose a son to be a knight, enter his name in the
 register, and pay a large sum of money to the use of the
 poor maintained by the order, and the candidate suc-
 ceeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his
 nobility for four generations on the father's and mo-
 ther's side.

With respect to the arms or ensigns armorial of the
 Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, they
 are, Or, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlass,
 and with the other a bundle of seven arrows close bound
 together, in allusion to the several confederate provinces,
 with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ crescunt*,
 i. e. "Small things increase by concord."

A SUCCINCT ACCOUNT OF THE PREROGA-
 TIVES OF THE STADTHOLDER.

THE ancient house of Nassau is divided into many
 branches, deriving their respective titles from the eleven
 counties of the principality of Nassau, in the Imperial
 Circle of the Upper Rhine. These are Dillenburg,
 Dietz, Hadamar, Kerberg, Siegen, Idstein, Weilburgh,
 Wilbaden, Biellsteid, Otweiler, and Ullingen; Nassau
 being prefixed to each. Nassau was erected into a prin-
 cipality, in 1653, by the emperor Ferdinand II. This
 family has not only given a king to Great-Britain, in
 the person of the immortal William III. but also an
 emperor to Germany, in Adolphus, count of Nassau,
 in 1292. From Otho, count of Nassau, general of the
 Imperial army, in 926, to John III. in 1494, are four-
 teen descents; in which time, the counts of Nassau, by
 their matrimonial alliances, acquired large possessions in
 the Netherlands, Burgundy, &c. This John III. count
 of Nassau-Dillenburg, left two sons, Henry and Wil-

liam, between whom his territories were divided.
 Henry, in 1515, married Claude de Chalons, only sister
 of Philibert de Chalons, prince of Orange, who was
 killed in 1530, at the battle of Pistoje, in Tuscany;
 and, leaving no issue, bequeathed his principality of
 Orange to his sister's only son René, or Renatus;
 who dying also without heirs, in 1544, left it to
 his cousin William, the son of William before men-
 tioned.

WILLIAM I. first Stadtholder, in 1579.

William I. count of Nassau-Dillenburg, and, by
 his cousin René's will, prince of Orange, the illustrious
 founder of the Dutch republic, was born in 1533. In
 the general revolt of the Netherlands against the tyranny
 of Philip II. of Spain, he was the soul of that memo-
 rable contest; in which he was greatly assisted by his
 brothers Ludovic, Adolphus, Henry (all three slain in
 battle, without heirs) and especially by John, his second
 brother, to whom he gave part of his German domi-
 nion with the title of Count of Nassau-Dietz, and
 from whom the present prince of Orange is descended
 in a direct line. The third son of John was Ernest
 Casimir, born 1573; father of William-Frederic, born
 1613; father of Henry-Casimir, born 1657; father of
 John-William-Frizzo, born 1687, whom king William
 III. appointed heir to the house of Orange; father of
 William IV. born 1711; father of William V. born
 1748.

On the 20th of January 1579, by his powerful in-
 fluence, the memorable confederacy was formed at
 Utrecht, which laid the foundation of the republic of
 the United Provinces. This confederacy was composed
 at first of the states of Holland, Zealand, Gueldres,
 Friesland, and Utrecht only; but the provinces of
 Overyssel and Groningen acceded to it in the sequel.
 The situation of these provinces was then so critical,
 that they were represented under the figure of a ship
 without sails and rudder, with this inscription—*Incer-
 tum quo fata ferant*. But from amidst these storms a
 powerful republic was soon to emerge. The confede-
 rates agreed upon the same form of government that
 subsists at present. It was the union of several distinct
 powers, leagued together for their common safety,
 without detriment to the particular rights and sovereignty
 of either. Each province, without ceasing to be an
 independent republic, composed with the six others one
 same republic, with but one and the same interest.
 The States-General, consisting of deputies from every
 part of the confederacy, represent the Majesty of the
 State; but they are neither the lords nor the arbiters of
 it. They can agree upon nothing without the consent
 of the states of the provinces, who have no right to give
 it, till they shall have previously obtained the consent
 of the towns. Thus the splendor of the sovereignty is
 vested in the States-General, and the real and legislative
 authority in the towns only. It is true, that each pro-
 vince is wisely divested of the right of making war and
 peace,

peace, and of concluding separate alliances; but it was a political error to grant a negative voice to each town. If two thirds had been allowed to conclude for the whole body, there would have been more safety and energy in the government. Each province sends as many deputies to the States-General as it thinks proper; but this circumstance is not productive of inconvenience, as their deliberations are regulated, not by the votes of the deputation, but of the provinces. The duration of the deputies is not uniform: some deputies are chosen only for a year; others for a longer time; and some for life. Neither the governor, the captain-general, nor any military officer, have the privilege of sitting in the States-General. Each province presides a week by turn, being represented by its senior deputy. It was thought necessary to conclude these arrangements, by personally interesting the prince of Orange in the preservation of the edifice which he himself had constructed; and he was, therefore, unanimously elected stadtholder.

The dignity of stadtholder is not different from that of governor: the two names are synonymous. William had been stadtholder of Holland and Zealand under Charles V. and Philip II. He continued so, without opposition, from the commencement of the revolt; and the union of Utrecht invested him with the same dignity in the other provinces.

Besides the stadtholdership, William obtained the dignities of captain and admiral-general, which gave him the command in chief of the fleets and armies of the republic, with the disposal of all employments depending on them. All the naval and military officers were obliged to take an oath of allegiance to him, after having taken the same to the states of the province, and to the council of state. This council is composed of twelve deputies from the provinces; viz. one from Gueldres, three from Holland, two from Zealand, one from Utrecht, two from Friesland, one from Overijssel, and two from Groningen. Before the assemblies of the States-General were made residuary at the Hague, this council represented their authority in their absence, and was bound to convene them twice a year; but its functions are now confined to the regulation of military affairs, and the administration of the finances. Their decisions are made by a plurality of persons, not of provinces.

Nothing in the army could make William sensible of his dependence on the republic, but the presence of some deputies that accompanied him, and without whose advice he could undertake nothing of importance. The great offices of stadtholder, captain, and admiral general, have since become, as it were, inseparable.

The prince did not long enjoy this elevation; he was assassinated at Delft, in the fifty-first year of his age.

By his first wife, Anne of Egmont, countess of Buren (the oldest son of the prince of Orange being always count of Buren) he had one daughter, and a son named Philip-William, who being seized at the university of Louvain by the duke of Alva, was carried to Spain, where he was confined thirty years, before he was suf-

fered to return to the Netherlands: he died without issue in 1618. By his second wife, Anne, daughter of Maurice, elector of Saxony, he had a daughter, and one son, named Maurice. By his third wife, Charlotte of Bourbon, who had been a nun, he had six daughters. And by his last wife, Louisa de Coligni, he had Frederic-Henry.

MAURICE, second Stadtholder, in 1583.

Maurice, the second son of William, succeeded to the stadtholdership on the death of his father; to the dignity of captain and admiral-general, on the departure of the haughty and perfidious Leiceller; and to the principality of Orange, on the decease of his brother, prince Philip-William. He entered upon action when he was only seventeen years old.

"The life of this stadtholder," says a celebrated French writer, who was the idolator of his own kings, and a bitter enemy to the House of Orange, "was an almost uninterrupted series of combats, of sieges, and of victories. His camp became the universal military school of Europe; his pupils have supported, and even enhanced his reputation. Like Montecuculi, he possessed the art for little known of marches and encampments; like Vauban, the talent of rendering fortified places impregnable; like Eugene, the method of subsisting numerous armies in the most barren and desolated countries; like Vendôme, the good fortune to obtain from the soldiers more than he had a right to expect; like Condé, that instantaneous and unerring eye which decides the fate of battles; like Charles XII. the means of rendering his troops almost insensible to hunger, to cold, to fatigue; like Turenne, the secret, which now seems to be lost, of husbanding the lives of men. In the opinion of the chevalier Folard, Maurice was the greatest officer of infantry since the time of the Romans."

This is the eulogy of an enemy; but the glory of Maurice was sullied by his ambition. He aimed at an authority incompatible with the constitution of the republic. Being opposed in his views by the grand pensionary * Barneveldt, that virtuous citizen fell a victim to his resentment in 1619. Maurice died in 1625, at the age of fifty-eight, and was succeeded by his brother,

FREDERIC-HENRY, third Stadtholder, in 1625.

The great military talents of this prince rendered him worthy to be the successor of his illustrious brother.

* The great pensionary is the first minister of the states of the province of Holland; acting both as a speaker of the assembly, and a secretary of state. He likewise assists in the council of state, and is perpetual deputy of his province to the States-General. He is called pensionary (as are also the first ministers of the regency of each city, in the province of Holland) from receiving an appointment or pension.

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Maurice had compelled the Spaniards to consent to a
treaty of twelve years, that expired in 1621; under the
auspices of Frederic, they were happy to solicit as a fa-
vour, that they might be permitted to acknowledge the
independence of the republic. He died in 1647, aged
sixty-three years, leaving four daughters, and one son,
William, who succeeded him in all his dignities, of
which the five provinces had given him the survivorship
during the life-time of Frederic-Henry, in order to
acknowledge, in the person of the son, the great obli-
gations they were under to the father. It may be pro-
per to observe here, that, on the death of William I.
Maurice was declared stadtholder of five provinces only;
the other two, Friesland and Groningen, having elected
his cousin William-Lewis of Nassau-Dietz: but the
stadtholder of the five provinces was captain and admiral-
general of the whole.

WILLIAM II. fourth Stadtholder, in 1647.

This prince was only twenty-one when his father
died. "He united in his person," says the writer be-
fore quoted, "whatever was requisite to perpetuate the
glory of his house; regular, pleasing, and majestic fea-
tures; vigorous, active, and indefatigable; his access
easy; his manners captivating and popular; conversant
in the languages, as well as in history, poetry, and the
mathematics; with an experience, which his genius
and reflections had rendered more extensive than his
years. But his understanding was somewhat deficient
in justness, his heart in moderation, and his politics in
prudence. His ambition too was without restraint, his
valour without prudence, and his soul without fortitude."

The conduct of this prince was such as might be ex-
pected from such a character. Being disgusted at a re-
solution which the province of Holland had taken, to
dismiss great part of the army, he suffered himself to be
swayed by violent counsels; and, under colour of a
power from the States-General to preserve the union,
and oppose whatever might disturb it, he not only im-
prisoned six lords of the states in the castle of Louves-
tein, but rashly marched an army against Amsterdam,
in order to seize and change the magistrates of that city.
This design being discovered by the Hamburgh post, who
happened to ride through the camp in the night-time,
unperceived, it was happily frustrated: but it cost him
the affections of the republic; and his mortification was
so great, that he retired to his seat near the Hague,
where, being seized by a fever, which was followed by
the small-pox, he died in the 25th year of his age. His
royal consort, the princess Mary, eldest daughter of king
Charles I. was so shocked at this event, that, eight days
after, she was delivered of a son, when she was but
seven months advanced in her pregnancy. This son was

WILLIAM III. fifth Stadtholder in 1672, and King of
Great-Britain in 1688.

William III. was born on the 4th of November 1650,
The inconsiderate conduct of the father was very detri-
mental to the interests of the son. By the influence of

the famous grand pensionary De Wit, who was the soul
of the republican party, the states published, in 1667,
the perpetual edict, by which the young prince and his
descendants were excluded for ever from the office of
stadtholder, which was declared to be abolished. But,
in 1672, when Louis XIV. invaded the United Pro-
vinces, the most violent commotions of the populace
compelled the states to repeal the perpetual edict, to
invest the prince of Orange with the offices of stadtholder,
and captain and admiral-general, and to declare
those dignities hereditary in his family. His adminis-
tration was so wise and just, that he acquired more ex-
tensive authority than any of his ancestors had exercised;
and it has been remarked of him, that he was only
stadtholder in England, but king in Holland.

William died in 1702, without issue, and appointed
John-William Frizo, prince of Nassau-Dietz, his sole
heir. This young prince, who was born in 1687, was
descended, as before observed, in a direct line, from
John, count of Nassau-Dietz, brother of William I.
He took the title of prince of Orange; but that title,
and the whole succession, were disputed by the king of
Prussia, who founded his claim as descended from
Louisa-Henrietta, daughter of Frederic-Henry, the se-
cond stadtholder, who had married Frederic-William,
elector of Brandenburg. In order to settle this dis-
pute (afterwards settled in 1733 by an equal partition)
the prince was repairing to the Hague to meet the king
of Prussia there, when he was unfortunately drowned,
in crossing an arm of the sea at Mardyke, on the 14th
of July 1711. The writer of this article crossing the
same passage near seventy years after (1778) was men-
tioning the circumstance to a friend, when an old, ve-
nerable, weather-beaten Hollander, at the helm, ob-
served, that he remembered it well; that he was a lad
on board the ferry-boat, when this misfortune hap-
pened; that the prince, being in his chariot on account
of the rain, the tempest grew so violent, that, attempt-
ing precipitately to leave the chariot, he stepped with
one foot on the deck, and fell head-foremost into the
water. Three months after his death his consort was
delivered of a son,

WILLIAM IV. sixth Stadtholder, in 1747.

On the death of William III. the office of stadtholder
was again laid aside; and the republican party
carried their animosity against the house of Orange to
such an extreme, that they not only refused the young
prince his rank in the army, but unjustly deprived him
of his patrimonial possessions, the marquises of Flush-
ing and Terveere. However, in 1722, the province of
Gueldres elected him their stadtholder, notwithstanding
the remonstrances of the other provinces; and in 1747,
when the French no longer respected the territories of
the republic (the ally of Great-Britain, but neutral as a
principal) the same popular commotions as had hap-
pened in 1672, compelled the states of all the provinces
not only to invest him with the offices of stadtholder and

captain and admiral general, but to declare those dignities hereditary in his family, and even in the female and collateral branches.

On the 12th of June 1733, his serene highness was elected a knight of the garter, and was installed at Windsor, by proxy, on the 27th of August. On the 7th of November, he arrived at Greenwich in the *Fubbs yacht*, and was received with every demonstration of joy. Being seized soon after with an indisposition, he spent some time at Bath, for the recovery of his health; and, on visiting Oxford, that university conferred on him the degree of doctor of laws. On the 14th of March 1734, he was married to Anne, princess-royal of England; a bill for naturalizing him received the royal assent on the 21st of March; and, on the 22d of April, the illustrious pair embarked for Holland. The dowry of her royal highness was 80,000*l.* with an annuity of 5000*l.* for her life.

This excellent prince died of a quinsy, on the 11th of October 1751; leaving issue the princess Caroline, born February 28, 1743, and the count of Buren, born March 8, 1748. By the present constitution of the republic, the princess-dowager had the administration of affairs as *gouvernante*; during the minority of her son; and all the powers that her husband enjoyed devolved upon her, during that period.

WILLIAM V. the seventh Stadtholder, and Chief Governor in 1793.

The princess *gouvernante* after an administration of great wisdom and ability, died on the 12th of January 1759. Just before her royal highness expired, she gave a key to one of her court, desiring him to bring her a paper, which he would find in a place she named; which being brought accordingly, she signed it. This was her daughter's contract of marriage with the prince of Nassau-Weilburgh. She afterwards caused another paper to be brought to her, which she also signed; desiring that it might be delivered, according to its address, as soon as she should leave the world. This second paper was a letter to the States-General, in which she entreated all the confederates to consent to the marriage of her daughter, and not to make any change in the regulations she had made with respect to the tutelage of the young prince, and his education. These two papers being signed and sealed, she sent for her children, exhorting them to make a proper improvement of the education she had given them, and to live in good harmony; then embracing them with the utmost tenderness, she gave them her blessing. After this, she conversed with the greatest calmness with her principal courtiers, for a few hours, and then expired, in the 50th year of her age.

By her will, the king her father, and the princess-dowager of Orange, her mother-in-law, were appointed honorary tutor and tutors to her children; and prince Lewis, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele, field-marshal of the forces of the republic, acting tutor.

The morning after her royal highness's decease, the States-General and the states of Holland held an extraordinary assembly, in which they confirmed the regulations she had made. The prince of Brunswick was invited to assist in the assembly of the states of Holland, where he was received with all the respect possible, and took the oaths as representing the captain-general of the union. He was likewise invited to the assembly of the States-General, where a resolution was prepared by their high-mightinesses, whereby they agreed to the resolution of Holland. Every thing passed to the entire satisfaction of the people.

On the 8th of March 1766, his serene highness was declared of age. It was universally allowed, that the duke of Brunswick had fulfilled the duties of guardian with exemplary fidelity and care. The young prince endeavoured to evince his gratitude to the duke by the most expressive actions; nor were the States-General less mindful of his services; for the same day, they sent a solemn deputation to thank him. They did more; they charged their ambassador at Vienna, not only to thank their Imperial majesties, for permitting the duke to remain in the United Provinces, but to entreat them still to permit him to continue there, and not to abandon the young stadtholder, who might have occasion for his experience and advice. And the states of Holland, on their part, after having thanked the duke by their pensionary, begged him to accept, as a mark of their grateful sense of his services, of an appointment of 200,000 florins."

Harmony subsisted many years between his serene highness and the States-General. The events previous to the rupture with England, and in consequence of it, which have since interrupted that harmony, and, from an object of grateful respect, rendered the duke of Brunswick an object of persecution, are too recent in every memory to need recapitulation.

The power of the stadtholder is very limited, except when he appears at the head of an army. The most important prerogatives of this office are, 1. The power of pardoning criminals. 2. To be president of all the courts of justice, and to have his name placed at the head of their decisions. 3. To choose the magistrates of the towns from a certain number presented to him for his election; and, in more than one place, he had the entire disposal of employments. 4. To send in his name, and for his private interests, plenipotentiaries to foreign courts; and to give private audience to the foreign ambassadors to the States-General. 5. To enforce the execution of the decrees issued by the republic. 6. To be arbiter of the differences that might arise between the various communities, towns, or provinces. The appointment of the stadtholder from the states is 100,000 guilders, or 9,500*l.* sterling; besides which, he has several principalities and large estates of his own.

The hereditary stadtholder, William V. of Orange-Nassau, captain-general and admiral of the Seven United Provinces, was born in 1748, married, in 1767,

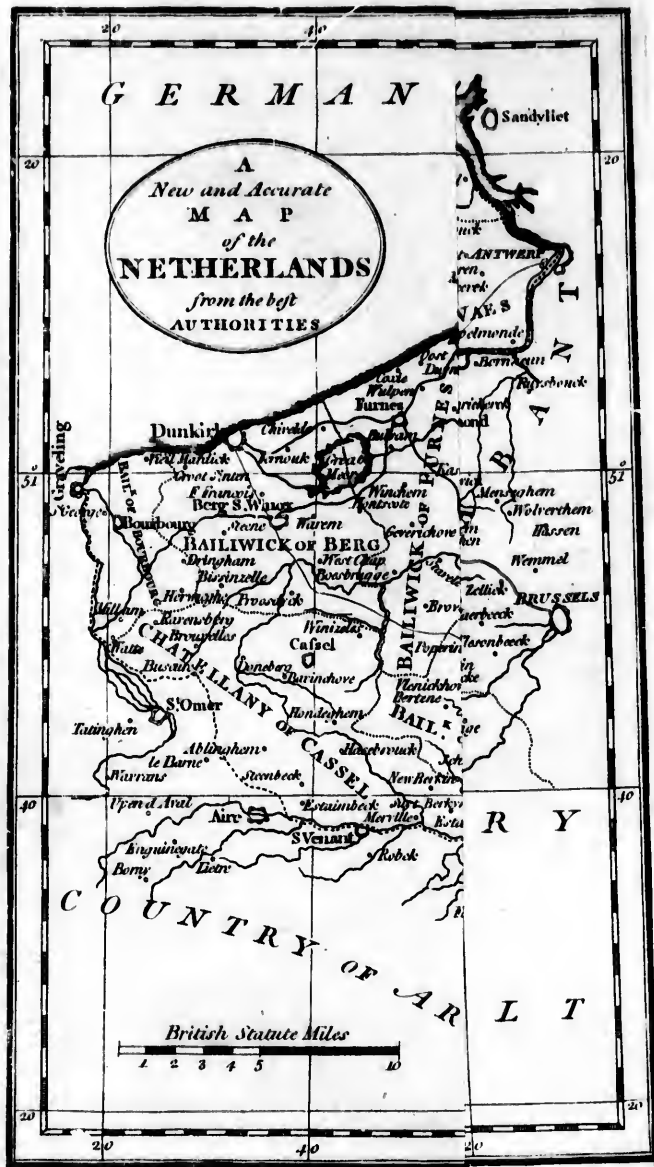
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the princess Frederica of Prussia, born in 1751. Their children are, Frederica-Louisa, born 1770; William-Frederic, hereditary prince and count of Buren, born in 1772; William-George, born in 1774. Wilhelmina-Carolina, born in 1749, and married to the prince of Nassau-Weilburgh, is sister of the stadholder. The history of the United Provinces will be given in that of the Austrian and French Netherlands.

C H A P. XVII.

THE AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Productions, Mountains, Mines, Rivers, Commerce, Manufactures, Cities, Inhabitants; their Manners, Customs, Religion, Language, Learning, Government, Revenues, Forces, History.

THESE Netherlands are situated between the 2d and 7th deg. east long. and between the 49th and 51st of north lat. being 200 miles in length, and as many in breadth, containing the following provinces, viz. 1. Brabant. 2. Antwerp. 3. Malines. 4. Limburg. 5. Luxemburg. 6. Namur. 7. Hainault. 8. Cambresis. 9. Artois. 10. Flanders.

These provinces are bounded by the United Netherlands on the north; by Germany on the east; by Lorraine, Champagne, and Picardy in France, on the south; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, on the west. This country belongs to the Austrians, French, and Dutch, and the particular provinces and towns appertaining to each state will be found in the following divisions.

1. PROVINCE OF BRABANT.

SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Dutch Brabant	{ Boileduc..... } N.
	{ Breda..... } N.
	{ Bergen-op-Zoom } N. E.
	{ Grave, N. E. } N. W.
Austrian Brabant	{ Lillo..... } N. W.
	{ Steenberg..... } N. W.
	{ Brussels, E. } In the middle.
	{ Louvain..... } In the middle.
	{ Vilvorden.. } In the middle.
	{ Landen..... } In the middle.

Antwerp and Malines are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and subject to the House of Austria.

4. PROVINCE OF LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief Towns	{ Limburg, subject to Austria.	} Subject to the Dutch.
	{ Maestricht..... }	
	{ Dalem..... }	
	{ Fauquemont, or Valkenburg }	

5. PROVINCE OF LUXEMBURG, S. E.

SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Austrian Luxemburg.	Luxemburg.
French Luxemburg..	{ Thionville } S. E.
	{ Montmedy }

6. PROVINCE OF NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief Towns	{ Namur, on the Sambre and Maese.
	{ Charleroy, on the Sambre.

7. PROVINCE OF HAINAULT.

Austrian Hainault ...	{ Mons.. }	} In the middle.
	{ Aeth... }	
French Hainault	{ Enguien }	} S. W.
	{ Valenciennes }	
	{ Bouchain... }	
	{ Condé..... }	
	{ Landrecy... }	

8. PROVINCE OF CAMBRESIS, S. W.

Subject to France....	{ Cambray.
	{ Crevecoeur, S. of Cambray.

9. PROVINCE OF ARTOIS, S. W.

Subject to France....	{ Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe.
	{ St. Omer, E. of Boulogne.
	{ Aire, S. of St. Omer.
	{ St. Venant, E. of Aire.
	{ Bethune, S. E. of Aire.
	{ Terouen, S. of St. Omer.

10. PROVINCE OF FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders.....	{ Sluys, N.	} N. W. near the sea.
	{ Axel, N.	
	{ Hulst, N.	
	{ Sas Van Ghent, N.	
Austrian Flanders....	{ Ghent, on the Scheldt.	} On the Lys.
	{ Bruges }	
	{ Ostend }	
	{ Newport }	
	{ Oudenarde, on the Scheldt.	
	{ Courtray }	
	{ Dixmude }	
{ Ypres, N. of Lille.		
{ Tournay, on the Scheldt.		
	{ Menin, on the Lis.	

The emperor has thought fit to divide the Austrian Netherlands into nine circles, in the same manner as Bohemia, and the other hereditary estates, and has appointed a captain over each circle, who is to have 4000 florins per annum: namely, for Brabant, the comte de Broghi; for the province of Limbourg and the duchy of Ruremonde, M. de Ransomel; for the marquissate of Antwerp and the lordship of Malines, the chevalier Van der

der Dilt; for the duchy of Luxemburg, M. de Berg; for the province of Namur, the viscount de Sandrouin de Villers de Lefse; for Dornik, Tonnois, and the retroceded part of Flanders, M. de Beelen; for Bruges and Oflend, Mr. Malrien; for Ghent and the rest of Flanders, Mr. Maroux; and for Hainault, the comte de Gorreguies.

SUBDIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

French Flanders	{	Lille, W. of Tournay.
		Dunkirk, on the coast, E. of Calais.
		Donay, W. of Arras.
		Mardike, W. of Dunkirk.
		St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes.
		Gravelines, E. of Calais.

The climat: in the inland parts of these Netherlands is much more settled than ours, but their winters are usually more severe. The air is better than that of the United Provinces, except on the coasts of Brabant and Flanders, where it is exceedingly unwholesome. The soil differs according to the situation; for in some parts it is a deep rich mould, while others exhibit nothing but barren sands. The animal productions of these are the same as in the United Provinces; and the vegetable consist in corn, fruits, garden-stuff of all kinds, pasture, and prodigious quantities of flax, in the cultivating of which the inhabitants have rendered even the barren parts of their country profitable. This country in general is remarkable for breeding black cattle; and the province of Luxemburg abounds in corn, great part of which is sent to foreign markets.

There are a few inconsiderable mountains in the province of Limburg; excepting which, the whole country is a flat, interspersed now-and-then with some rising hills, which are generally covered with wood. Formerly there were several very large forests in this country, of which Ardennes was the principal, but now great part of them are turned into arable lands.

In the provinces of Luxemburg, Limburg, and Liege, are mines of iron, copper, lead, brimstone, and quarries of various kinds of marble; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with a great plenty of fossil nitre.

The principal rivers are the Maese, Scheldt, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sagne, Ruppel, Lis, Scrype, Deule, and Dender. The most considerable of these, and into which all the rest fall, are the Maese and the Scheldt. The Scheldt has already been mentioned in the United Provinces. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Oflend. The first of these extends to the Scheldt, which is fifteen miles.

With respect to the trade and commerce of the Austrian Netherlands, we have to observe, that in ancient days these countries were the centre of the woollen manufactures, which are now the manufactures

of Great-Britain, originally derived from the Flemings, whose country was thereby rendered immensely rich and populous.

One of the principal branches of manufacture at present carried on in these provinces, is the lace known by the name of bone-lace, of which the finest and best of the kind in Europe is made at Brussels. The variety of it is very great; and we are told of lace made in that part of the country, which has been sold at from 50s. to 50l. sterling a yard: by which extraordinary improvements they have so far surpassed the French and Italians, and even the Venetians themselves, that those last have very little trade for their lace, though they were once justly famed for the finest in the world. The principal places for this manufacture are, Meehlin, Brussels, Louvain, Valenciennes, Antwerp, and the adjacent towns; and it employs a great number of people, especially women and children.

Fine thread is another of their manufactures, the great quantity of fine lace causing a great demand for fine thread, as their linens require a proportional quantity of linen yarn; and both these together constitute another manufacture of no little concern to the people.

Their manufacture of linen is very considerable, and consists of two sorts chiefly, viz. cambricks and lawns. Their cambricks are made so fine, as to have been sold at from twenty to thirty shillings per yard in these countries. They were formerly made only in the provinces of Artois and Cambresis, from which last they had their name of Cambricks; but the demand for them being so great of late years, the whole country has been scarcely large enough to carry on this manufacture, especially that part of it bordering on France, together with the great cities of Donay, Lille, Mons, Ypres, Ghent, and Bruges, and all the cities upon the Lower Scheldt; which manufacture also is of a magnitude greater than can be easily represented.

Another manufacture in which the Flemings are employed, is that of the woollen, which includes the tapeltry made at Arras, Dourlens, Donay, and the adjacent country; also some druggets and fine stuffs, made at Lille, and in the country near it: most of which are, however, consumed amongst themselves, though some go to France.

The exports of their manufactures are so considerable, that very good judges have estimated them at no less, in fine holler-thread, bone-lace, and linen (including their lawns and cambricks) than to the value of two millions sterling a year, from those provinces called the Austrian Netherlands, including part of the conquered provinces, as well as the district called Walloon Flanders, and the province of Artois. Nor in this account are there included their exports of tapeltry or woollen stuffs; of all which they export large quantities into France and Germany.

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the manufacture of silk; for they not only make at present sufficient for their own use, but for exportation. These silks they make now chiefly at Lille, Brussels, and Antwerp; and this manufacture was greatly encouraged by the public, inasmuch that the Flemings, in the year 1725, began to caution the East-India Company, then attempted to be established at Ostend, to bring no more silks into the country, lest it should prove the means to supplant and destroy their own manufacture of silk, which employed so many thousands of their people.

Ship-building is a great article of trade; not that the Flemings, who have but two ports, can be supposed to build abundance of ships; nor indeed can they do it, having no place proper for it, or materials for the work; but by ships here is meant only galliots, hoys, lighters, bilanders, and such like vessels, all of which they call schips. Of those they have such great numbers, that there must be abundance of hands employed in building them, and especially in the constant repairing and refitting, which they are always wanting. In time of war it has been frequent to have seven or eight hundred of them brought together for carrying provisionary military stores, ammunition, and the like; and it is likely that they have not fewer than twenty thousand of this sort of vessels in the several provinces. All these are built within themselves; and it is no little trade they are obliged to carry on, for the supply of deals, timber, planks, masts, yards, anchors, iron work, and other materials for this business; besides pitch, tar, oil, hemp, &c.

When these things are considered, we need not wonder how all this great multitude of people, who inhabit these provinces, are employed and maintained. The carrying on such valuable manufactures must employ innumerable hands; and the quantity of goods they export must bring great returns home, as well in goods as money, by which the Flemings are far from being poor. On the contrary, they are generally well circumstanced, there being but few hands among them but what can earn their bread; the very children, even from five years old, being ordinarily employed.

Some Roman highways are yet entire; and ruins of temples and other buildings are found in many parts. In 1607 sixteen hundred gold pieces were found at Dendermonde, and proved to be a collection of ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus. The other curiosities of this country consist chiefly in their public edifices and churches, in many of which the paintings are exquisitely fine. Formerly there was not one of these but deserved a particular description, and volumes have been filled with this subject only.

At present their noble fortifications, public buildings, and trade, are greatly gone to decay. The following are now the most considerable.

Brussels gives name to the territory, and is the capital not only of Brabant but of the Netherlands, though only the second in rank. This city is well built and populous, and carries on a considerable trade all over

Europe in camblets, laces, and tapestries, which are manufactured here. The public buildings in general, particularly the palaces and courts of the several princes, counts, and other persons of distinction, together with the churches and cloisters, are large and magnificent. The inns or eating-houses here are equal to any in the world: a stranger may dine any time between twelve and three, on seven or eight dishes, for less than a shilling English. The wines also are very good and cheap; and, for sixpence English by the hour, you may have a coach to carry you to any part of the city.

Ghent, is the capital of Flanders, and one of the largest cities in Europe, being seven miles in compass within the walls. It abounds in monasteries, churches, hospitals, and market-places. The stadthouse and cathedral are grand structures; and under the latter is a noble crypta, or subterraneous church.

Antwerp is a large well built city, containing twenty-two squares, and above two hundred streets, which are all exceedingly spacious. Most of the houses are of free-stone, very high, with courts before, and gardens behind. The churches are exceedingly magnificent, particularly the cathedral, which has one of the finest steeples in the world: most of the pictures with which they are adorned are painted by Rubens, and Quintin Massys, the famous blacksmith. The stadthouse is very elegant, as is also the Exchange, which cost the city 300,000 crowns building. This town, from being once the emporium of the European continent, is now almost destitute of trade; the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, having sunk vessels loaded with store in the mouth of the Scheldt, and thereby shut up the entrance of that river to ships of large burden: the reader need not be informed by what motive this avaricious people were instigated to that cruel act.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, was formerly exceeding populous, but now there are meadows, vineyards, and gardens within the walls. The public buildings are very beautiful, particularly the stadthouse, the church of St. Peter, that belonging to the Jesuits, and the English convent for ladies. The great trade once carried on in this city is inconceivable; but at present it is only famous for brewing excellent beer.

The inhabitants of these Netherlands are supposed to amount to about a million and a half, and are distinguished by the appellation of Flemings. They are in general a heavy, blunt, honest people, and extremely indelicate in their manners. They differ, however, according to the situation of the places wherein they reside. Those which border on France resemble that people in their behaviour, dress, &c. while those who live near Holland imitate the Dutch. The Flemings were known formerly to fight desperately in defence of their country; they make, however, no great figure at present. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants.

The established religion here is the Roman Catholic, but every sect may live peaceably, and enjoy the free exercise of their persuasions, though not in a public manner. The inhabitants on the frontiers of Holland speak Dutch; as those who reside in the provinces subject to France use a very bad French: the rest are a mixture between both, and their language is a different dialect of the German from that of the Dutch.

They have three Universities, viz. Louvain, Douay, and St. Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges, granted to it at different times by the dukes of that country and the popes. It consists of above forty colleges, and in the hall where the public exercises are performed, are three spacious rooms, where lectures are read every morning in divinity, law, and physic, to which the students in every college may resort. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university has the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they still enjoy, except in the United Provinces.

The archbishoprics are Cambrai, and Malines or Mechlin; the bishoprics are, Antwerp, Bruges, Ghent, Tournay, Arras, Ypres, Namur, Ruremonde, and St. Omer.

Very little can be said with respect to learning in these provinces. The most celebrated geniuses of these Netherlands were produced among the Jesuits, and their works treated chiefly on theology, the civil and canon law, and Latin poems and plays. Strada is celebrated as an excellent historian and poet. But the Flemings have long excelled in painting and sculpture, witness the works of Rubens and Vandyke; and Flamingo, or the Flemish models for heads, particularly those of children. Their painters and sculptors form a school by themselves.

The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle sends an envoy to the diet, but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire, though it contributes its share towards the impôts of it. The form of an assembly, or parliament for each province, is still kept up, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels. Each province claims particular privileges, which are now of very trifling consequence, for little opposition is made to the will of the governor-general, who is appointed by the court of Vienna, and acts according to its dictates. The present governor is his serene highness Charles of Lorraine, brother to the late, and uncle to the present emperor of Germany.

Besides the governor-general, every province has its particular governor subject to him; and in each province, likewise, are courts of justice established for the trial of causes, where they are determined according to the civil and canon law.

We cannot ascertain the revenues of these Nether-

lands, and indeed it would be almost impracticable if attempted. It is certain that those of Austria do not defray the expences of the government; but those of France bring a considerable revenue to that crown. The ordinary revenues arise either from the demefne lands, or from the customs; but when there is an extraordinary tax to be raised, it is demanded of the states of the respective provinces, who seldom deny the necessary supplies, though the consent of every member is necessary to the grant.

The German, Dutch, and French coins, are all current in this part of the Netherlands.

The forces in the Austrian Netherlands were, by the treaty of Utrecht, to have been 30,000 in time of peace, and 40,000 during a war, whereof the Austrians were to maintain three-fifths, and the Dutch two, for the defence of the barrier; but both these powers are very deficient in their respective quotas. Most of the fortifications are demolished, and the garrisons rendered useless, by the present emperor. A lion sable, or, and langued gules, are the arms of Flanders.

With respect to their history, the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands were anciently called Gallia Belgica, and the greater part of them conquered by the Romans, in whose possession they continued till the northern nations broke into Italy, and put an end to the western empire. After being deserted by the Romans, they were possessed by the Goths, and other northern people, and the country divided into small governments, independent of one another. In this state they continued for some years; but at last, partly by marriage, and partly by conquest, they became annexed to the dominions of the duke of Burgundy.

The emperor Charles V. about the year 1543, united the seventeen provinces into one body, and ordered that they should for ever continue under the same prince, without being in the least separated or dismembered. Pursuant to this order, and at the unanimous request of the states of all the provinces, he published a perpetual and irrevocable edict, by which it was enacted, that in order to keep all those provinces under the same prince, the right of succession should always take place, both in a right and collateral line, notwithstanding the common laws of some provinces to the contrary. Charles even attempted to incorporate the Netherlands with the Germanic body, and to form them into a circle of the empire, under the title of the circle of Burgundy, in order to engage the princes of the empire to interest themselves in the preservation of these provinces. But the inhabitants of the Netherlands, always jealous of their liberty, were far from being pleased with their incorporation, and when summoned to pay their share of the expences of the empire, they refused the order; and the German princes, in return, declared they would take no part in the wars of Flanders, but would, for the future, consider those provinces as no part of the Germanic body.

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at the year 1543, one body, and orue under the same parated or dismem- at the unanimous nces, he published by which it was se provinces under lion should always eral line, notwith- e provinces to the to incorporate the ody, and to form er the title of the age the princes of the preservation of ts of the Nether- ty, were far from n, and when sem- nces of the empire, rman princes, in o part in the was ure, consider those t body.

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As Philip of Austria and his son Charles were both born in the Netherlands, they entertained for these provinces that natural affection which most men have for their native country; and knowing how remarkably tenacious the inhabitants were of their liberties, and of the privileges granted them by former princes, they took care to preserve them, and even suffered the states, who are the proper guardians of the liberties of the people, to share, in some degree, the supreme authority with them. Happy had it been for both prince and people, if this generous conduct had been observed by succeeding princes; but Philip II. son to Charles V. had not the same affection for the Netherlands; nor did he possess those generous sentiments, with which his father laboured to inspire him. Born in Spain, he had no affection for the country of his ancestors; and when he removed from the Netherlands to take possession of the crown of Spain, he left the government in the hands of a weak woman, assisted by the proud and haughty cardinal de Glanville. This gave occasion to continual complaints; but Philip was deaf to their remonstrances; and, instead of making use of the mild and moderate measures of his ancestors, he had recourse to the most violent and cruel proceedings. The Spaniards whom he sent thither, being born and educated under a despotic government, jealous of the liberties, and envious of the riches of the people, trampled on their privileges, and treated them like slaves.

Exasperated at these proceedings, and preferring death to the loss of liberty, a general insurrection ensued, and the insurgents were headed by the prince of Orange, and the counts Hoorn and Egmont. The reformation of Luther was at that time gaining ground apace in many of the provinces, and all his disciples joined the malcontents. Alarmed at the progress of this rebellion, and determined, if possible, to crush the reformation in its birth, Philip established a kind of inquisition in the Netherlands, and many thousands of innocent persons were put to death by that infernal tribunal.

Several battles were fought between the contending parties, in one of which the malcontents were totally defeated, and the counts Hoorn and Egmont taken prisoners and beheaded. The prince of Orange had the good fortune to escape, and, retiring into Holland, prevailed upon that and several of the adjacent provinces to form a league for their mutual defence; and the treaty was accordingly signed at Utrecht in the year 1579. And though these revolters were at first thought so despicable as to be termed beggars by the court of Spain, yet their enemies soon perceived their mistake: a brave and hardy people, fighting for every thing that is dear to them, are never a despicable enemy. Headed by their own princes, and assisted by Elizabeth, queen of England, they defeated their tyrants, and forced the crown of Spain, about the year 1609, to declare them a free people, and they were afterwards acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent state, under the appellation of The United Provinces.

Since that period they have been considered as a powerful republic; and during the usurpation of Cromwell, and the reign of Charles II. their naval force was nearly equal to that of England, and far superior to that of any other power in Europe. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the jealousy of the public was excited against the Bourbon family, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the prince of Orange of the stadtholdership; the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, 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. king of France, and at length humbled the pride of that aspiring and despotic tyrant.

As to the other provinces of the Netherlands, they were not so fortunate, but were reduced by the duke of Alva to the obedience of Spain, by whom they were, however, in a great measure, restored to their ancient privileges; every province was allowed its great council or parliament, whose concurrence was necessary in making laws, or raising money for the use of the government.

Ten of these provinces, generally called the Low Countries, remained in possession of the Spaniards, till the duke of Marlborough, general of the allied army, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies in the year 1706; in consequence of which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. for their sovereign; and his daughter the late empress queen, by virtue of the pragmatic sanction, enjoyed the possession of them till the year 1741, when the French conquered them all, except part of the province of Luxemburg. They were, however, restored to their former sovereign by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the French retaining only Artois, the Cambresis, part of Flanders, part of Hainault, and part of Luxemburg.

The late differences between the States-General and the emperor of Germany may probably be attributed to their separation from Great-Britain. The emperor complained of a violation of treaties subsisting between the states and his ancestors, and represented to them, that the shutting up the Scheldt had long been a submission not obligatory on the Austrian Low Countries; which right his Imperial majesty insisting on, a ship was sent out by his order, the captain and crew of which were expressly forbidden to submit to any detention or examination from any ships of the republic it might meet with on the Scheldt, or to make the least declaration at any of their custom-houses on that river. This ship, with another afterwards sent, were stopt in their passage up the Scheldt to Antwerp; which conduct the emperor considered as insulting his flag, and

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as equivalent to a declaration of war on the part of the republic; he thereupon recalled his minister from the Hague, and made the necessary dispositions for assembling an army of 80,000 men in the Low Countries.

The Dutch, by their manifesto, pleaded, that by Art. XIV. of the treaty concluded at Munster, Jan. 30, 1648, it was agreed that the Scheldt should remain shut by their High Mightinesses. They likewise referred to several other treaties in vindication of their conduct, and particularly a convention, respecting Art. XVII. of the barrier treaty, signed Dec. 22, 1718, in which the cession of the lands and districts pertaining to the possession of the Scheldt was specially and expressly confirmed and made clear; and insisted, that they had, to the great detriment of the republic, fulfilled the engagements they had entered into for the preservation of the pragmatic sanction, and had assisted the house of Austria with all their forces. The manifesto, among other matters, also represents, that notwithstanding their high-mightinesses had often replied to several pretences alleged against them, it was insisted on the part of his Imperial majesty, in April 1784, that the guardship belonging to the republic, which had been stationed off Lillo since the peace of Munster, 1648, that is 136 years, should be removed, his majesty pretending that the Lower Scheldt, as far as Saftingen, belonged to him.

The negotiations between these two powers not producing the desired effect, and the republic avowing their determination to support what they deemed to be their incontrovertible right, great preparations were made for immediate hostilities against the Dutch; and several hundreds of the Imperialists, with some field-pieces, advancing towards the counterescarp of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the sluices to be opened Nov. 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat country around the forts on the Scheldt, to preserve them from an attack.

In the beginning of the year 1786, a treaty of accommodation was concluded between the parties; by which it appears, that the Scheldt is agreed to be open to the emperor for inland navigation, though shut towards the ocean in favour of Holland, according to the treaty of Munster. Each of the contracting parties are at liberty to make what regulations may be thought expedient for carrying on internal commerce. As the imports of the Dutch carried through the Imperial dominions are beyond all comparison greater than the exports made from the emperor's dominions into those of the United Provinces; consequently, should any dispute arise in future, the emperor will have an advantage of more than ten to one in his favour. Besides, the emperor may impose what duties he thinks proper on the Batavian vessels that shall sail through that part of the Scheldt which he commands; and the Dutch, in return, may lay what duties they please

upon the Imperial vessels sailing into any part of their territories.

In 1792 the French insisted on their right to the navigation of the Scheldt, in prejudice to the claim of the United Provinces; but they were at length obliged to give it up.

Since the commencement of the troubles on the Continent in 1792, a treaty of defensive alliance (consisting of ten articles) has been entered into between the king of Great-Britain and their noble and high-mightinesses the States-General, "for the good of both parties, and for the maintenance of their general and separate tranquillity." And

On the 16th of Nov. 1792, his Britannic majesty caused to be presented to the States-General, by his ambassador lord Auckland, a declaration, expressive of the desire of the king his master to cement and perpetuate the intimate union established between the two powers, for the maintenance of their own rights and security, &c. To which their high-mightinesses returned an immediate answer to the same effect.

CHAP. XVIII.

GERMANY.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Productions, Mountains, Rivers, Mineral Waters, Curiosities, Learning, Religion, Language, &c.

THE empire of Germany is situated between 45 and 55 deg. of north lat. and between 5 and 19 deg. of east long. It is about 600 miles in length, and 520 in breadth; and is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the east, by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia; on the south, by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy; and on the west, by France and the Low Countries, from which it is separated by the Rhine, the Maese, and the Moselle.

Germany is divided into nine circles, whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles contain..	{ Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Westphalia.
The circles in the middle	{ Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Franconia.
The southern circles.....	{ Austria, Bavaria, Swabia.

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Brandenburgh in the middle, subject to its own elector the king of Prussia; chief towns Stendel, Berlin, Pottslam, Frankfort, and Custrin.

Saxony Proper, in the south, subject to its own elector; ch. towns Wittenburg, Bautzen, Gorlitz, Dresden, and Missin.

Thuringia landgrave West, ch. town Erfort, subject to the elector of Mentz.

The duchies of Saxe Meiningen, ch. town Meiningen; Saxe Zeits, ch. town Zeits; Saxe Altenburg, ch. town Altenburg; Saxe Weimar, ch. town Weimar; Saxe Gotha, ch. town Gotha; Saxe Eifnach, ch. town Eifnach; Saxe Saalfeldt, ch. town Saalfeldt; subject to their own dukes.

The counties of Schwartzburg, ch. town Schwartzburg; Belchingen, ch. town Belchingen; Mansfeldt, ch. town Mansfeldt; subject to their respective counts.

The duchies of Hall, middle, ch. town Hall, subject to Prussia; Saxe Naumberg, ch. town Naumberg, subject to its own duke.

The counties of Stolberg, ch. town Stolberg; Hohenstein, ch. town Northhausen.

Principality of Anhalt, ch. towns Dessau, Zerbst, Bernberg, and Kothen.

Bishopric of Saxe Hall, ch. town Hall.

Bishopric of Voigtland, ch. town Plawea; subject to the elector of Saxony.

Duchy of Merzberg, middle, ch. town Merzberg; subject to the elector of Saxony.

2. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Holstein duchy, north of the Elbe; ch. towns Keil, subject to Holstein-Gottorp; Meldorp and Glucitad, subject to Denmark; Hamburg and Lubec, Imperial cities.

Lauenburg duchy, ch. town Lauenburg; subject to Hanover.

Duchies of Brunswick Proper, ch. town Brunswick; Wolfenbuttle, ch. town Wolfenbuttle: counties of Rheinstein, ch. town Rheinstein; Blanckenburg, ch. town Blanckenburg; subject to the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle.

Duchies of Calenberg, ch. town Hanover; Grubbenhagen, ch. town Grubbenhagen; Gottingen, ch. town Gottingen; subject to the elector of Hanover, king of Great-Britain.

Lunenburg duchy, ch. towns Lunenburg and Zell, subject to Hanover.

Bremen and Verden duchies, ch. towns Bremen, an Imperial city, and Verden; subject to Hanover.

Mecklenburg duchy, ch. towns Schwerin and Gustrou.

Bishopric of Hildersheim, ch. town Hildersheim, an Imperial city; subject to its bishop.

Duchy of Magdeburg, ch. town Magdeburg; subject to the king of Prussia.

Duchy of Halberstadt, ch. town Halberstadt; subject to the king of Prussia.

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

North division. County of Embden, or E. Friesland, ch. town Embden, an Imperial city; subject to the king of Prussia: counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, ch. towns Oldenburg and Delmenhorst; subject to the king of Denmark: Hoyer and Diepholt, ch. towns Hoyer and Diepholt; subject to Hanover.

Middle division. Bishopric of Munster, ch. town Munster; subject to its bishop: bishoprics of Paderborn and Osnaburg, ch. towns Paderborn and Osnaburg; subject to its bishop: county of Lippe, ch. town Lippe Pyrmont; subject to its own count: duchy of Minden and county of Ravensburg, ch. towns Minden and Ravensburg; subject to Prussia: duchy of Westphalia, ch. town Arensburg; subject to the elector of Cologne: counties of Tecklenburg, ch. town Tecklenburg; Ritberg, ch. town Ritberg; Schawenburg, ch. town Schawenburg; subject to their counts.

Western division. Duchy of Cleves, chief town Cleves; subject to the king of Prussia; duchies of Berg and Juliers, ch. towns Dusseldorf, Juliers, and Aix; subject to the elector palatine: county of Mark, ch. town Ham; subject to Prussia: bishopric of Liege, ch. town Liege; subject to its own bishop: county of Bentheim, ch. town Bentheim; subject to Hanover: county of Steinfort, ch. town Steinfort; subject to its count.

4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Landgraviate of Hesse-Cassel, ch. town Cassel; Hesse Marburg, ch. town Marburg; Hesse Darmstadt, ch. town Darmstadt; subject to their respective landgraves.

Hesse Homberg, ch. town Homberg; Hesse Rhinefeldt, ch. town Rhinefeldt; Hesse Wanfried, ch. town Wonfield.

Counties of Nassau Dillenburg, ch. town Dillenburg; Nassau Diets, ch. town Diets; Nassau Hadamar, ch. town Hadamar; Nassau Kerberg, ch. town Kerberg; Nassau Siegen, ch. town Siegen; Nassau Idstein, ch. town Idstein; Nassau Weilburg, ch. town Weilburg; Nassau Wisbaden, ch. town Wisbaden; Nassau Biellstein, ch. town Biellstein; Nassau Otweiler, ch. town Otweiler; Nassau Ufingen, ch. town Ufingen; each county subject to its own count, of the house of Nassau.

Territory of Frankfort, ch. town Frankfort on the Main, an Imperial city; a sovereign state.

County of Erpach, ch. town Erpach East; subject to its own count.

Bishopric of Spire, ch. town Spire, on the Rhine, an Imperial city; a sovereign state.

Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deux-Ponts, ch. town Deux-Ponts, in the palatinate; subject to the duke of Deux-Ponts.

County of Catzenelboge, ch. town Catzenalbogen on the Lhon; subject to Hesse-Cassel.

Counties of Waldec, ch. town Waldec; subject to its own count: Solms, ch. town Solms; subject to its own count: Hanau, ch. town Hanau; subject to Hesse-

GERMANY
divided into
CIRCLES.





W. H. H. 1850

Cassel; Eysenberg, ch. town Eysenberg; subject to its own count; Sayn, ch. town Sayn; Wied, ch. town Wied; Wittgenstein, ch. town Wittgenstein; Hatzfeld, ch. town Hatzfeld; Wellerberg, ch. town Wellerberg.

Abbey of Fuld, ch. town Fulda; subject to its abbot. Hirschfeldt, ch. town Hirschfeldt; subject to Hesse-Cassel.

5. LOWER RHINE CIRCLE.

Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, ch. towns Heidelberg on the Neckar, Philipsburg, Mannheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine; subject to the elector palatine.

Archbishoprics and electorates of Cologne, ch. town Cologne on the Rhine; Mentz, ch. towns Bonn on the Rhine, Mentz on the Rhine, and Achenburg on the Maine; Triers, ch. town Triers on the Moselle; subject to their respective electors.

Bishopric of Worms, Worms on the Rhine, an Imperial city; a sovereign state.

Duchy of Simmeren, ch. town Simmeren; subject to its own duke.

Counties of Rhinegravestein, ch. town Rhinegravestein; Meurs, ch. town Meurs, subject to Prussia; Veldentz, ch. town Veldentz, subject to the elector palatine; Spanheim, ch. town Creutznach; Leymingen, ch. town Leymingen.

6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

Bishoprics of Wurtzburg, ch. town Wurtzburg; Bamberg, ch. town Bamberg; Aichstadt, ch. town Aichstadt; subject to their respective bishops.

Marquissates of Cullenbach, ch. town Cullenbach; Anspach, ch. town Anspach; subject to their respective margraves.

Principality of Henneberg, ch. town Henneberg.

Duchy of Coburg, ch. town Coburg; subject to its own duke.

Duchy of Hildburghausen, ch. town Hildburghausen; subject to its own duke.

Burgaviate of Nuremberg, Nuremberg, an Imperial city; an independent state.

Territory of the great master of the Teutonic Order, Mergentheim, ch. town Mergentheim.

Counties of Reineck, ch. town Reineck; Bareith, ch. town Bareith, subject to its own margrave; Papenheim, ch. town Papenheim, subject to its own count; Wertheim, ch. town Wertheim; Cassel, ch. town Cassel; Schwartzenburg, ch. town Schwartzenburg, subject to its own count; Holac, ch. town Holac.

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the house of Austria.

Archduchy of Austria Proper, ch. town Vienna.

Duchies of Stiria and Cilley, ch. towns Gratz and Cilley; Carinthia, ch. towns Glagenfurt and Lave-

mund; Carniola, ch. towns Laubach, Zerknitz, Trieste, and St. Veits; Goritia, ch. town Gorits.

County of Tyrol, ch. town Inspruck. Archbishoprics of Brixen and Trent, ch. towns Brixen and Trent, on the continent of Italy and Switzerland.

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Duchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube, ch. towns Munich, Landshut, Ingolstadt, Donawert, and Ratfobon, an Imperial city; subject to the elector palatine, as successor to the late elector of Bavaria.

Palatinate of Bavaria, ch. towns Amberg and Sulzbach; subject to the elector of Bavaria.

Friessengen, ch. town Friessengen; subject to its own bishop.

Bishopric of Passau, ch. town Passau; subject to its own bishop.

Duchy of Neuburg, ch. town Neuburg on the Danube, subject to the elector palatine.

Archbishopric of Salzburg, ch. town Salzburg and Hallen; subject to its own bishop.

9. SWABIA CIRCLE.

Duchy of Wurtemberg, ch. towns Stutgard, Tübingen, and Hailbron, on or near the Neckar; subject to the duke of Wurtemberg Stutgard.

Marquissates of Baden, ch. towns Baden Durlach, on or near the Rhine; subject to their own respective margraves.

Bishopric of Augsburg, ch. towns Augsburg, an Imperial city, Hockstet and Blenheim, on or near the Danube; subject to its own bishop.

Territory of Ulm, Ulm on the Danube, an Imperial city; a sovereign state.

Bishopric of Constance, ch. town Constance on the lake of Constance; subject to its own bishop, under the house of Austria.

Principalties of Mindelheim, ch. town Mindelheim; Furlenburg, ch. town Furlenburg; Hohenzollern, ch. town Hohenzollern; subject to their respective princes.

Counties of Oeting, ch. town Oeting; Koningseck, ch. town Koningseck; Hohenrichburg, ch. town Gemund.

Baronies of Waldburg, ch. town Waldburg; Limpurg, ch. town Limpurg.

Abbies of Kempton, ch. town Kempton on the Iller; Buchaw, ch. town Buchaw; Lindau, ch. town Lindau, on the lake of Constance; Imperial cities.

Imperial cities or sovereign states; Nordlingen, Memmingen, Rotweil on the Neckar, and many more.

Black Forest and county of Rheinfield, ch. towns Rheinfield and Laullenburg; marquissate of Burgaw, ch. town Burgaw; territory of Brigaw on the Rhine, ch. town Friburg and Brifac; subject to the house of Austria.

Germany being a very extensive tract, the climate must vary according to the situation of places. In the north

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north the air is cold, and the weather changeable, both which are unfavourable to vegetation; in the south it is much warmer, especially in winter; and in the centre of the country it is settled, temperate, and serene. Upon the whole, neither the climate nor air are materially different from those of England. The soil varies as much as the climate: in many parts it is exceedingly fruitful, being cultivated quite to the tops of the mountains, but in others it is bare and sterile; though there is no doubt but, with proper care, even this land might be turned to some advantage; and as agriculture is now making great progress in Germany, it will certainly not remain much longer in its present state, but the most barren parts must necessarily change to the advantage of the inhabitants.

There are few animals which are not to be found either in one part or the other of Germany; horses, oxen, cows, sheep, and goats form the domestic part of these; and in the forests are bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, wild cats, wild goats, boars, of the legs of which hams are made, and sent to most parts of Europe, being esteemed great delicacies, and are preferred by many of the English to those of Westmoreland, &c. for grain and the delicacy of their flavour; badgers, martens, hares, rabbits, deer, and the chamols goat. A species of leopards and beavers are likewise found in Moravia. The glutton of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals.

There are a great variety of tame and wild fowl in Germany, viz. Turkeys, geese, ducks, pigeons, wild geese, wild ducks, swans, bustards, pheasants, wood-cocks, partridges, grouse, snipes, fieldfares, quails, otolans, spoon-bills, falcons, herons, hawks, larks and other singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

The rivers and lakes in Germany abound with salmon, pike, carp, trout, perch, roach, jack, flurgeon, barbel, eels, eel-pouts, crabs, &c. and in the Danube or liter, are several fish, which seem to be of the salt-water-kind. Among the most remarkable of these is the hanson, which bears some resemblance to our flurgeon; but is almost as large as a crocodile, some of them being eighteen or twenty feet long: they are esteemed very delicate eating by the Germans; and it is said that shoals of them will assemble at the sound of a trumpet or horn.

The cultivated parts of this country yield corn, turkey-wheat, buck-wheat, rye, spelt, barley, oats, peas, beans, vetches or tares, lentils, chiches, millet, anise, cummin, hemp, flax, hops, tobacco, madder, wood, saffron, carthamus or bastard saffron, truffles, potatoes, and every species of culinary herbs and roots. The fruits produced there are apples, pears, plums, oranges, lemons, citrons, olives, figs, peaches, apricots, medlars, almonds, chestnuts, filberds, and walnuts. Vineyards are cultivated in different parts of Germany, according to which the wine varies in its flavour; but those held in the greatest esteem are the

Rhenish, Moselle, Franconian, Weckar, Hocker, and Muscadel. Austria likewise yields excellent wine, particularly Rhenish, and Moselle, which have a medicinal quality. Vast quantities of honey are produced in this empire.

There are many large tracts of mountains in Germany, among the most considerable of which are the Alps, that divide it from Italy, and those that separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. Great part of this empire, however, is a spacious plain, interspersed here and there with agreeable hills, which only tend to heighten the beauty of the scene.

Germany was formerly a very woody country, and there are still large forests remaining; but that called the Hercynian, which in the time of Cæsar was nine days journey in length, is now divided into woods, which go by particular names, and in many places it is quite destroyed. The trees produced in this country are oak, beech, pine, white and red fir, alder, ash, birch, lime-tree, asp, or black poplar, larch, plane-tree, chestnut, olive, and walnut. Vast quantities of pot-ash, pitch, and charcoal are made in different parts of this empire; and the mulberry-tree, particularly the white sort, is greatly cultivated in others, for the benefit of the silk manufacture.

No country in the universe boasts more noble rivers than Germany. The first of these which deserves our attention is the Danube. It rises in Swabia, on the borders of Alsace, in the Black Forest, and, taking its course eastward, it encircles the city of Ulm, where it begins to be navigable; then passing through Bavaria, and being increased by the conflux of several rivers, it passes on to Vienna, Presburg, and Gran; when, running south, it passes by Belgrade, where losing its first name, it acquires that of Ilser; after which continuing its way between Serbia and Wallachia, and between Moldavia and Bulgaria, it at last falls into the Euxine or Black Sea, after a course of 1620 miles, in which its windings are not included. This river is exceedingly wide and deep; and between Vienna and Belgrade fleets of men of war have engaged upon it. But its rapid current, and the three great cataracts it contains, interrupt the navigation in many places; notwithstanding which, its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it passes is inconceivably great.

The Rhine, which is the next considerable river in Germany, rises from two springs in the Alps, and runs north to the lake of Constance, then west to Basil, afterwards north between Swabia and Alsace, then passing through the Palatinate, the electorate of Cologne, and the duchy of Cleves, at last enters the Netherlands, five miles below Cleves, where it is very broad and swift. The navigation of this river, like that of the Danube, is interrupted by nine cataracts, the principal of which is at Shaffhausen in Switzerland, where the whole river falls from a height of seventy-five feet. The direct course of the Rhine is above 500 miles;

miles; it is generally one quarter, and in some places half a mile broad, and from one and a half to seven fathoms in depth. It is navigable to Basil in Switzerland, which is 400 miles, by long boats, with round bottoms, of a considerable burden, which commonly go at the rate of four miles in an hour, and in these passages are conveyed at the easy rate of one penny for five miles.

The Elbe rises out of the mountains near Hirschburgh in Silesia, upon the confines of Bohemia, through which it runs north-west in eleven different streams, and dividing the German dominions of the king of Great-Britain from Holstein, falls into the German sea below Hamburg, having traversed a winding course of about five hundred miles. The tide in this river runs ten miles above Hamburg, to which city it conveys vessels of considerable burden.

The Oder has its source in Moravia, and runs from south to north through Silesia and Brandenburg; then passing by Stettin, and dividing eastern from western Pomerania, after a course of about three hundred miles, it falls into the Baltic between Usedom and Wollin, in three currents, having in its way formed several islands. Canals are cut between this river and the Elbe, to the infinite advantage of trade in the electorate of Brandenburg; but there are several sand-banks in the Oder which in many parts impede the navigation.

The Weser rises in the mountains of Thuringen, and running north through Bremen, Minden, Hesse, and Westphalia, it falls into the sea forty miles below Bremen, and within twenty of the mouth of the Elbe, having run a course of about 250 miles. This river is not navigable for ships further than Brake, or Elsfleth, fourteen miles below Bremen.

The Aller springs in the duchy of Magdeburg, runs north-west through the duchy of Lunenburg in Lower Saxony, and passing by Zell, continues the same course till it falls into the Weser below Verden.

The Moselle has its source in the Paucillis, one of the single mountains of Lorraine, and, running north through that duchy, waters Toul and Metz; after which continuing its course north-east, through the electorate of Triers, it falls into the Rhine.

The other rivers of inferior note in Germany are the Spree, the Pene, the Ems, the Mein, and the Saar.

The most remarkable lake is that of Constance, which is about 40 miles long, and, in some places, 10 broad. It runs from south-east to north-west along part of the east side of Switzerland, which it separates from Swabia. The water of this lake is exceedingly clear. To this we may add the Czirnitz lake in Carniola. The lakes as well as the rivers of Germany abound in fish, the several species of which have been already mentioned.

Germany is supposed to produce more salutary springs and baths than any other nation in Europe. Moravia alone is said to contain thirty; and, within the limits

of the several circles, are reckoned a thousand springs of mineral waters only, some of which are hot, some cold, and others that are at different times both hot and cold. The mineral waters at Spa in Westphalia, are contained in five wells, but three of them are held in higher esteem than the other two, viz. Pouthon, Sauranaire, and Geroustere. These waters were known to the Romans, and are esteemed an excellent medicine in the gravel, sciatica, and all scorbutic disorders.

Pyrmont likewise, situated in the circle of Westphalia, is famous for its mineral-waters, which issue from several springs in the neighbourhood; and in the imperial city of Aix-la-Chapelle are a great number of mineral springs both hot and cold, which are all distinguished by particular names. The Emperor's Bath and Little Bath are so exceedingly hot, that they are always left to cool eight or ten hours before they are used; but the Rose Bath, the Poor's Bath, and that of St. Cornelle, are neither so hot nor so clear as the two former. The cold springs are all adjoining to the hot ones; and near the Emperor's Bath there is a fountain of warm water, of infinite use in all chronic diseases. These waters are all impregnated with sulphur, salt, nitre, salt-petre, and alum, and give relief in various kinds of maladies. They are at first disagreeable to the taste, and always offensive to the smell. There are two seasons of the year in which they may be drank. The first begins about the middle of May, and the second about the middle of August, and each continues six weeks. At these seasons the city is crowded with nobility and gentry from all parts of Europe. As there is no disease but what one or other of the medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwaback, Baden, and Wildungen are said to cure, or at least to mitigate, they are all frequented, to the great emolument of those places, most of which are remarkable for their neatness, cleanliness, and conveniences; inducements which, together with the diversions, draw numbers together, who, being in perfect health, have no other business there than to seek amusement. Catsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by royal personages. The mineral springs at Wildungen are reported to perform wonders in almost all diseases.

Most parts of Germany abound in mines; many of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and virriol. In Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony, are found salt-petre, salt mines, and salt pits; as likewise carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphires, agate, alabaster, pearls of various kinds, rubies, and turquois stones. Quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, alum, bitumens, and several other fossils, are found in Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege. In several places stones are dug out of the ground, bearing on them the representation of divers animals, trees, and sometimes even a human form may be distinguished. Coal-pits are found in most of the circles, which in their

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Havelburg. Saltzburg, which has for its suffragans the bishops of Friefinghen, Ratifbon, Passau, Chiemse, Seckau, Lavant, Brixen, Gurk, and Neustadt. Vienna is likewise by some authors accounted a suffragan to Saltzburg, while others make it an archbishopric of itself, dependent only on the pope. Bremen, whose suffragans are the bishops of Lubec, Ratsburg, and Schwerin.

Since the Reformation, the claims of temporal princes have rendered it necessary to secularize the following archbishoprics and bishoprics: Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, Osnaburg, and Lubec; the archbishoprics were converted into duchies, and the bishoprics into principalities. The houses of Hanover and Bavaria have an alternate claim upon Osnaburg, and it is now in the possession of prince Frederic, second son to the king of Great-Britain. The revenue of this bishopric amounts to about 30,000*l.* per annum.

The German language is a dialect of the Teutonic, without the least affinity to the Celtic, and is called High Dutch, being the mother tongue of the whole empire. It abounds with consonants, is extremely harsh to the ear, and varies so much in its dialect, that the people of one province seldom understand those of another. We shall here insert their Lord's prayer:

Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, geheiligt werd dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille gesehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser täglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unser schuld, als wir vergeben unsern schuldignern. Und führe uns nicht in verführung. Sondern erlöse uns von dem bösen. Den dein is das reich, und die krafft, und die ewigkeit, en ewigkeit. Amen.

It is an unfavourable circumstance for German literature, that in most of the courts they speak French, and give it a decided preference: even the present king of Prussia has ordered the Philosophical Transactions of his royal society at Berlin, from the beginning of its institution, to be published in that tongue; by which some of the Germans think his majesty has cast a very undeserved reproach upon his native language. The court of Vienna, and a few others, prefer the Italian. Latin is likewise spoken very fluently by most of the nobility and gentry.

In Germany, the domestic diversions differ but little from those practised in England; they consist of billiards, cards, dice, fencing, and the like. In summer, the gentry visit the baths and other places of public resort. Their favourite field diversion is hunting; besides which, the Germans have bull and bear-baiting, and the like.

With respect to learning and learned men, it may justly be said, that no country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and the inhabitants in general apply themselves with great alacrity to reading and study. No man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one dissertation at

least; by which means thousands of theses and dissertations are annually published, and books multiplied without end. The German authors are generally condemned for being extremely prolix, dry, and voluminous in all their writings, and entirely ignorant of the engaging art of enlivening their performances, by mixing the entertaining with the instructive. The fine arts have flourished tolerably well in Germany; and the inhabitants pique themselves upon being the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotint.

Among their learned men, Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, and Hoffman, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; Newman, Patt, and Margff, of chemistry; and Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorf, Zimmerman, Thomafius, Otto Van Guericke, Kepler, &c. have acquired fame by their philosophical writings. Rabener has immortalized his name by his satirical works. Gesner's *Idylls* and *Death of Abel* have been favourably received in the English translations. The late professor Gellert's elegant writings, which are much esteemed, seem particularly adapted to touch the heart, and inspire sentiments of morality and piety. Haller the famous physician, Hagedom, Lessing, Kleist, Gerstenberger, Klopstock, Ramber, and others, have excelled in poetry; and Schlegel, Crongh, Wieland, and Wiese, have distinguished themselves by their dramatic writings. Their romances are dry and uninteresting. In sacred literature, Raphaelis, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous; and some of the best editions of the Greek and Latin classics have been published by Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiche, Enefti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne. Printing has been greatly improved in Germany, whose inhabitants are generally allowed to be the first inventors of great guns, and of gunpowder, in Europe, about the year 1320. This country has also produced some excellent painters, sculptors, and musicians; among the latter, may be named Handel, Bach, and Heise, of whom Handel is deservedly placed at the head; since it is acknowledged that he arrived at the sublime of music; though his ideas between music and sentimental expression were extremely defective.

The most celebrated public libraries are these of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Göttingen, Weymar, and the council library at Leipzig. There are thirty-six universities in Germany, of which seventeen are Protestant, seventeen Roman Catholic, and two mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, and Latin schools. Here are also many academies and societies for promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the nature curiosi; the academy of science at Vienna, Berlin, Göttingen, Erfurt, Leipzig, Dillingen, Gießen, and Hamburg. The three younger sons of his Majesty George III. namely, prince Ernest Augustus

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Thomasius, Otto Van Guericke, acquired fame by their works; and has immortalized his name by his Idylls and Deaths received in the English.

Gellert's elegant writings, seem particularly to inspire sentiments of the famous physician, Boerhaave, Klopstock,

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libraries are these of Hanover, Göttingen, the library at Leipzig is in Germany, of which the Roman Catholic, and number of colleges, gymnasiums, and many academies, the study of natural history, antiquities, painting, the Imperial Leopoldina; the academy of sciences, Erfurt, Leipzig, Dillenburg.

The three younger sons, namely, prince Ernest Augustus,

Augustus, Frederic Augustus, and Adolphus Frederic, were in the year 1786 sent to the university of Göttingen for education. Each of them is accompanied by a governor, a preceptor, and a gentleman; the expenses of their table were fixed at 600 crowns per week, and their different masters are allowed an extraordinary appointment of 1000 crowns per annum each. In 1734, his late Majesty King George II. converted this place (which was the ancient gymnasium) into an university. Its library is the best in Germany. There are academies for painting at Dresden and Nuremberg; a royal military academy at Berlin; and the Imperial Franciscan academy of fine arts is at Augsborg, to which the Latin society at Jena may be added.

In Germany, the most common silver coin is a sixpence, worth about 4s. 6d. a German florin or guilder is worth about half a crown, and a gold ducat about 10s. A crown in specie is equal to an English crown, but a crown current only to 3s. 6d. A German mark is 1s. 6d. All princes and other powers in the empire, who possess gold and silver mines, have the privilege of coining money, as far as the quantity they yield; some in a larger, others in a smaller specie: but there are only three or four mints allowed in each circle, unless an estate of the empire has mines of its own, and wants to erect a mint near them. By the laws of the empire, each coin ought to pass an annual examination, when all the money should answer to the same standard as that of Leipsic. The German coin in general is neither sterling nor due weight, and, to the great disadvantage of the public, is allowed to be more clipped than that of any other country in Europe. The money of most nations in Europe will pass for near half its value, in Germany.

We should now proceed to a description of the cities, towns, ports, and other edifices in the German empire, with their revenues, and other peculiarities; but this being a very copious article, especially in Germany, our limits will therefore only permit us to mention some capital places belonging to it. But it will be necessary, first of all, to explain what is meant by Hans-Towns, and Imperial cities, as these titles have frequently occurred in the account of the constitution of the empire. The Hanseatic towns, then, were such as united by a league of neutral defence against their enemies, to support the liberties of commerce, and to protect each other against the impositions of foreign princes: Lubeck, Cologne, Dantzick, and Brunswick, were the four capitals of this league, and each of these had a college. These free cities were very much respected, on account of their wealth and trade; and their privileges were confirmed in France by Louis XI. Charles VIII. Lewis XII. and Francis I. but they have since lost a great part of them; and this confederacy is at present of little consideration to many of these towns.

Vienna, the capital of the whole archduchy of

Austria, is situated on the Danube. The city itself is of no great extent, being only three miles in circumference, but the suburbs are very large. It is well fortified, and nothing has been omitted by the princes of the house of Austria that could contribute to its strength, grandeur, and opulence. The streets, however, are narrow and dirty, and would render the air exceedingly unwholesome, were it not for the high winds which blow here most part of the year. Besides the churches and convents, the last of which have generally extensive gardens and walks, this city contains about 1200 houses, from four to seven stories high, eighty streets, and fifteen principal squares, in most of which are beautiful fountains, and magnificent monuments, erected by different emperors. The public buildings are very numerous, and the religious ones alone occupy a sixth part of the town. The imperial palace is a mean piece of architecture, but the emperor's library is a great literary rarity. The university in this city is endowed with large revenues and privileges, and divided into four classes, each of which has peculiar rules and immunities, viz. the Austrian class for the students of Austria, Italy, and other countries beyond the Alps; that of the Rhine for the western parts of the empire, France, Spain, and the Netherlands; that of the Hungarians, for Hungary, Bohemia, and other countries which speak Slavonic, and some parts of Germany; and lastly, that of the Saxons, for Saxony, Sweden, Denmark, the north parts of Germany, Great-Britain, and Ireland. In this city are many hospitals, in one of which, called the Burgher-Hospital, near 3000 persons are maintained. By means of the Danube, Vienna is supplied with provisions, and every other convenience, as well as luxuries of life, and being the residence of the imperial court, it is continually crowded with Greeks, Transylvanians, Slavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, Italians, and other foreigners, each in the habits of their respective countries. The number of its inhabitants, exclusive of these strangers, are said to amount to about 200,000.

The inhabitants of this city are remarkable for their luxurious manner of living: in the winter they frequent the operas; and when the Danube is frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies divert themselves in sledges of different forms, such as grasshoppers, tygers, swans, scallop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap set off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. This diversion being chiefly taken in the night, their servants ride before the sledge with torches, and a gentleman sitting on the sledge behind, guides the horse. The destructive practice of gaming is more prevalent here than in any other town in the empire. His present Imperial majesty has greatly ameliorated the condition of his Austrian subjects.

jects, given great encouragement to the Protestants, and suppressed many Popish religious houses, convents, &c.

Berlin, the capital of the Prussian dominions, is situated on the Spree, and is one of the finest and largest cities in Germany, but a place of no strength. It consists of five towns united together, and is the usual residence of the royal family, and the seat of the high colleges. Its streets and squares are spacious, and contain many fine palaces and other public buildings; but the most remarkable is the royal palace, which consists of a vast pile of buildings, wherein neither regularity nor uniformity have been attended to by the different architects employed in erecting it. It is adorned with most beautiful paintings and tapestry, and such a quantity of gold and silver plate, particularly the latter, as is not to be met with in any other court in Europe: besides which it contains a cabinet of rarities natural and artificial, a choice collection of medals, with a dispensary, and a very fine library. The manufactures in this city are numerous and well provided, and it abounds with churches, theatres, schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. Busching tells us, that in the year 1755 the number of its inhabitants, including the garrison, amounted to 126,661, and that in the same year there were employed in that capital no less than 443 silk looms, 149 half silks, 2858 looms for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones, besides manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

Dresden, the capital of the electorate of Saxony, is situated on both sides the Elbe, and is a very magnificent city, containing strong fortifications, superb palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations. The electoral palace was built in the sixteenth century; but having been greatly damaged by a fire which happened in 1702, it underwent a thorough repair, and great part of it was entirely rebuilt. In the inner court of it is a collection of rarities, called the Green Vault, that has scarcely its equal in Europe. It is divided into seven apartments, in the first of which are a great number of small brass models of the most famous statues and monuments extant, both ancient and modern: in the second are a variety of curious works in ivory; in the third, works of pure silver; in the fourth, gilt silver plate, and vessels of pure gold; in the fifth, precious stones, and curiosities formed out of them; in the sixth, the arms of the several Saxon countries, the crown, sceptre, imperial apple, and other pieces, which were used at the coronation in Poland; and in the seventh, some very rare jewels. This city is the academy of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving. Here are manufactures for mirrors, and one of porcelain, but not equal to that carried on at Meissen in this electorate. It is impossible to enumerate the multitude of pieces of fine porcelain, both foreign and home made,

which are to be found in the Japanese palace near the white gate in Old Dresden; even the culinary vessels are made of this ware, and valued at a million of dollars. The foreign commerce of this city is carried on by means of the Elbe, over which it has a stately stone bridge of seventeen arches, that divides the city into the old and new towns. The number of inhabitants in the city and suburbs, which are very extensive, is supposed to be 110,000. The electorate of Saxony, reckoned the richest country in Germany, is said to contain 210 walled towns, sixty-one market-towns, and upwards of 2000 villages: its revenue amounts to 1,350,000l.

Hanover, the capital of that electorate, is situated on the river Leine, which divides it into the Old and New Towns. The streets are regular, broad, and well lighted, and contain about 1200 houses, many of which are built of timber and clay. The electoral palace being in 1741 destroyed by fire, was rebuilt with great magnificence.

Some manufactures are carried on in this city, and near it are the palace and elegant gardens of Herrenhausen. In the electorate are fifty-eight cities, and sixty market-towns, besides villages, containing about 750,000 people. The city and suburbs of Bremen contain about 50,000 inhabitants, and have a considerable trade by the Weser. The bishopric of Osnaburg lies between the Weser and the Ems. Its chief city has been long famous for the manufactures which go by its name, and for the best Westphalia hams. The other towns belonging to the electorate of Hanover have trade and manufactures; but these dominions have suffered greatly since the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, is situated at the conflux of the Oder and Ohlau. Including the suburbs, it is of great extent, having many large regular squares, broad streets, and public edifices, but the fortifications are very inconsiderable. In this city all sects of Christians, and even Jews are tolerated, but the magistracy of it is Lutheran. The buildings worthy notice are some of the churches, the bishop's palace, the Popish university, several of the monasteries and nunneries, and the exchange. There are also some good public libraries, two armories, a college of physicians, and a mint. Breslau is extremely populous, and the manufactures of Silesia, which are very considerable, principally centre there, so that several fairs are held annually in it, which occasions a great resort of Hungarian, Bohemian, Polish, and other foreign merchants. The revenue to his Prussian majesty is said to amount to near a million sterling.

The imperial town of Hamburg is situated on the Elbe, being almost in a circular form, and six miles in compass. This city, which is divided into the old and new towns, has six gates, and three entrances by water, viz. two from the Elbe and one from the Alster, which are strongly fortified with moats, ramparts,

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battions, and outworks. The ramparts are exceedingly
lofty, planted with trees, and of such a breadth as
to admit several carriages to go abreast. The public
offices, churches excepted, make no great appearance.
The cathedral is very ancient, and its tower leans as
if it would fall every instant, but on account of the
beauty and singularity of its architecture, it has not yet
been taken down. The Exchange at Hamburg is
very commodious, but far inferior to that of London.
The yard, arsenal, and 6 armories, are worthy the
inspection of a traveller. The trade of Hamburg is
very extensive, all the commodities and manufactures
of the several cities and states of Germany being
generally exported from thence. Its principal imports
are the woollen manufactures and other goods of Great-
Britain, to the amount of several hundred thousand
pounds annually. Its trade with Spain, Portugal, and
Italy, which is very considerable, is chiefly carried on
in English bottoms; and they employ fifty or sixty
ships every year in the whale-fishery. The inland
trade of this great city is quite equal to its foreign, and
exceeded by no country in Europe, except those of
London and Amsterdam.

Frankfort, a free and imperial city, and the usual
place of the election and coronation of the kings of
the Romans, is situated in a healthy, fertile, and de-
lightful country along the Main, by which it is di-
vided into two parts, and both are computed to con-
tain about 3000 houses. It is of a circular form,
without any suburbs; but the streets are generally nar-
row, and the houses are mostly of timber and plaster,
and covered with slate; though there are some hand-
some private structures, of a kind of red marble, that
have the appearance of palaces. The fortifications are
regular and solid; the ditches are deep, and filled with
fresh water.

The natural and artificial curiosities of Germany are
very numerous. Near Blackenburgh are two rocks, ex-
actly representing two monks in their proper habits.
In Harts-Forest is a cave, of which the end has never
yet been discovered, though travellers have advanced
into it for near twenty miles. Near Hamelen, about
thirty miles from Hanover, there is likewise a cave,
at the mouth of which stands a monument, to com-
memorate the loss of 130 children, who are said to
have been swallowed up in this place in the year 1284.
In one part of Saxony, stones are dug up in a field,
which exhibit a lively representation, by fair copper
flukes, of fishes of divers sorts, frogs, and other ani-
mals, that abound in a neighbouring lake.

Among their artificial rarities, we may notice the
great tun at Heidelburgh, which holds 800 hogheads,
and is generally full of the best Rhenish wine. The
churches, palaces, castles, bridges, and other public
buildings in this empire are well worthy attention,
particularly the former, many of which are of Gothic
architecture, and strike the beholder with an idea of
sole magnificence: the cathedrals and churches are

adorned on the inside with a profusion of gold, silver,
diamonds, and other precious stones. The Imperial
library at Vienna is a great literary curiosity: it contains
upwards of 80,000 volumes, amongst which are many
valuable manuscripts in most of the oriental languages.

The situation of Germany being in a manner in the
centre of Europe; its vicinity to the sea, and its inland
navigation, all conspire to the advantage of its com-
merce. Besides the productions of their mines and
minerals, the exports of this empire consist in the fol-
lowing articles: corn, hemp, hops, flax, anise, cum-
min, saffron, madder, truffles, tobacco, lean cattle,
butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, particularly the
Rhenish and Moselle; linen, stuffs, yarn, silk and cot-
ton stuffs, ribbons, toys, turnery wares in woods,
metals, and ivory; goat-skins, wool, timber, both for
ship-building and houses; cannon, bullets, bombs,
bomb-shells, iron-plates, and stoves; tin-plates, steel-
work, copper, brass-wire; hogs's bristles, mum, beer,
tartar, smalts, zaffer, Prussian-blue, printers-ink, mir-
rors, glasses, earthen-ware; the finest porcelain in the
world, and several other things.

After the revocation of the edict of Nantz by Louis
XIV. numbers of Protestant refugees settled in differ-
ent parts of Europe, and those which took shelter in
Germany introduced with themselves a great number
of manufactures into that empire. At present the inha-
bitants make velvets, silks, rich stuffs, stuffs half silk
and half cotton, variety of woollen stuffs and cloths, fine
and coarse linen, cheque linen, ribbons, lace, yarn,
thread, Silesia linen; canvas, sustians, table-linen, tick-
ing, fine and coarse woollen hose, and caps; gold and
silver galloon, embroidery, fine hats, tapestry, and Span-
ish rough and smooth leather. The manufactures of
paper, tobacco, wax, clock-work, guns, locks, tin-
plates, and white iron, are very considerable. The
artificers of Nuremburg are said to surpass those of any
other country in the working of steel, iron, brass, alab-
aster, and in toys of every kind. The Germans like-
wise excel in printing cottons, in dyeing, in making
fine lacquered works, mirrors, glass-ware; and the
porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, is
esteemed even preferable to that of China for the beauty
of its painting, and the fineness of the earth with
which it is made.

There are near 300. sovereign princes in Germany,
and every one of them arbitrary with regard to the
government of his own estates; but these princes form
a political confederacy, of which the emperor is the
head. Charles the Great, generally styled Charlemagne,
founded the German empire about the year 800, and
the imperial crown was hereditary in his family till the
extinction of his male issue, which happened in Janu-
ary 912. During this period the emperor was arbi-
trary, but then he consulted persons celebrated for
their abilities, and the rectitude of their conduct. On
the death of Henry IV. which happened in the year
1106, a constitution was formed, by which the right of

hereditary succession to the Imperial crown was abolished, and a free and voluntary election established.

About the middle of the thirteenth century, the chief princes of Germany assumed the title of electors; and, at the same time, appropriated to themselves the power of electing the head of the empire. The corporation, or body of estates over which the emperor presides, not in a dictatorial but executive capacity, consists of three classes, or colleges. The first of these is called the electoral college; the second, the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns. The electoral college consists of nine members, all of whom have particular offices in the imperial court, and in them is vested the sole power of electing the emperor. They are ranked in the following order; viz. 1. The archbishop of Mentz, high-chancellor of the empire in Germany. 2. The archbishop of Treves, high-chancellor of the empire in France. 3. The archbishop of Cologne, high-chancellor of the empire in Italy. 4. The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, cup-bearer. 5. The elector of Bavaria, grand-ferver, or officer who serves out the feasts. 6. The elector of Saxony, grand-marshal of the empire. 7. The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia) great-chamberlain. 8. The elector Palatine, great-steward. 9. The elector of Hanover, king of Great-Britain, arch-treasurer. Before the emperor calls a diet, it is necessary for him to have the advice of those members: the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles, during the vacancy of the Imperial throne.

The college of princes of the empire is composed of more members, but enjoys less power than that of the electoral. The members of this college are also divided into two classes, ecclesiastical and temporal. The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the nine already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburgh, the bishops of Bamburgh, Wirtzburgh, Worms, Spire, Munster, Strasburgh, Paderborn, Osnaburg, Lubbeck, &c. The chief of the secular princes are the landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswick, Wolfenbittel, Wirtemburgh, Saxe-Gotha, Mecklenburgh, the marquises of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Fursenburgh, and many others, who have all high titles, and are sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states; those which are imperial, or compose a part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; those which are hanse-towns, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbees, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute, some of them very considerable, and all of them chosen by their respective chapters.

The diet meets at Ratisbon, on the emperor's summons. This assembly, besides the election of an empe-

ror, makes laws, raises taxes, determines differences between the several princes and states, and can relieve subjects from the oppressions of their sovereigns.

But besides this general diet of the empire, there are yearly meetings of the states of one, two, or three of the circles that lie contiguous to one another, called from thence corresponding circles, of which there are three classes, the Upper Rhine, the Lower Rhine, and Westphalia; Upper and Lower Saxony; Franconia, Sraubia, and Austria. These assemblies take cognizance of the coin, the public peace, the magazines, fortifications, and commerce.

There are in Germany two supreme courts, erected for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members; namely, the imperial chamber, and the Aulic-council, or chamber of Vienna. The imperial chamber consists of fifty judges or assessors. The president and four others are appointed by the emperor; each of the electors choose one, and the other princes and states the rest. All causes may be brought into this court by appeal. The Aulic-council was originally nothing more than a revenue court of the dominions of Austria. But as the power of that family increased, the jurisdiction of the Aulic-council has been excluded; till at last, to the great disgust of the princes of the empire, it usurped upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even upon those of the diet. It consists of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, a certain number of Aulic-counsellors, of whom six are Protestants, besides other officers, but the emperor is in reality the sole master. These courts decide all causes according to the laws and constitution of the empire, and the principles of the civil law.

After the votes of the diet are collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor may, on an emergency, commit the execution of it to a particular prince or princeps, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent party.

The constitution of the Germanic body is of itself a study of no small difficulty. It will be needless to enumerate the several checks that have from time to time been invented to abridge the imperial power, as it is certain that the ambition of the house of Austria has more than once rendered all these checks abortive, and even threatened the liberties of the empire, which have been saved by France; the house of Austria has also lately met with a powerful opposition from the house of Brandenburg, in consequence of the activity and martial spirit of his late Prussian majesty. It may be necessary, in this place, to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently occurred in the German history, namely, that of the pragmatic sanction. This is a provision made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported

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pragmatic sanction is strongly guaranteed by almost all
the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of
Bavaria, and the late king of Poland, attempted to
overthrow it, as being descended from the daughters of
the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. The
court of Spain have likewise repeatedly opposed it.

In France, the lives and fortunes of the subjects
were entirely at the disposal of the grand monarch; but
few of the territories of the German princes are so
large as to be assigned to viceroys, to be oppressed at
pleasure by unfeeling officers; nor are they entirely
without redress when they suffer any grievance; they
may appeal to the general diet or great council of the
empire for relief. With respect to the burghers and
peasants of Germany, the former, in many places,
enjoy great privileges: the latter also, in some parts,
as in Franconia, Suabia, and on the Rhine, are gene-
rally a free people, or perform only certain services to
their superiors, and pay the taxes; whereas in the
marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Mo-
ravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. they may justly be deno-
minated slaves, though in different degrees. The
subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally
the most unhappy; for these princes usually affecting
the splendor and grandeur of the more powerful, in
the number and appearance of their officers and do-
mestics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities,
guards, bands of music, tables, dress, and furniture,
are obliged, in order to support all this vain parade, to
lay enormous taxes and burdens on their subjects and
dependents.

With respect to the revenues of the empire, we
shall only make those of the emperor, and a few of
the most powerful electors, the subject of this article.
The annual income of the emperor is not more than
5 or 6000l. sterling, principally arising from some
inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest. The Austrian
revenues, the value of money in Germany being con-
sidered, appear immense, amounting to 7,000,000l.
sterling in Germany and Italy—a prodigious sum in
those countries. The revenues of the Prussian majesty
cannot easily be calculated, but they are computed at
half a million sterling per annum; and his father,
who never enjoyed the Siberian revenues, left above
seven millions in his coffers. The revenues of the
other princes of Germany are in proportion to those
already enumerated; but it is difficult, perhaps impos-
sible, in a country comprehending so many different
states, to make any computation that can be satisfac-
tory to the public. To behold the magnificence of
many of the German courts, a stranger is apt to con-
ceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes,
which is chiefly owing to the high price of money in
that country, and, of course, the low price of provisions
and manufactures.

For maintaining the strength and forces of Germany,
and to provide for other contingencies, a constitution

was settled by Charles V. whereby every state of the
empire was to be taxed in proportion to its ability.
This tax, or quota, is entered into a public register,
called the matricula of the empire, and kept in the
office of the elector of Mentz; it contains the assess-
ments of men and money, which every prince and
state, who are members of the empire, is to advance,
when the imperial army takes the field. The contri-
butions in money are called Roman months, on account
of the monthly assessments formerly paid to the emper-
ors when they visited Rome; but those assessments are
subject to great mutability. However, upon a moderate
computation, the secular princes can bring into the
field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,500; in
all 453,500; of those 90,000 are supposed to be fur-
nished by the emperor, as head of the house of
Austria.

By this computation, which is far from being exag-
gerated, it appears, that the emperor and empire form
the most powerful government in Europe, and that if
the whole force was properly directed under an able
general, Germany would have nothing to fear from
any of its ambitious neighbours; but the different inter-
ests pursued by the several princes of Germany render
the power of the emperor of little consequence, except
with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very
formidable. The late emperor's army, in 1775, was
computed to amount to 200,000 effective men.

The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two
heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of
gold; and over the heads of the eagle is seen the imperi-
al crown. On the breast of the eagle is an escutcheon
quarterly, of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jerusalem,
Aragon, Anjou, Guelders, Brabant, and Barr. The
empress-dowager Eleanor, in 1662 and 1666, created
two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the order
of St. Theresa was instituted by the late empress-queen.

The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of
Spain, confer the order of the *Golden Fleece*, as descended
from the house of Burgundy. This order was institu-
ted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January
1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his
marriage with his third wife. It is supposed that he
chose the badge, it being the chief of the staple manu-
factures of his country. It consisted at first of thirty
knights, including the sovereign, who were of the first
families of the Low Countries, and it still continues
to be ranked with the most illustrious orders of knight-
hood in Europe. There are at present two branches
of it; the emperor is sovereign of the one, and the
king of Spain of the other; all the knights must prove
their noble descent from the 12th century. They
usually wear a Golden Fleece proper, pendent to a
broad plain red ribband round their necks; but on days
of ceremony, they wear the collar of the order, which
is composed of double steels, interwoven with flint
stones emitting sparks of fire, the whole enamelled in
their proper colours, at the end of which a golden
fleece

sleece hangs on the breast. The fuzils are joined two and two, as if they were double BB's, the cypher of Burgundy, and the flint stones, the ancient arms of the sovereigns of that duchy, with their motto, *Anteferit quam flammâ micet*, "He prefers what shines with flame." The motto of the Order is, *Pretium non vile laborum*, "Not a mean reward of our labours."

We have already noticed the *Teutonic Order*, in our account of Orders in the Netherlands; and shall only add, that this order owed its origin to some religious Germans at Jerusalem, during the crusades, who assumed the title of the Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hospital of our Lady of the Germans at Jerusalem. Conrad, duke of Suabia, invited them into Prussia about the year 1230; they soon after conquered Prussia for themselves, and became one of the most powerful orders in Europe; but, by the order dividing against itself, they afterwards lost their power and possessions; and Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, on his abjuring Popery, abdicated the grand mastership, subdued Prussia, and expelled all the Papists who followed not his example. The members of this order must take the oath of celibacy.

It is not certainly known when the order of the *Red Eagle* was instituted. The margrave of Barceith is sovereign of it. The badge is a golden square medal enamelled white, on which is an eagle displayed red. It is worn pendent to a broad red watered ribband, edged with yellow, and worn scarf-wise. This order is commonly bestowed on general officers.

The *Order of Sincerity* was established in the year 1690, by John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederick III. elector of Brandenburg, in terminating their disputes, and as a confirmation and surety hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold: on one side are the names of the two princes, with this device—*Amitié sincere*, "Sincere Friendship;" on the other side are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two swords, with two palm branches crossed with this motto—*Unis par jamais*, "United for ever."

The order of the *Noble Passion* was instituted in 1704, by John George, duke of Saxe Weissenfels, of which the duke is sovereign. The badge is a gold medal, enamelled white, on which is a star of eight points, gold, charged with a cross red, surmounted with an oval blue, on which are the letters J. G. in a cypher, the whole encircled with these words—*J'aime l'honneur qui vient par la vertu*, "I love the honour which comes by virtue." Each knight of this order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed soldiers in the service of the sovereign.

The order of the *Death's Head* was instituted in 1652, by the duke of Wirtemburgh, and revived in the year 1709, by his daughter Louisa-Elizabeth, widow of Philip, duke of Saxe-Mersburg. None but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) can be received into it; and the sovereign must be a princess

of that house. The badge of the order is a death's head, enamelled white, surmounted with a cross pattée black: above the cross pattée another cross composed of five javels, by which it hangs to a black ribband edged with white, and on the ribband these words—*Memento mori*, "Remember death," worn at the breast. They are to avoid gambling, theatrical amusements, and luxuries of all kinds.

The order of the *Chace* was instituted in the year 1702, by the duke of Wirtemburgh, and improved in the year 1719. The badge of this order is a gold cross of eight points enamelled red; in the spaces between the branches of the cross is an eagle displayed, red, and between the points of each traverse a bugle horn, and in the centre the letter W, and over it a ducal coronet enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a broad scarlet watered ribband, passing scarf-wise from the left shoulder to the right side. On the left side of the coat is a silver star embroidered, of the same figure as the badge, in the middle a green circle with the motto—*Amitié virtutisque fœdus*, "The bond of friendship and virtue." St. Hubert is the patron of this order; and the festival is held on his anniversary.

The order of *St. Hubert* was first instituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447: it was afterwards revived in the year 1709, by the elector palatine. The number of counts and barons of the order, who enjoy the memorial lands annexed to it, is limited to twelve, but the number of princes and private gentlemen is not fixed. The elector palatine is grand-master of the order. The badge is a cross of eight points, from the angles issue rays, and in the middle of a circle is enamelled the figure of St. Hubert kneeling before a crucifix, placed between the horns of a stag standing in a wood, having in the centre this device in the Runic language—*Constans in fidelitate*, "Constant in fidelity," on a red ground. All the knights have either military employments or pensions; before admitted, they are to prove the nobility of their descent for four generations, and, on the day of reception, are to pay 100 ducats to the poor.

The order of *St. Rupert* was instituted in 1701, by the archbishop of Saltzburgh, in honour of the founder and patron of the see he held, and as the apollite of his country. It is composed of twelve knights, who are distinguished by a chain of gold round the neck, to which is pendent a badge, which is a cross of eight points enamelled blue; and in the centre the image of St. Rupert. This order is in good esteem, as the archbishop is the richest and most powerful prince in Bavaria, next to the elector.

The order of *St. George, the Defender of the immaculate Conception*, was instituted in the year 1729, by Albert, elector of Bavaria. The badge they wear is a star of eight points, and on the centre is enamelled the image of St. George on horseback slaying a dragon. The cross is enamelled blue edged with white. On days of cere-

f the order is a death's head with a cross pattée. Another cross composed of a black ribband with a red ribband these words—"In fide, justitia, et fortitudine." worn at the collar, theatrical amuse-

was instituted in the year 1701, by Albert, duke of Prussia, and improved in this order is a gold cross in the spaces between the eagle displayed, red, and a silver bugle horn, and over it a ducal coronet.

It is worn pendent to a passing scarf-wise from the side. On the left side of the breast, of the same figure as a green circle with the motto—"The band of Hubert is the patron of this order on his anniversary."

was first instituted by a prince in memory of a victory on St. Michael's day, in 1447: it was instituted in 1709, by the elector palatine and barons of the order, and annexed to it, is limited to princes and private gentlemen. The elector palatine is grand-master. It is a cross of eight points, in the middle of a circle.

Hubert kneeling before the horns of a stag standing in this device in the Runic character, "Constant in fidelity," knights have either military or civil. If admitted, they are to be faithful for four generations, and are to pay 100 ducats to

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mony they wear the badge pendent to a collar composed of oblong plates with crowns at each end, and columns surmounted with globes, each column supported by two lions holding in their exterior paws two scymetars, the whole joined together with lozenge chains enamelled blue with white; on the oblong plates is this motto—"In fide, justitia, et fortitudine." The knights of this order are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The military and civil order of the *Golden Lion* was instituted by the present landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The badge is an octagonal medal enamelled red, in the centre a lion rampant, gold, ducally crowned; it is pendent to a broad watered crimson ribband, worn scarf-wise. This order is mostly conferred on general officers.

The military *Order of Merit* was also instituted by the present landgrave; the badge (which is worn at the coat, pendent to a blue ribband edged with silver) is a gold cross of eight points enamelled white, and in the centre this motto—"Pro virtute et fidelitate." For virtue and fidelity."

THE HISTORY OF GERMANY.

WE learn from Tacitus, a Roman historian, that the ancient Germans were noble, magnanimous, and beneficent, without cherishing the dangerous ambition of increasing their dominions, by invading those of their neighbours, from whom they had received no injury. Their hospitality was remarkable; and their love of independence carried to an amazing height. Inspired with an unconquerable enthusiasm for defending their liberty, they nobly withstood the Roman power, even in its greatest height. At that time the Germans were so far from being formed into a single community, that they were divided into a vast number of small kingdoms, or commonwealths. They might indeed look upon themselves, in general, as a nation descended from the same stock, and thence have some laws in common to them all, either for supporting each other against foreign invaders, or for the preservation of a due balance of power, among their vast variety of commonwealths; but, in other particulars, each had its own form of government, laws, policy, and interest. But they were all equally fond of liberty, and avowed enemies of all kinds of invasion.

These noble principles induced them to behold with jealousy and detestation the daily encroachments made by the Romans on all their neighbours; and to lend their assistance to those nations who were threatened with the chains of slavery. Hence arose those wars and conquests, which ended in the reduction of their country. The artful Romans took the advantage of their being divided into a multitude of small republics; they fomented jealousies among some, and found means to

bribe others. Against some they used force; against others the arts of flattery. By this means they conquered gradually that power, which, when properly united, had defiance to the Roman legions. But though Germany was reduced to a Roman province, the inhabitants regained their liberty, when the power of the empire was divided; and made ample reprisals on their conquerors.

In this situation continued affairs to the year 800, when Charlemagne, or Charles the Great of France, one of those superior geniuses formed for changing the laws of kingdoms, and reforming the barbarous customs that prevail among mankind, was advanced to the Imperial throne on Christmas-Day. He was the son of king Pepin, and succeeded him in the kingdom of France when Desiderius, king of Lombardy, possessed that throne, who, having insulted the pope and clergy of Rome, and compelled them to part with a great deal of that power they had usurped, Charles invaded Lombardy, defeated and deposed Desiderius; and going afterwards to Rome, the pope, who looked upon him as his deliverer, declared him a patrician, a title equal almost to that of emperor; investing him with authority to confirm future popes, and grant the Italian bishops the investitures of their sees; after which the pope swore allegiance to him upon St. Peter's tomb. Charles, in return, gave the pope a power of constituting exarchs, or governors, over the provinces of Ancona, Bologna, Mantua, Modena, Parma, Ferrara, &c.

King Charles afterwards made a conquest of part of Spain; of the north of Germany, then denominated Saxony; and pope Adrian dying, Leo III. being elected pope, was confirmed in the chair by Charles the Great, as patrician of Rome; and, on Christmas-Day, 800 (as before observed) the pope and senate of Rome conferred the title of Roman emperor on king Charles, and crowned him in the church of St. Peter, the people saluting him emperor at the same time. This prince reigned 14 years, and died anno 814. The successors of Charlemagne did not long enjoy the honour of a throne founded by their great ancestor. In the year 880 the states of the empire assumed their original independence, and placed the Imperial crown on the head of Arnolph, king of Bohemia: and, since that period, Germany has been considered as an elective monarchy. The princes of the most powerful families in Germany, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. The houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Suabia, have swayed the Imperial sceptre; but, in the year 1440, it passed to the house of Austria, who have ever since enjoyed it, except a short interval, when the duke of Bavaria, on the death of Charles VI. was placed on the throne: he did not long possess the Imperial dignity, but died of a broken heart, after a short and uncomfortable reign.

It would far exceed the bounds of this historical epitome to relate the events that happened during the reign

of these emperors: they consist chiefly of contests between them and the popes of Rome; and from these contests the famous factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, in the 13th century, had their rise; the former being attached to the popes, and the latter to the emperors; and these, by their virulence and inveteracy against each other, filled the empire with distraction for several centuries. Frederic III. duke of Austria, who ascended the Imperial throne in 1440, was very successful in his wars, and enjoyed the throne fifty-three years. He was succeeded by his son Maximilian I. who espoused the heirs of Charles, duke of Burgundy; and by this marriage, that duchy, together with the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria.

Charles V. the greatest prince that had filled the Imperial throne since Charlemagne, was elected emperor, on the death of his grandfather Maximilian, which happened in the year 1519. He was heir to the crown of Spain in right of his mother Joanna. During his reign the empires of Mexico and Peru in America were conquered, by which he became the sovereign of much larger and richer territories than any other prince in Europe. In his reign the reformation began in Germany. Charles violently opposed the followers of Luther, and a civil war broke out in the empire. This, together with the wars in which Charles was almost perpetually engaged against France, rendered his reign exceedingly troublesome. He was at first very fortunate, and is said to have been victorious in above thirty pitched battles which he fought in person: in the decline of life his good fortune began to forsake him; on which he abdicated the throne, and retired into a monastery, where he died about two years after. He was succeeded in the year 1558 by his brother Ferdinand I. who was very moderate with regard to the religious disturbances which still continued in Germany, and died in 1564, after having procured his son Maximilian to be elected king of the Romans.

Maximilian II. ascended the Imperial throne on the death of his father, without any new election, pursuant to the constitution of the empire. His reign was continually disturbed by internal commotions, chiefly on account of religion, and also invaded by the Turks; but he died in peace in 1576, and was succeeded by Rodolph, who obtained the Imperial sceptre on the death of his father: he was involved in a war with the Hungarians, and opposed by his brother Matthias. Perceiving that it would be in vain to endeavour to reduce the Hungarians to obedience while they were assisted by his brother, he therefore gave that kingdom, together with the duchy of Austria, to Matthias. This produced the desired effect, and Rodolph lived in peace the remaining part of his reign. On his death,

Matthias was elected emperor. During his reign the reformers were divided into two sects, called Lutherans and Calvinists, and opposed each other with so much fury, that the empire was threatened with a civil war.

But the ambition of Matthias, who had taken measures for exterminating both parties, reconciled them: At the same time, by persecuting the reformed in Bohemia, the people flew to arms, and threw the Imperial commissioners out of a window at Prague. This occasioned a dreadful war in that kingdom, which lasted thirty years. The persecution in Bohemia convinced both the Lutherans and Calvinists that nothing but a close union could prevent the destruction meditated by the emperor. Accordingly they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelical League, at the head of which was Frederic, the elector palatine, then the most powerful Protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to James I. of England. This was counterbalanced by a Catholic league.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded in the Imperial throne by his cousin Ferdinand II. but the inhabitants of Bohemia refused to acknowledge him for their king, and offered their crown to the elector palatine, who was imprudent enough to accept it. While he continued at the head of the Evangelical League, he was very successful; but was not able to support the crown he had imprudently received. He was totally defeated at the battle of Prague, and deprived of his palatinate.

The Catholics considered this victory over Frederic as a prelude to the destruction of the Protestant cause in Germany; but their expectations were built on a sandy foundation. The reformers had still generals able to lead their armies, among whom were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Christian duke of Brunswick, and the famous count Mansfield. Other Protestant princes also now perceived the necessity of joining their brethren, in order to support the religion they had embraced. Among these was Christian IV. king of Denmark, who was placed at the head of the Evangelical League. Christian engaged the Imperial army commanded by count Tilly, and was totally defeated. The Protestants were not however intimidated: they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, at the head of which was the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. His victories succeeded each other with astonishing rapidity, and the house of Austria trembled for its power, when he was killed in the battle of Lutzen, in the year 1632. But the Protestant cause did not fall with Gustavus. The generals formed under his care pursued the plan he had formed, and the emperor was convinced that there was no other method of saving the house of Austria, than that of putting an end to the war. Accordingly a peace was concluded at Munster, in the year 1648. By this treaty the Protestant religion was established in all parts of Germany where it was professed; and the claims and pretensions of most of the princes and states of Europe were finally settled. Before this event happened, Ferdinand II. died, and his son Ferdinand III. was placed on the Imperial throne.

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amiable princes of his time, so that he was at once hated and dreaded by his subjects. Soon after his accession to the Imperial throne, he found himself oppressed by two powerful nations, France and Turkey. The French took Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire from him; and the Turks, after over- running Hungary, laid siege to Vienna. Reduced to this extremity, Leopold had recourse to John Sobieski, king of Poland, for assistance. That prince, though he had before received very indifferent treatment from the house of Austria, marched at the head of a powerful army against the Infidels, and, being joined by the duke of Lorraine, attacked the Imperial general, attacked the besiegers in their trenches, drove them from their works, and totally defeated the grand Turkish army. In the mean time, the French pursued their conquests in so rapid a manner, that the other powers of Europe were alarmed, and a grand confederacy, consisting of the Empire, Great-Britain, the Dutch, and the north- ern powers, was formed, in order to check the progress of the French, and render abortive the ambitious and chimerical plan contrived by Louis XIV. for founding an universal monarchy. Though the arms of John Sobieski had driven the Turks from their conquests, the Hungarians, exasperated at the inhuman tyranny of the emperor, and encouraged by the protection of the Porte, were still in arms. At last a peace was concluded at Ryfwick, in 1697; and, two years after, the Turks consented to a peace, which was signed at Car- lowitz in 1699.

Peace had not long taken place in Europe, when Charles II. of Spain died, and, by his will, left his dominions to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson to Louis XIV. who immediately seized the Spanish do- minions, and proclaimed Philip king of Spain. This acquisition in favour of the house of Bourbon alarmed all the European powers; and a powerful confederacy was again formed in order to humble the exorbitant ambition of Louis XIV. The emperor claimed the Spanish crown for his younger son Charles, as the law- ful heir to those dominions. Accordingly Leopold in- vaded Italy; and the allied army, consisting of British, Dutch, and German forces, under the command of the celebrated duke of Marlborough, opposed the French in the Low Countries; where the armies of Louis were constantly defeated. In the midst of this success, Leopold died, and was succeeded in the Imperial throne by his son

Joseph, who endeavoured to throw the whole burden of the war on the English, though carried on solely for his benefit. He was even suspected of having formed a design to subvert the liberties of Germany; but before he could carry his plan into execution, or even reduce his Hungarian subjects to obedience, he was taken off by death in 1711. Joseph dying without issue, was succeeded by his brother,

Charles VI. the prince whom the confederates were labouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition

to the duke of Anjou. A peace was concluded at Utrecht in 1713, whereby the Spanish dominions in Italy, and the Netherlands, were ceded to the emperor. Charles now turned his whole force against the Turks, and they were soon after totally defeated by prince Eugene at the battle of Peterwaradin. The same general, in the year 1717, obtained another victory over the Infidels, before Belgrade; in consequence of which that important city fell into the hands of the Imperialists. Convinced, by these successive defeats, that the war, if continued, must be attended with very disagreeable consequences, the Turks offered to conclude a peace with the emperor, and the treaty was accordingly signed at Passarowitz in 1718. Charles, now free from the embarrassments of war, employed his time in making arrangements for securing and augmenting his hereditary dominions in Italy. Fortunately for him, the crown of Great-Britain had devolved to the house of Hanover, so that his connections with Geo. I. and II. gave him a decisive weight in Europe.

In the year 1724, Charles, who had no male issue, formed a design for settling his hereditary dominions on his eldest daughter, the archduchess Maria Theresa. But this plan did not interrupt his assiduity with regard to his hereditary dominions. On the contrary, he pursued his measures with so high a hand, that he gave great offence to George I. and, about the year 1724, a breach ensued between them. This contest might have proved fatal to the repose of Europe, had not each of the contending monarchs been principally attentive to a favourite object, to the attainment of which every other particular was to be sacrificed. That of the emperor was the settlement of his hereditary dominions on his daughter; and the aggrandisement and safety of Hanover possessed the chief place in the mind of the British monarch. It is, therefore, no wonder that mutual concessions in favour of these desirable acquisitions should restore peace and harmony between the two princes. The settlement Charles had made of his hereditary dominions on his daughter, was confirmed by a diet of the empire, and, being guaranteed by the principal powers of Europe, obtained the name of the Pragmatic Sanction.

Charles, having obtained this great object of his at- tention, turned his arms against the Turks; but his famous general, prince Eugene, was now dead, and he had no other capable of supplying his place. The In- fidels were therefore generally victorious. The mea- sures of the court of France being then pacific, he obtained, by the mediation of that power, a much better peace than he had reason to expect. By this treaty Belgrade was ceded to the Porte, and the rivers Danube and Saave made the boundaries between the two em- pires on the south. On the 28th of October 1740, Charles VI. died, and his eldest daughter,

Maria Theresa, some time before married to the duke of Lorraine, was declared queen of Hungary and Bohemia, and the lawful heiress of all the late emperor's hereditary

hereditary dominions, agreeable to the pragmatic sanction.

But notwithstanding the above treaty had been guaranteed in the most solemn manner by different powers, several princes, on the death of Charles, set up claims in direct opposition to that treaty. The young king of Prussia, at the head of a powerful army, reduced great part of Silesia, under pretence that it had been long unjustly detained from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria also claimed part of these estates, though they had never mentioned their pretensions in the time of Charles VI. The French, persuaded that a proper opportunity now offered for recovering what they had lost by the treaty of Utrecht, poured their armies into Bohemia, and threatened destruction to the house of Austria. Thus encompassed with armies, and in danger of falling a sacrifice to those very powers who had so lately guaranteed the pragmatic sanction, the archduchess determined to throw herself into the arms of her Hungarian subjects, though they had never shown any firm attachment to her family. Accordingly she summoned all the chiefs of that kingdom, and in a most pathetic speech recommended herself and her infant son to their protection. Touched with her youth and beauty, and enraged at the unjust proceedings of her enemies, the Hungarians promised to spend the last drop of their blood in her service. This fidelity of theirs to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they had received from her house, will always be recorded to their honour. Affairs now began to wear a more pleasing aspect. A peace was concluded with the king of Prussia, and the Austrian generals drove the French out of Bohemia.

The duke of Bavaria was in the mean time placed on the imperial throne, under the title of Charles VII. but his dominions being conquered by the Austrian forces, he retired to Francfort on the Maine. His Britannic majesty George II. now declared in favour of the queen of Hungary, and defeated the French at the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. In the mean time Charles VII. was miserable on the imperial throne, and would have accepted peace from the queen of Hungary almost on any terms; but the haughtily, and indeed impolitically, refused every overture of accommodation, and seemed determined to be amply revenged for the injuries she had suffered. This obstinacy offered a pretence for the king of Prussia's entering Bohemia, under colour of supporting the imperial dignity. He was very successful in his invasion; but perceiving it was in vain to expect assistance from the French, notwithstanding their repeated promises, he abandoned all his conquests, and retired into Silesia. Soon after this retreat of his Prussian majesty, Charles VII. died of a broken heart, and the duke of Lorraine, then grand duke of Tuscany, and consort to the queen of Hungary, was placed on the imperial throne. This event happened in the year 1745.

The war was now transferred to the Low Countries, where the French were very successful under the command of count Saxe. The misfortunes which attended the allied army in Flanders retarded the operations of the empress-queen against the king of Prussia, and prince Charles of Lorraine being defeated by that monarch, a peace was concluded, by which Silesia was ceded to his Prussian majesty, and guaranteed by the king of Great-Britain. This peace was, however, of no long continuance; the king of Prussia discovered, or at least pretended to discover, a secret convention, by which the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, had engaged to strip him of all his dominions, and divide them among themselves. His Prussian majesty therefore suddenly entered Saxony, drove the king of Poland out of his electorate, and took possession of Dresden. This irruption was however soon after terminated by a peace, under the mediation of the king of Great-Britain, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the grand duke of Tuscany emperor of Germany. The war was still continued in the Low Countries, but was terminated, in the year 1748, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which, however, did not put a period to the troubles of Germany for any long space of time, for it soon appeared the jealousy of the king of Prussia was not founded on imagination only.

The empress-queen and the empress of Russia, supported by France, kindled again the flames of war in the empire. The king of Prussia declared that he would oppose with all his power the entrance of the Russian forces into Germany, and his Britannic majesty protested against the French marching into that country. These two respectable powers thus agreeing in this fundamental principle, all former animosities were buried in oblivion, and the British parliament agreed to pay his Prussian majesty an annual subsidy of 670,000*l.* during the continuance of the war, the flames of which now broke out in Germany with greater fury and more destructive violence than ever.

The armies of his Prussian majesty, like an irresistible torrent, burst into Saxony, totally defeated marshal Brown at the battle of Lowositz, obliged the Saxon forces to lay down their arms, though almost impregnable fortified at Pirna, and caused the elector of Saxony to fly for protection to his regal dominions in Poland. The emperor now interposed his authority, and commanded the king of Prussia to desist immediately from troubling the repose of Germany. This imperial order being disregarded, his Prussian majesty was put under the ban of the empire, and the army of execution was ordered to be raised. The French poured their armies into Germany on one side, and the Russians on the other. Few histories afford an instance of conduct and intrepidity equal to that displayed by his Prussian majesty on this alarming occasion; it was indeed astonishing. He broke into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated near Prague

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the Austrian army, commanded by marshal Brown and prince Charles of Lorraine. In this action 20,000 men were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. This victory left the city of Prague open, which the king of Prussia immediately besieged; but before he could reduce it, the greater part of his forces were defeated at Collin by marshal Daun, which obliged him to raise the siege, and retire to Eifenach. This defeat, however, was far from intimidating the Prussian monarch; he soon after attacked the combined army of France and the emperor, at Rossbach, and obtained a complete victory, seized their baggage, and 164 pieces of cannon. This victory was soon after followed by another of still more importance; he attacked the grand Austrian army commanded by prince Charles of Lorraine, and the marshals Daun and Nadasti, at Lissa, and totally defeated them. By this time the Russians had advanced to Zorndorf, where they were also defeated by the Prussians.

We cannot undertake, in this compendium, to follow the armies of the contending powers in Germany through all the various scenes of action; let it suffice to say, that the greatest defeat his Prussian majesty received during the whole war, was by the Russians, near Francfort on the Oder. His affairs indeed now seemed desperate, but he had resources within himself that astonished all the world; he arose with new lustre after every defeat. He maintained a war against these formidable powers, till jealousy among the contending parties occasioned it to languish, and before the cause could be removed, the empress of Russia died on the 5th of January 1762. George II. had died on the 25th of October 1760.

These critical events saved the house of Brandenburg; nor were the Austrian generals themselves very forward to complete the destruction of Prussia. Already sufficiently haughty and despotic, it was thought very imprudent to increase the power of the court of Vienna. The new czar of Russia recalled his forces, and the English ministry had entered into a negotiation with France for putting an end to the troubles of Europe. This had a great effect on the belligerent powers in Germany; and on the 15th of February 1763, a definitive treaty of peace between the emperor and empress-queen of Hungary, and the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, on the one part; and the king of Prussia, on the other; was concluded at Hubertsburg near Leipzig; by which it was agreed that every thing should remain in the same state as at the beginning of this bloody war, which had proved fatal to many of the best generals in Europe; the king of Prussia lost above forty, among whom was the great marshal Keith, and general Schwerin. Marshal Brown fell in the battle of Prague, and Daun was dangerously wounded at Torgau.

The emperor died at Vienna in the year 1765, and his son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded to the imperial throne.

This prince was of a pacific and humane disposition, had discovered great talents for government, and given several pleasing instances of his ardent desire to render his subjects happy. He attended to their complaints in person, and redressed every grievance as soon as it was known. He visited his Italian dominions in person, and regulated many abuses which had crept into the government. He procured a personal interview with the late king of Prussia, though this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion were very unjust; but in the support of them, while the contest continued, the emperor displayed great military skill. Though vast armies were brought into the field on both sides, no very important action happened, and an accommodation at length took place.

The great good sense and noble disposition which seemed to predominate in the character of the late emperor, are strikingly exemplified in the following answer, which this illustrious prince gave to the inhabitants of Buda in Hungary, who, having derived the most important advantages from the transferral of several public offices to that city, which were before held at Presburgh, desired permission to erect a statue to his Imperial majesty, as a mark of their gratitude for the favour he had conferred upon them. The Hungarian deputies having laid their petition at the foot of the throne, the enlightened monarch, instead of acquiescing with their demand, wrote with his own hand the following answer at the bottom of the petition:

"When I shall have eradicated the prejudices which oppose themselves to the progress of reason, and they are replaced by a pure and well-directed zeal for the interests of our country, and the certain knowledge of what may be most advantageous to it:

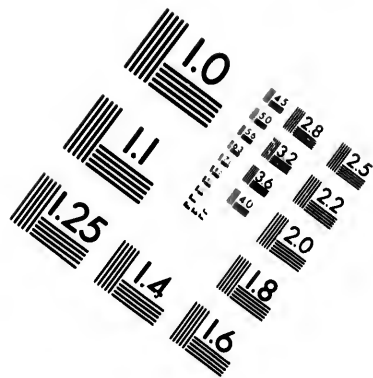
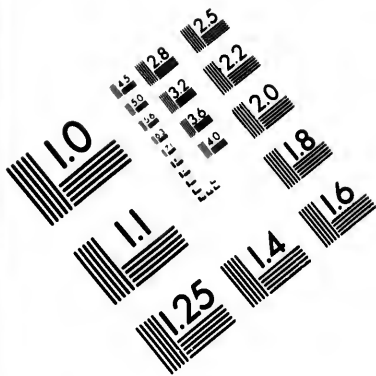
"When every individual of the state shall make his happiness consist in contributing, according to his abilities, to the well-being, safety, and increase of the monarchy:

"When I shall see equity and good order reign in the tribunals—knowledge increase by the perfection of learning—the instruction of the people more attentively regarded—the discipline of the clergy more regular, and harmony firmly established between the civil laws and the precepts of religion:

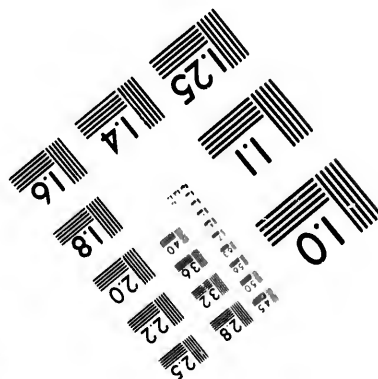
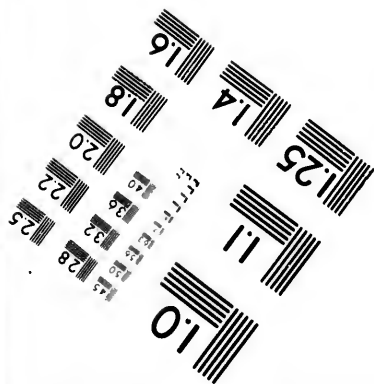
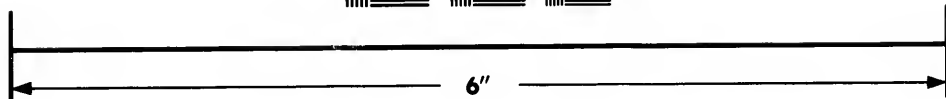
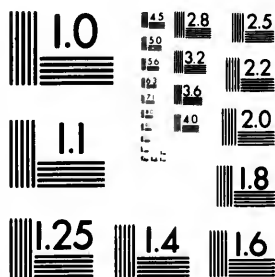
"When the true interests and duties of lords to their vassals, and of vassals to their lords, shall no longer be misunderstood:

"When an augmented population—an improved agriculture—a patriotic industry—and manufactures brought to the utmost perfection, finding a ready sale and free circulation through all the provinces of this vast empire, shall produce a pure and fruitful stream of real wealth, which I so ardently desire, and which I trust will, one day be realized—then, perhaps, I shall deserve a statue—but such an honour is not due to me for having,





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by the transferral of public offices to Buda, afforded to the inhabitants of that city the means of selling their wines at a higher price, and of raising the rents of their houses."

The late emperor Joseph expired on the 20th of February 1790, in the 26th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age. As king of Hungary and Bohemia, he was only in the 10th year. He succeeded to the imperial crown on the death of his father Francis on the 10th of August 1765; and to the hereditary dominions in the house of Austria on the death of his mother on the 29th of November 1780. He was twice married; first, to a princess of Parma; then to one of the princesses of the house of Bavaria; but having no issue by either of them, the succession devolved on his brother Peter Leopold Joseph, grand duke of Tuscany, now Leopold II. the present reigning emperor of Germany, who has united his forces with those of the other combined powers against the French republic. This war continued to be vigorously carried on by all parties in the beginning of the year 1794.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Produce, Religion, Inhabitants, Government, Revenues, &c.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, formerly called Ducal Prussia, belongs to the house of Brandenburg; and is quite distinct from Royal Prussia, which is subject to Poland. Its greatest length is about 160 miles, and its breadth about 112. To the north it is bounded by part of Samogitia; to the south, by Poland Proper and Masovia; to the east, by part of Lithuania; and to the west, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic.

The Borussi were the ancient inhabitants of this kingdom, and from them the present appellation of Prussia is evidently derived. Prussia, since the beginning of the present century, has become a very respectable power upon the continent of Europe; but as the territories of his Prussian majesty lie scattered in different parts of Germany, &c. it was thought proper to exhibit the whole in the following TABLE:

COUNTRIES NAMES.		Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	CHIEF CITIES.
Poland.....	Ducal Prussia.....	160	112	9,950	Koningsburg.
	Royal Prussia.....	118	104	6,400	Elbing.
Upper Saxony	Brandenburg.....	215	110	10,910	Berlin.
	Pomerania.....	150	63	4,820	Camin.
	Swedish Pomerania.....	90	48	2,991	Stettin.
Lower Saxony	Magdeburg.....	63	50	1,535	Magdeburg.
	Halberstadt.....	42	17	450	Halberstadt.
Bohemia.....	Glatz.....	38	23	550	} Glatz.
	Silesia.....	196	92	10,000	
Minden.....	42	26	595	Minden.
	38	34	525	Ravensburg.
Westphalia.....	Lingen.....	15	11	120	Lingen.
	Cleves.....	43	21	630	Cleves.
	Meurs.....	10	6	35	Meurs.
	Mark.....	52	43	980	Ham.
East Friesland.....	46	32	690	Embden.
Lippe.....	8	4	25	Lipstadt.
Gulich.....	44	24	528	Gulich.
Tecklenburgh.....	12	6	36	Tecklenburgh.
Netherlands.....	Guelder.....	34	23	360	Guelders.
Switzerland.....	Neufchatel.....	32	20	320	Neufchatel.
Total.....		52,450

Besides the above dominions, the present king of Prussia possesses great part of Silesia, which, under various pretences, he has wrested from Austria: he has also seized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Vistula, the Neister, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, close to the walls of Dantzick.

The air of Prussia, being purified by frequent high winds, is tolerably wholesome: the winters are long and severe, and the autumns frequently wet and stormy. The soil, where cultivated, proves fruitful in corn and other commodities. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, pitch, and a quantity of pot-ashes.

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IX.
PRUSSIA.

Climate, Produce, Revenue, &c.

PRUSSIA, formerly called to the house of Bran- from Royal Prussia, greatest length is about 12. To the north it is to the south, by Poland by part of Lithuania; and the Baltic. inhabitants of this king- appellation of Prussia is the beginning of the very respectable power but as the territories ered in different parts proper to exhibit the

CHIEF CITIES.

- Koningsburg.
- Elbing.
- Berlin.
- Camin.
- Stettin.
- Magdeburg.
- Halberstadt.
- Glatz.
- Minden.
- Ravensburg.
- Lingen.
- Cleves.
- Meurs.
- Ham.
- Embden.
- Lipstadt.
- Gulich.
- Tecklenburgh.
- Guelders.
- Neufchatel.

urified by frequent high : the winters are long e frequently wet and stormy. ves fruitful in corn and s furnish the inhabitants a quantity of pot-ashes. Here

Here is also a sort of manna, and a species of worm or insect called kermes, from which a beautiful red colour is extracted. Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer, and game, bears, wolves, lynxes, wild boars and foxes. The rivers and lakes abound with fish; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found in pits on its coasts, towards the Baltic. Wood for fuel, and pit-coal, are very plentiful.

The present inhabitants of Prussia are the descendants of Germans, Lithuanians, and Poles, with a mixture of French, English, and Dutch. The number of persons, capable of bearing arms, are computed at upwards of 600,000, and, since the year 1719, it is supposed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which, 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, eleven towns, eighty-six seats, and fifty new churches, in that part of the country called Little Lithuania; they have likewise founded 1000 village-schools. The manners of the inhabitants, and their customs and diversions, differ but little from those of the other inhabitants of Germany, to which the reader is referred.

The established religion in Prussia is the reformed, according to the tenets of Luther and Calvin; but, through his majesty's wisdom and moderation, Papists, Antipzedobaptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. Schools for the instruction of youth are dispersed throughout the kingdom. There is an University at Koningsburg, founded by the margrave Albert in the year 1544, which has thirty-eight professors, exclusive of tutors: in the same city is a college, styled Collegium Fredericianum.

Koningsburg, which is the capital of the whole kingdom, stands in 54—43 N. lat. and 21—35 E. long. on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges. It is well built, contains about 60,000 inhabitants, a great number of elegant houses, and a variety of gardens both public and private, is well fortified, and has an exceeding good harbour, well furnished with ships. Here is also a magnificent palace, the greater part of which was built by the margrave Albert. It is a very extensive building, and in it most of the public offices, courts, and colleges are held. The gardens and parks belonging to it are likewise both spacious and beautiful; and near it is the Gallegium Fredericianum. In the year 1544, the above-mentioned Albert founded here a college, which has thirty-eight professors, exclusive of tutors. The other public buildings of note, are, the Exchange, and Town-House, both very stately. Here is also the citadel called Frederic's-Burg, built in the year 1657, which is a regular square, surrounded with broad ditches and the river Pregel. Besides the hospitals and alms-houses, here is a charitable fund, from which above eight hundred people receive weekly pensions. This city was formerly a Hanse-Town, and its trade is still very

considerable. In the year 1752, near five hundred ships arrived in this port.

Berlin may with justice be deemed one of the finest and largest cities of Germany. It is the royal residence, consists of five towns united together, but has received astonishing improvements of late years. The streets are handsome, long, and capacious; here are some very elegant squares, and many fine palaces. One of the principal public edifices is the royal palace, a prodigious pile, but irregular, as it was erected at different times, and by various architects. It is decorated with admirable paintings, and beautiful tapestry, and furnished with a greater quantity of plate than any other court in Europe. It contains likewise a fine cabinet of rarities, natural and artificial, an excellent collection of medals, a dispensary, and one of the finest libraries in Europe.

Thirty miles west of Koningsburg is Pilau, a town of considerable strength, with a fine harbour, both which are defended by a strong fort mounted with a great number of cannon. It is situated at the mouth of the bay or lake called Fresche-Hoff; and this peninsula is so delightful, that it is called the paradise of Prussia. Pilau is a place of good trade, and the larger vessels consigned to Koningsburg, deliver and take in their cargoes here, the Fresche-Hoff not having a sufficient depth of water to carry them up to Koningsburg. In the village of Wogram, not far from hence, the flur-greens are boiled and packed up, and cavier made of their roes, of which the greater part is exported to England.

The largest and most wealthy town in Prussia, next to Koningsburg, is Tilsit. It stands on the river Memel, and carries on a considerable trade, especially with Koningsburg. Here is a salt factory, and a castle; and in the neighbouring county, which is remarkably fertile, great numbers of cattle are bred, and excellent butter and cheese made.

For curiosities and antiquities, natural and artificial, see GERMANY.

The late king of Prussia, by an indefatigable attention to the commerce and manufactures of his kingdom, brought them into a very flourishing state: he derived an amazing revenue from this country, which about a century and a half ago was the seat of hours and barbarism. It is said that amber alone, of which Prussia has been considered as the native country, brings him in 26,000 dollars per annum. Besides amber, the exports of this country consist of variety of naval stores, linseed, hemp-seed, oatmeal, cavier, mead, fish, and tallow; and 500 ships, chiefly from Koningsburg, are said to be employed annually in the conveyance of these articles to foreign countries. The manufactures of Prussia consist principally in iron-work, copper and brass scroll, glass, paper, gun-powder, cloth, silk, linen, camblet, knit stockings, and other articles. The lakes and canals afford great conveniencies for transporting merchandize; and, for

its extent, the kingdom of Prussia has the most inland navigation of any other in Europe, the Netherlands excepted.—The principal rivers are the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel, the Passage, and the Elbe.

The king of Prussia is absolute throughout his dominions, and, under him, the government is vested in a regency of four chancellors of state, viz. the great master, the great burgrave, the great chancellor, and the great marshall. There are also some other councils, and thirty-seven bailiwicks. The states of this kingdom consist of counsellors of state, and of deputies from the nobility and commons: his majesty has likewise erected a board for commerce and navigation, and there are several tribunals for the administration of justice.

The revenues of the king of Prussia arise principally from his demesnes, the duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies granted annually by the several states. Since the accession of Polish or Royal Prussia, his revenues are greatly increased: the local situation of these additional territories was of vast importance, as they lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Prussia; but this acquisition has rendered his kingdom compact, so that his troops may march from Berlin to Koningsburg without interruption, not to mention the benefit arising to trade and commerce by this means.

The Prussian military establishment is under the most excellent regulation. Every regiment has a particular district assigned it, where the young men proper for bearing arms are registered, till called upon to join their regiments, where, being incorporated with veterans, they soon become excellent soldiers. By this means, the king is never at a loss in forming his troops, or recruiting his army, which even in time of peace consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world, and, during the last war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the sovereign, is utterly inconsistent with the interests of the people; and in a country naturally so inadequate to it, has occasioned so great a drain from population, and such a withdrawing of strength from the labours of the earth, that the present king has endeavoured in some measure to save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries.

The arms of the kings of Prussia are; Argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned, Or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial scepter, Or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed, gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the crown of Prussia. The four orders of knighthood are as follow:

1. The order of *Concord*, instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace

to many of the princes of Europe. The badge is a gold cross of eight points, enamelled white; in the centre a medal bearing two olive-branches passing saltier-wise through two crowns, and circumscribed with the word *Concordans*, "Agreeing." The cross is surmounted with an electoral crown, and worn pendent to an orange-coloured ribband. 2. The order of *Generosity*, instituted by Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia. The knights wear a cross of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, *La Generosité*, "Generosity," pendent to a blue ribband. 3. The order of the *Black Eagle* was instituted by the same prince, on the day of his coronation, at Koningsburg, in the year 1700; the sovereign is always grand master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty: none but sovereign princes can be admitted into this order, till after having been previously received into that of *Generosity*. The ensign of the order is a gold cross of eight points, enamelled blue, having at each angle a spread eagle, enamelled black, being the arms of Prussia, and charged in the centre with a cypher of the letters F. R. pendent to a broad orange ribband worn saltier-wise over the left shoulder; and a silver star embroidered on the left side of the coat, whereon is an escutcheon, containing a spread eagle, holding in one claw a chaplet of laurel, and in the other a thunderbolt, with this motto round it in gold letters, *Suum cuique*, "To every one his own." The knight-caps are of black velvet with white plumes. 4. The order of *Merit* was instituted by his late majesty, in the year 1740. The king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. The ensign is a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, and edged with gold, having in the centre a cypher of the letters F. R. and in each angle an eagle displayed black; on the two upper points the regal crown of Prussia; on the reverse, the motto, *Pour le Merit*, "For Merit." The badge is worn round the neck, pendent to a black ribband, edged with silver. This order is conferred as the reward of merit of persons either in arts or arms, without distinction of birth, religion, or country.

THE HISTORY OF PRUSSIA.

The origin of the inhabitants of Prussia, like that of most other nations, is lost in the darkness of antiquity: we know, however, that in very early times the ancient Prussians were a very brave and warlike people, and refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on various pretences, attempted to reduce them to slavery. In particular, they made a noble stand against the kings of Poland, and in the year 1163 the Polish monarch, Boleslaus IV. was by them defeated, and slain.

They remained Pagans in opinion, and independent in circumstances, till the time of the crusades, when the

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the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1090, attempted to convert them by force of arms. Several bloody wars ensued, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the zealous fury of the Teutonic knights; and the latter having ravaged the country with incredible barbarity, attempted to repopulate it with Germans.

In 1466 a treaty was entered into between Casimir, king of Poland, and the Teutonic knights, in which it was agreed, that the country now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province under the protection of the king, and that the knights should possess the remainder, on condition of acknowledging themselves vassals to Poland. This treaty was however soon broken, another series of bloody wars ensued, and the knights attempted to become independent of the Poles, but their attempts proved abortive.

In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace, and entered into a treaty at Cracow, in which it was stipulated that the margrave should be acknowledged duke of the east part of Prussia, which on that account was called Ducal Prussia, but still it was to remain as a fief of Poland. In this manner the sovereignty of the Teutonic order ended in Prussia, after it had subsisted near 300 years.

In the year 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, surnamed the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed from its vassalage to Poland, and Casimir, king of Poland, acknowledged its independency. The late king of Prussia, in his memoirs of the house of Brandenburg, says, that this Frederic William began his reign under the most desperate circumstances. "He was," says he, "a prince without territories, an elector without power, a successor without inheritance, and just in the flower of his youth; so age, which, exposed to the vivacity of passions, renders mankind almost incapable of direction; yet he gave marks of the most consummate wisdom, and of every virtue that could render him worthy of command. He regulated his finances, proportioned his expences to his revenues, and got rid of those ignorant or corrupt ministers who had contributed to the miseries of his people." And in another place this royal author, in speaking of the same prince, says, "Europe in him beheld a prince, whose actions displayed the noble soul, and the superior genius; one while tempered with prudence, another time bearing that character of enthusiasm which forces our admiration; a prince who constantly repaired his losses without foreign succours; who formed all his projects himself, and put them in execution; who by his wisdom retrieved a desolated country; by his policy and prudence acquired new territories; by his valour assisted his allies, and defended his people; a prince, in fine, who was equally great in all his undertakings." This great prince died April 29, 1688, of the dropsy.

Frederic William the Great was succeeded by his son Frederic, who was afterwards the first king of Prussia. This great titular alteration was chiefly owing to the influence of the Protestant powers; for as the reformed religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors were of that persuasion, the Protestant interest was made use of to raise Frederic to the dignity of a king, and he was accordingly soon acknowledged as such, not only by the empire of Germany, but by all the other powers of Europe. His grandson, the late king of Prussia, in the memoirs of his family, gives no very favourable picture of the virtues, or high opinion of the abilities of this prince; he, however, speaks warmly in praise of his own father, Frederic William, who succeeded Frederic, the first king of Prussia, in the year 1713. This prince certainly had great talents, and uncommon courage; but he too frequently exerted both at the expence of that magnanimity and humanity which ever ought to embellish the heart of a monarch. He amassed so much money during his reign, that at his death, which happened in 1740, he left behind him the enormous sum of 7,000,000l. sterling, a treasure which afterwards enabled his son and successor to pursue the most important plans, and which, joined to his sagacity, courage, and great military talents, raised him to be of the utmost consequence in the political scale of Europe.

Frederic III. the late king of Prussia, was born in 1712, married in 1733 to Elizabeth Christina, of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, and began his reign, Jan. 31, 1740, so that he was twenty-eight years of age at the commencement of his reign.

This great prince died Aug. 17, 1786; aged seventy-four years, having reigned forty-six years, two months, and seventeen days. He left no issue, and was succeeded in the throne by Frederic William, his eldest brother's son, proclaimed king Aug. 19, 1786. Hath issue by his first consort Elizabeth Ulrica, of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, Charlotte, born May 7, 1767, married to the duke of York. He was married July 14, 1769, to his second consort Frederica-Louisa, of Hesse-Darmstadt. His issue by her are, Fred. William, born Aug. 3, 1770. Fred. Charles Louis, born Aug. 3, 1773. Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina, born Nov. 18, 1774, married Oct. 1, 1791, to the hereditary prince of Orange. Fred. Charlotte Augustus, born May 1, 1780. Another prince, born Dec. 20, 1781, and another in July 1783.

It may not be improper here to observe, that nothing remarkable of the late king's early years hath been transmitted to us, except that he had, when very young, a taste for literature and the polite arts, and shewed a particular passion for French breeding and delicacy of manners, in opposition to the inelegant customs that prevailed in his father's court. After his accession to the throne, he improved the arts of peace, as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet,

philosopher, and legislator. We have already mentioned some of the principal transactions of his reign in our account of Germany. In 1789 he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling in future would be required in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was due only to the Divinity. In 1789, near 2,000,000 crowns were expended by him in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy, for the benefit of his subjects.

In the year 1786, not long before his death, he instituted two hospitals for the aged of both sexes, and of all countries; and he granted 500,000 rix-dollars for the new establishments forming in Western Prussia, besides 100,000 rix-dollars for cutting a new canal from the eastern parts of Brandenburg to Berlin.

CHAP. XX.

B O H E M I A.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Climate, Mountains, Manufactures, People, Religion, Chief Towns, Revenue, &c.

THIS kingdom is situated between 48 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 12 and 19 deg. of east long. It is bounded on the north, by Saxony and Brandenburg; on the south, by Austria and Bavaria; on the east, by Poland and Hungary; and on the west, by the palatinate of Bavaria, comprehending, formerly, Bohemia Proper, Silesia, and Moravia. It is about 300 miles in length, from north to south, and 250, from east to west.

Bohemia Proper, W. is mostly subject to the house of Austria; its chief towns are Prague, Koningsgratz, E. Glatz, E. and Egra W. being in length 162 miles, and 142 in breadth, and containing an area of 12,060 square miles.

Silesia, E. mostly subject to the king of Prussia, has for its chief towns, Breslaw, Glogaw, N. Crossen, N. Jugendorf, S. Trowaw, S. subject to the house of Austria; and Teschen, S. also subject to Austria, being in length 196 miles, and in breadth ninety-two, and contains an area of 10,250 square miles.

Moravia, S. is entirely subject to the house of Austria; its chief towns are, Olmutz, Brin (middle), and Iglu, S. W. being in length 120 miles, and eighty-eight in breadth, and contains an area of 5,424 square miles.

The climate of Bohemia is rather unwholesome, owing, as is supposed, chiefly to the large woods with which it abounds. The soil is in general tolerably fertile, being well watered with rivers, particularly the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

The mountains of Bohemia contain rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and salt-petre; in other respects, there is nothing remarkable in them. There are many wild beasts and deer in the forests and woods.

The chief manufactures of Bohemia are linen, copper, iron, and glass; the exports consist chiefly of cattle, corn, metals, precious stones, linen, and wines.

We have no certain account with regard to the number of people in Bohemia. About the middle of the last century they were computed at 3,000,000, but it is thought they are less numerous at present. They resemble the Germans in their persons and habits; the peasants are naturally brave, and more inclined to arms than arts; they are open and agreeable in conversation, but superstitious, and easily imposed upon by artful and designing men. There are no gentry in Bohemia; every lord is sovereign in his own estate, and every tenant a slave; but the present emperor has generously discharged the Bohemian peasants on the imperial demesnes, from the state of villenage in which they have been so long and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his imperial majesty's example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and their vassals be permitted to enjoy the rights of human nature.

The Bohemians were formerly the most intrepid asserters of civil and religious liberty; and accordingly, at the time of the reformation, nobly opposed the emperor, at the head of the imperial army; but animosities prevailing among their leaders, they were obliged, after making the most generous struggles for independency, to submit. Exasperated at their opposition, their despotic masters employed every method in their power to break the spirit of the Bohemians, in order to render them more submissive to an arbitrary government, and an ignorant, bigoted clergy. The customs and diversions of Bohemia are the same with those practised in Germany, already described.

The established religion of Bohemia is Popery. The Protestant religion was early planted here by John Hus and Jerome of Prague; but since the banishment of its professors in the year 1639, that religion has not been tolerated. A few years since a mysterious kind of Protestantism sprung up in Moravia, under the auspices of count Zinzendorff, and has been since propagated in various parts of the globe; they have still a chapel in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations. The only archbishop in Bohemia is that of Prague; but there are three bishops under him; namely, those of Koningsgratz, Breslau, and Olmutz.

The proper language of Bohemia is the Slavonian, but the inhabitants generally speak German.

The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague; it was founded by the emperor Charles IV. and has generally 1400 students; but when the celebrated John Hus was rector of this seat of learning, it is alleged that their number amounted to 44,000.

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Prague, the capital of Bohemia (in E. lon. 14. deg. 30 min. N. lat. 50) is one of the most magnificent cities in Bohemia, and so large in circumference, that the grand Prussian army could never completely invest it, so that, in case of a regular siege, it can make a vigorous defence. The bridge over the Moldaw is a noble structure. The streets are spacious, and well laid out, and many of the public structures large and magnificent; but the city is not very populous, considering its extent, the number of inhabitants being computed at only 70,000 Christians, and 30,000 Jews. The trade is not considerable, but the Jews carry on a large commerce in jewels.

Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, we have already described in our account of Prussia.

Olmutz, the capital of Moravia, in E. long. 16 deg. 45 min. N. lat. 49 deg. 40 min. situated on a navigable river called Morawa, is a neat, strong, and populous city. The streets are regular, and the public structures elegant. It is a bishop's see, which about the year 880 was filled by St. Cyril. Here are manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder; and the inhabitants carry on a great trade with Hungary, Poland, Silesia, and Austria.

There are several other considerable places in Bohemia, some of which are fortified; but not remarkable either for strength, buildings, commerce, or manufactures.

The constitution of this kingdom was originally a limited and elective monarchy. But Ferdinand I. by his marriage with Anne, heiress of Bohemia and Hungary, annexing those kingdoms to the house of Austria, they have both become hereditary, and the governments despotic. The appearance of the old constitution is indeed still preserved, and is composed of the clergy, nobility, and representatives of towns, forming a kind of parliament. They meet every year at Prague; but never refuse to grant any thing their sovereign demands. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing to the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. The affairs of state are directed by a chancellor, who has under him a vice-chancellor, and several assessors and counsellors.

The revenues of Bohemia are said to amount to about 80,000*l.* a year; but they are in general whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. The standing militia of the Austrian hereditary countries is 24,000, towards which Bohemia furnishes 9000. In times of war, these serve to fill up the marching regiments.

The Bohemian arms are, Argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned langued, and armed, Or. For the orders of knighthood and coins, see GERMANY.

A SUCINCT HISTORY OF BOHEMIA.

WE have very little account of these people during the early times. The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In 1414, when Sigismund, king of Hungary, and afterwards emperor, filled the throne of Bohemia, the two celebrated reformers, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, were burnt at Constance, though the emperor had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia; and the inhabitants of Prague threw three of the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council chambers, into a ditch which surrounds the city. The famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, routed the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the Imperialists out of the kingdom. The death of Zisca was fatal to the Hussites, whose divisions among themselves enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia; but being afterwards convinced, that unless they acted with more unanimity, their cause would soon be desperate; they accordingly formed a league, called the Union, and had once more recourse to arms, electing, in the year 1619, a Protestant king in the person of prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The battle of Prague put a final period to Bohemian liberty; the elector Palatine was totally defeated by the emperor's generals, and obliged to seek refuge in Holland; and, during his exile, subsisted on a pension from the court of England. The Bohemians, after a war of thirty years duration, which almost desolated the whole empire, now remain subject to the house of Austria, who govern them by a despotic power, and grant more indulgences to the Jews, than to the Protestant subjects.

C H A P. XXI.

H U N G A R Y.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Rivers, Mines, Produce, Inhabitants, Religion, Curiosities, History, &c.

THAT part of this country which now belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Slavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is situated between the 17th and 23d deg. of east long. and the 45th and 49th deg. of north lat. being about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is bounded by Poland on the north, by Transylvania and Walachia on the east, by Slavonia on the south, and by Austria and Moravia on the west. This kingdom is usually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary in the following manner:

Upper

Upper Hungary, North of the Danube.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Presburg, situate on the Danube.
 Newhausel, N. W.
 Leopoldstad, N. W.
 Chremnitz, N. W.
 Schemnitz, in the middle.
 Esperies, N.
 Caschaw, N.
 Tokay, N. E.
 Zotmar, N. E.
 Unguar, N. E.
 Mungats, N. E.
 Waradin Great, E.
 Segedin, S. E.
 Agria, in the middle.
 Pest on the Danube; opposite to Buda.
 Temeswar.

Lower Hungary, South of the Danube.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Buda on the Danube.
 Gran on the Danube, above Buda.
 Komorra on the Danube, in the island of Schut.
 Raab on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut.
 Attenburg, opposite to the island of Schut.
 Weissenburgh, or Alba Regalis, situated east of the lake called Platten Sea.
 Kanisba, S. W. of the Platten Sea.
 Five Churches, north of the river Drave.
 Temeswar.

The last of these provinces was formerly governed by an independent king, and has been considered as distinct from Hungary: it has been several times in possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, incorporated it with the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. It has been divided into four districts, namely, Cladat, Temeswar, Werschez, and Lugos.

The climate in the southern parts of Hungary is very unhealthy, proceeding from the number of lakes, stagnant waters, and marshes, which infect the air; but in the northern parts, where it is exceedingly mountainous, it is much more salutary. The soil of the plain which extends from Presburg to Belgrade, a tract of 300 miles, is, without exception, as rich a soil as any in the universe.

The principal rivers in Hungary are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyffe, Meristh, and Tames. There are several extensive lakes in the vallies between the Carpathian mountains, and all abound with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed superior in quality to any in Europe, and are very numerous. While the Turks were in possession of this kingdom there were magnificent baths erected at several places, especially at Buda; but these buildings have been suffered to decay since the expulsion of the Infidels.

The mines in Hungary have been famous for many centuries; but at present they are not worked with the same vigour as formerly. The long and destructive wars between the Turks and Christians have greatly affected the produce of the mines; many of the works being destroyed, most of the workmen were driven from their habitations, and others perished by the swords of the enemy. Several of the mines are, how-

ever, still worked, to the great emolument of the natives, and advantage of the government. Some of them produce gold, others silver, and many excellent copper. Vitriol, iron, orpiment, quicksilver, chrysolite, lapis calaminaris, and terra sigillata, are also very plentiful here. The Hungarian gold and silver formerly employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and on the continent of Europe.

The fertile tract above mentioned produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chestnuts, and wool: the corn in particular is in such plenty, that it sells for one-sixth part of its price in England; and the wines, particularly Tokay, are preferable to those of any other country. The most remarkable animals are a fine breed of horses, generally of a mouse colour; and a particular breed of large rams near Presburg. Here are also buffaloes, horned or black cattle, asses, mules, bears, lynxes, stags, deer, chamois, goats, sheep, swine, &c. various kinds of wild fowl, such as partridges, woodcocks, moor-fowls, and likewise some birds.

The inhabitants of Hungary are descended from the ancient Hunns, Slavonians, and other northern nations, who were not able for a long time to drive the Romans out of the country, some of whose descendants are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking Latin. Both Hungary at present, exclusive of Transylvania and Croatia, are said to contain about two millions and a half of people. It is thought that, before the Turks were in possession of Constantinople, Hungary was one of the most powerful and populous kingdoms in Europe: and the Hungarians still value themselves on being descended from those heroes who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the bigoted fury of the Infidels. They are still a brave and magnanimous people: and their ancestors, even at the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that, rather than suffer the tyranny of the house of Austria, they have often submitted to that of Othman. In their persons they are well made: and their fur caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under one arm, that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. Their usual arms are a broad sword and a kind of pole-axe, besides their muskets and pistols. They shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. The nobility affect great pomp and magnificence, and are greatly addicted to feasting and drinking. The women are esteemed handsome, and their dress gives them an air of dignity. When they go abroad, they generally wear short cloaks and a veil. Both men and women, in what they call the mine-towns, wear fur, and even sheep-skin dresses. They are in general indolent, and leave trade, manufactures, and agriculture, to strangers, many of whom, particularly Greeks and

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Jews, are settled in this country; the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. In the province of Temeswar, there are many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to be the real descendants of the ancient Egyptians; whom they are said to resemble in their features, in their manners and customs, and in their propensity to melancholy. The lascivious dances of Isis, the worship of onions, many remarkable superstitions and specifics practised by the Egyptians, with their method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are affirmed to be still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar. The number of inhabitants in this province is about 450,000.

The religion established in this country is the Roman Catholic: for, though the Reformation was introduced higher in the 16th century, and made a considerable progress, the professors of it are now but barely tolerated, though much more numerous than the Papists. The Greeks and Jews are also very numerous, the latter of whom pay double taxes. The archbishopsrics are, Presburg, Gran, and Colocza: the bishoprics, Great-Waradin, Agria, Vespriin, Raab, and five churches.

The Hungarians being descended from Germans, Slavonians, and Walachians, it is no wonder they have a variety of dialects, one of which (used by the people called Zigdups) is said to approach near the Hebrew. The principal part speak German, and almost all, even of the common people, speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that it is still a kind of living language here.

Here are four universities, viz. Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Cacscham; the professors in all which are commonly Jesuits, who instruct the Roman Catholic youth in the arts and sciences. The Protestants are brought up at German and other universities; though even in Hungary they have their gymnasia and schools, but they are under several restrictions.

Among the natural curiosities of this country, are the rocks and caverns: the rock called Benikora is 3000 paces in perpendicular height. In a mountain near Szellitze, is a cavern, the aperture of which, fronting the south, is eighteen fathoms high and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away further south than has been yet discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height has been found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-five: this cavern is said to be exceedingly warm in the depth of winter, and surprisingly cold in the hottest part of the summer: great numbers of hares, foxes, bats, owls, and other animals, take up their winter abode here.

The bridges, baths, and mines of Hungary, form its chief artificial curiosities. The bridge of Esbeck, built over the Danube and Drave, is, properly speaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. This was an import-

ant pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. Between Buda and Pest is a bridge of boats across the Danube half a mile long; and, about twenty Hungarian miles from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, supposed at that time to have been one of the most magnificent in the world. Some of the churches are of admirable architecture, and several of the baths are exceedingly elegant.

The cities and public buildings have lost much of their ancient magnificence, but some of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg, though the capital of the kingdom, is neither large nor well-built, and is defended only by a double wall and ditch. Besides the cathedral, here are several Popish, and one Lutheran church, a Jesuits college, three convents, and two hospitals. On a hill above the town stands the castle, in which the regalia were kept, but have lately been removed to Vienna. The crown was sent in the year 1000, by pope Sylvester II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of solid gold, ornamented with fifty-three sapphires, fifty rubies, one large emerald, and 333 pearls: besides these stones, are the images of the apostles and patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a bishop carries it before the king, who afterwards brandishes it towards the four cardinal points, to shew that he will defend his country against all its enemies. From the cross above-mentioned is derived the title of Apostolic King; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress-queen Maria Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold. The sword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Firnan, on the river Tina, is a handsome royal town, in which are a great number of churches and convents, and an academy of Jesuits. Czernnitz, capital of the county of Bars, is one of the chief of the mine towns. Schemnitz is the principal mine town in Hungary. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab, Gran, and Comorra, are likewise fortified cities. Tokay, already noticed for its excellent wines, is situated near the confluence of the Theisse and Bodragh. Great Waradin is a well-fortified city, and the see of a bishop, situated on the river Koros, 110 miles east of Buda.

The principal manufactures of Hungary are those of copper, brass, iron, and other hard-wares. The exports consist chiefly of wine, horses, cattle, metals, minerals, saffron, wool, and leather. The commerce is chiefly carried on by the Greeks and Jews.

The government of Hungary preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal authority; for which purpose they have a diet or parliament, a Hungary office, which has some affinity to our chancery, and is

held at Vienna; and a stadholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction, and is held at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the sefan chais resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer, and nine chambers and other subordinate courts. The Hungarians have an utter aversion to the title of queen, and even called the late empress, king Therefa.

The emperor can at any time raise 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it more than 10,000, which troops are well known to the world by the appellation of hussars. The Hungarian infantry are termed heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed. Both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle. The hussars are not near so large as the German horse, and therefore stand upon the short stirrups when they strike.

Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage; and in the cabinets of the curious are still extant a complete collection of the coins of their ancient kings; and numbers of curious Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country.

The ordinary revenues of this kingdom is said to exceed a million sterling, arising from the mines, duties on cattle, royal demefnes, salt-works, contributions, customs, &c.

THE HISTORY OF HUNGARY.

THE first account we have of this country is, that the Huns settled here in the third century, and gave it their own name; for, before that time, it was a part of the ancient Pannonia. It was at first divided into many small principalities: these at length united under one head, who was stiled duke of Hungary. The last who enjoyed that title was Geysa, who, on being converted to Christianity, resigned his government to his son Stephen, in the year 1000. Stephen, on his ascending the throne, assumed the title of king; and is said to have governed his people with prudence and equity. Hungary however continued many years to be an elective kingdom, but generally in one family; and the constitution of the government to be a limited monarchy. In 1310, Charles-Robert ascended the throne of Hungary, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Slavonia, and several other provinces, which he annexed to his own dominions; but some of these conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians. In the fifteenth century, the Turks invaded Hungary, when Ladislaus, an infant, filled the throne; but were bravely repulsed by the celebrated Hunniades, who continued regent of the kingdom during the minority of Ladislaus.

On the death of that prince, the Hungarians, in

1438, placed Matthias Corvinus, the son of Hunniades, on the throne, in gratitude for the great services that hero had done his country. Hungary was now almost a perpetual theatre of war between the inhabitants and the Infidels, with various success, till the year 1526, when Lodowick, king of Hungary, engaging Solyman, emperor of the Turks, with very unequal forces, was defeated and slain in battle. By this victory Solyman made himself master of great part of Hungary. John, waywode of Transylvania, ascended the throne on the death of Lodowick; but was soon after deposed by Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. Solyman restored John; and this contest occasioned a war between the German and Turkish emperors, which lasted near 200 years. In 1527, Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, was placed on the Hungarian throne; and the Austrians having been able, during a long series of years, to influence the elections in such a manner as to keep the crown in their family, it is now become an absolute hereditary monarchy.

C H A P. XXII.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

General Description of these Countries.

AS we have no exact account of the extent and boundaries of these countries, it was judged most proper to include them under one description. Transylvania is bounded on the east by Moldavia and Wallachia; on the west by the Upper and Lower Hungary; on the north by Upper Hungary and Poland; and on the south by Wallachia. Its length is computed at 180 miles, and its breadth 120, and contains 14,400 square miles. This country is both mountainous and woody, and its produce, vegetables, and animals, are nearly the same with those of Hungary. The air is salutary and temperate; but their wine is inferior to the Hungarian. The forests are very extensive. The chief rivers are the Szamos, the Marro, and the Aluta. Here are several remarkable springs, gold, silver, copper, lead, iron mines, &c. and minerals, the produce of which they export into Hungary and other parts. All sects are tolerated in this country.

Hermanstadt, the chief city, and Kronstadt, are both large and well-fortified; as are Claufenburg and Weisenburg. The other large places are Sagefwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly.

the son of Hunniades, the great services that Hungary was now almost in the hands of the inhabitants and, till the year 1526, by engaging Solyman, by unequal forces, was by this victory Solyman added the throne on the throne after deposed by emperor Charles V. Solyman's conquest occasioned a war with the Turks, which Ferdinand, archduke of Hungary, and during a long series of years in such a manner as to, it is now become an

formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations when aggrieved. They owe not much more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of most of their privileges. Their interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. The number of inhabitants in this country is not ascertained; but as it is asserted they can bring 30,000 men into the field, it cannot be inconsiderable: its military force is at present reduced to six regiments of 1500 men each.

This principality is part of the ancient Dacia, the people of which were a fierce and warlike race, and very troublesome to the Romans. On the decline of their empire, it was first over-run by the Goths, and afterwards by the Huns. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and, though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1669, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Slavonia, to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what may be called a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1781, on account of some oppressions charged on the nobility, near 16,000 assembled, and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been blamed. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The malcontents were disappointed in their attempt on Clausenburg; and afterwards offered to separate and go home in peace, on condition of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. By the wise and lenient conduct of the late emperor, these disturbances were happily quelled.

Hermanstadt is the only bishopric in this principality; and indeed the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman Catholic is the established church, but Protestants are very numerous. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Christianity here about the year 1000, and the country was afterwards governed by a Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy.

SLAVONIA is situated between the 16th and 23d deg. of east long. and the 45th and 47th of north lat. It is bounded by the Drave on the north; by the Saave on the south; by the Danube on the east; and by Kiria, in Austria, on the west; and is supposed to be about 300 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The inhabitants are a mixed people, like those of Transylvania; and the country is equally fertile, but lies in a great measure unimproved.

The Slavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman Catholics, but there are several other sects. Here are two bishoprics; that of Pofega, which is the capital of the country; and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave. Esseck is a large and strong town, remarkable, as already observed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin

and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks.

This country was long subject to the Venetians, and afterwards to the Turks, who ceded the chief part of it to the house of Austria at the treaty of Carlowitz, and, in 1746, it was united to Hungary, by the late empress-queen.

The states hold diets of their own, and likewise send representatives to those of Hungary. A viceroy or ban presides over Slavonia, Croatia, and part of Dalmatia.

CROATIA is situated between the 15th and 17th deg. of east long. and the 45th and 47th of north lat. being about eighty miles in length, and seventy in breadth. The towns are all blended together, but Zagrab is supposed to be the capital; as to the manners, customs, &c. of the Croats, they are entirely similar to those of the Transylvanians. These people had formerly monarchs of their own, who styled themselves kings of Croatia and Dalmatia; and once this country was divided between the Hungarians and the Turks, but, at present, the greatest part of it is subject to the house of Austria, which, however, exercises very little power over it, except in what concerns the military arrangements; for the Croats are most excellent irregular troops, and are celebrated in modern history under the appellation of Pandours.

DALMATIA is situated in the upper part of the Adriatic Sea. In the fifteenth century the Venetians made themselves masters of it, but at present they only possess the chief maritime places; the other parts being divided among the Austrians, Turks, and Ragusans. This country is exceedingly mountainous; notwithstanding which, it is prodigiously fertile, for the hills are covered with olives, vines, and myrtles, and their bowels contain plenty of gold and silver ore. The plains produce great quantities of pasture, which feed vast flocks of sheep, and abundance of cattle. The language and customs of the people are Slavonic, and they profess the Roman Catholic religion. There is one archbishopric and five bishoprics in Dalmatia, viz. Zara, Zengh, Modrus, Fenen, Sebenico, and Tran. The principal town is Zara, which stands on a small peninsula, being divided from the land only by a deep ditch, into which the sea flows at high-water, under a draw-bridge: it is so well fortified as to be deemed impregnable; and the inhabitants pretend that the body of St. Simeon, who took the infant Jesus in his arms, lays in their cathedral, which is dedicated to that saint. There are several magnificent structures in Zara, particularly the archbishop's palace, convents, hospitals, the arsenal, magazines, and barracks. Segna is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Ottoschatz is a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. The governor resides in the old palace called the Royal Castle.

Under Dalmatia is included Morlachia, a country

XXII.

SLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND DALMATIA.

of these Countries.

Account of the extent and description. Transylvania, Moldavia and Wallachia, and Lower Hungary; Hungary and Poland; and on the north is computed at 1800 square miles. It contains 14,400 square miles of mountainous and woody land, and animals, are nearly the same as in Hungary. The air is salutary, and is inferior to the Hungarian. The chief cities are Marro, and the Aluta. Minerals, gold, silver, copper, iron, and other parts. All the mountains are covered with iron.

and Kronstadt, are both in Transylvania. The chief cities are Clausenburg and Weites. The mountains are covered with iron. The chief cities are Marro, and the Aluta. Minerals, gold, silver, copper, iron, and other parts. All the mountains are covered with iron.

full of high mountains, being a part of the ancient Liburnia: it is about sixty miles in length, and eighty in breadth. The inhabitants are of Walachian extraction, and bear a perfect resemblance to that people in their manner of living, &c.

The people called Morlacks, or Moriacci, inhabit Morlachia, which lies among the inland mountains of Dalmatia, a country extending along the N. E. coast of the gulf of Venice. The abbé Fortis, who has published a volume of "Travels into Dalmatia," has related many curious and interesting particulars concerning them. With regard to their character, we are informed that they are much injured by their maritime neighbours. The inhabitants of the sea coast of Dalmatia tell many frightful stories of their avarice and cruelty: but these, in our author's opinion, are all either of an ancient date, or, if any have happened in latter times, they ought rather to be ascribed to the corruption of a few individuals, than to the bad disposition of the nation in general; and, though thievish tricks are frequent among them, he informs us, that a stranger may travel securely through their country, where he is faithfully escorted, and hospitably treated. The greatest danger is from the Haiduks, or Banditti, of whom there are great numbers among the woods and caves of these dreadful mountains on the confines. There, says our author, a man ought to get himself escorted by a couple of these "honest fellows;" for they are not capable of betraying him, although a banditti; and their situation is commonly more apt to raise compassion than diffidence. They lead their life among the wolves, wandering from one precipice to another, exposed to the severity of the seasons, and frequently languish in want of the necessaries of life, in the most hideous and solitary caverns: yet they very seldom disturb the tranquillity of others, and prove always faithful guides to travellers; the chief objects of their rapine being sheep and oxen, to supply themselves with food and shoes. Sometimes it happens, that, in their extreme necessity, the Haiduks go in parties to the shepherds cottages, and rudely demand something to eat; which they do not fail to take immediately by force if the least hesitation is made. It is seldom indeed that they meet with a refusal, or with resistance, as their resolution and fury are well known to be equal to the savage life they lead. Four Haiduks are not afraid to assault a caravan of fifteen or twenty Turks, and generally plunder and put them to flight. The greatest part of the Haiduks look upon it as a meritorious action to shed the blood of the Turks; to which cruelty they are easily led by their natural ferocity, inflamed by a mistaken zeal for religion, and the discourses of their fanatic priests.

As to the Morlacchi themselves, they are represented as open and sincere, to such a degree that they would be taken for simpletons in any other country; and, by means of this quality, they have been so often duped by the Italians, that *the faith of an Italian*, and *the faith of*

a dog, are synonymous among the Morlacchi. They are very hospitable to strangers; and their hospice is equally conspicuous among the rich and poor. The rich prepares a roasted lamb or sheep; and the poor, with equal cordiality, offers whatever he has; nor is this generosity confined to strangers, but generally extends itself to all who are in want. When a Morlack is on a journey, and comes to lodge at a friend's house, the eldest daughter of the family, or the new-married bride, if there happens to be one, receives and kisses him when he alights from his horse, or at the door of the house: but a foreigner is rarely favoured with these female civilities; on the contrary, the women, if they are young, hide themselves and keep out of his way.

The Morlacchi in general have little notion of domestic economy, and readily consume in a week as much as would be sufficient for several months, whenever any occasion of merriment presents itself. A marriage, the holiday of the saint, protector of the family, the arrival of relations or friends, or any other joyful incident, consumes of course all that there is to eat and drink in the house. Yet the Morlack is a great economist in the use of his wearing apparel; for, rather than spoil his new cap, he takes it off, let it rain ever so hard, and goes bareheaded in the storm. In the same manner he treats his shoes, if the road is dirty and they are not very old. Nothing but an absolute impossibility hinders a Morlack from being punctual; and, if he cannot repay the money he borrowed at the appointed time, he carries a small present to his creditor, and requests a longer term. Thus it happens sometimes, that from term to term, and present to present, he pays double what he owes; without reflecting on it.

Friendship, that among us is so subject to change on the slightest motives, is lasting among the Morlacchi. They have even made it a kind of religious point, and tie the sacred bond at the foot of the altar. The Slavonian ritual contains a particular benediction for the solemn union of two male or two female friends in the presence of the congregation. The male friends thus united are called Pobratimi, and the female Pofestrene, which mean half-brothers and half sisters. Friendships between those of different sexes are not at this day bound with so much solemnity, though, perhaps, in more ancient and innocent ages, it was also the custom.

From these consecrated friendships among the Morlacchi, and other nations of the same origin, it should seem that the *sworn brothers* arose; a denomination frequent enough among the common people of Italy, and in many parts of Europe. The difference between these and the Pobratimi of Morlachia consists not only in the want of the ritual ceremony, but in the design of the union itself: for, among the Morlacchi, the sole view is reciprocal service and advantage; but such a brotherhood among the Italians is generally commenced by bad men, to enable them the more to hurt and disturb society. The duties of the Pobratimi are, to assist each other in every case of need or danger, to revenge

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the Morlacchi and their hospitality to the rich and poor. The sheep; and the poor, whatever he has; nor is it, but generally exact. When a Morlacchi goes to a friend's house, or the new-married one, receives and kisses the wife, or at the door of the house, is favoured with these attentions; the women, if they keep out of his way, have little notion of doing any thing in a week or several months, when they presents itself. A man, protector of the family, is, or any other joyful that there is to eat and drink, is a great economy; for, rather than let it rain ever in the storm. In the winter, if the road is dirty, nothing but an absolute necessity from being punctual; money he borrowed at the present to his creditor. Thus it happens sometimes, and present to present, without reflecting on it, is so subject to change among the Morlacchi, and of religious point, and of the altar. The secular benediction for the two female friends in the village. The male friends thus the female Pushtrems, half sisters. Friendships are not at this day, though, perhaps, in it, it was also the custom. Friendships among the Morlacchi, it should be said, arose; a denomination common people of Italy.

The difference between Morlachia consists not only in religion, but in the design of the Morlacchi, the sole advantage; but such a friendship is generally commenced the more to hurt and distress the Pobratimi are, to assist or danger, to revenge mutual

mutual wrongs, and such like. The enthusiasm is often carried so far as to risk and even to lose their life for the Pobratimi, although these savage friends are not celebrated like a Pylades. If discord happens to arise between two friends, it is talked of over all the country as a scandalous novelty; and there have been some examples of it of late years, to the great affliction of the old Morlacchi, who attributes the depravation of their countrymen to their intercourse with the Italians. Wine and strong liquors, of which the nation is beginning to make daily abuse, will of course produce the same bad effects as among others.

But as the friendships of the Morlacchi are strong and sacred, so their quarrels are commonly unextinguishable. They pass from father to son; and the mothers fail not to put their children in mind of their duty to revenge their father, if he has had the misfortune to be killed, and to shew them often the bloody skirt and arms of the dead. And so deeply is revenge rooted in the minds of this nation, that all the missionaries in the world would not be able to eradicate it. A Morlacchi is naturally inclined to do good to his fellow-creatures, and is full of gratitude for the smallest benefit; but implacable if injured or insulted.

A Morlacchi who has killed another of a powerful family, is commonly obliged to save himself by flight, and to keep out of the way for several years. If, during that time, he has been fortunate enough to escape the search of his pursuers, and has got a small sum of money, he endeavours to obtain pardon and peace; and, that he may treat about the conditions in person, he asks and obtains a safe conduct, which is faithfully maintained, though only verbally granted. Then he finds mediators; and, on the appointed day, the relations of the two hostile families are assembled, and the criminal is introduced, dragging himself along on his hands and feet, the musket, pistol, or cutlars, with which he committed the murder, hung about his neck; and, while he continues in that humble posture, one or more of the relations recites a panegyric on the dead, which sometimes rekindles the flames of revenge, and puts the poor prostrate in no small danger. It is the custom in some places for the offended party to threaten the criminal, holding all kinds of arms to his throat, and, after much entreaty, to consent at last to accept of his ransom. These pacifications cost dear in Albania; but the Morlacchi make up matters at a small expence; and every-where the business is concluded with a feast at the offender's charge.

The Morlacks, whether they happen to be of the Roman or of the Greek church, have very singular ideas about religion; and the ignorance of their teachers daily augments this monstrous evil. They are as firmly persuaded of the reality of witches, fairies, enchantments, nocturnal apparitions, and sorceries, as if they had seen a thousand examples of them. Nor do they make the least doubt about the existence of vampires; and attribute to them, as in Transylvania, the sucking

the blood of infants. Therefore, when a man dies suspected of becoming a vampire, or vukodlak, as they call it, they cut his hands, and prick his whole body with pins; pretending that, after this operation, he cannot walk about. There are even instances of Morlacchi, who, imagining that they may possibly thirst for children's blood after death, entreat their heirs, and sometimes oblige them to promise, to treat them as vampires when they die.

The boldest Haiduk would fly trembling from the apparition of a spectre, ghost, phantom, or such like goblins as the heated imaginations of credulous and prepossessed people never fail to see. Nor are they ashamed when ridiculed for this terror, but answer, much in the words of Pindar, "Fear that proceeds from spirits causes even the sons of the gods to fly." The women, as may naturally be supposed, are a hundred times more timorous and visionary than the men; and some of them, by frequently hearing themselves called witches, actually believe they are so.

A most perfect discord reigns in Morlachia, as it generally does in other parts, between the Latin and Greek communion, which their respective priests fail not to foment, and tell a thousand little scandalous stories of each other. The churches of the Latins are poor, but not very dirty; those of the Greeks are equally poor, and shamefully ill kept. Our author has seen the curate of a Morlack village sitting on the ground in the church-yard, to hear the confession of women on their knees by his side: a strange posture indeed! but a proof of the innocent manners of those good people, who have the most profound veneration for their spiritual pastors, and a total dependence upon them; who, on their part, frequently make use of a discipline rather military, and correct the bodies of their offending flock with the cudgel. Perhaps this particular is carried to an abuse as well as that of public penance, which they pretend to inflict after the manner of the ancient church. They moreover, through the silly credulity of those poor mountaineers, draw illicit profits, by selling certain superstitious scrolls and other scandalous merchandize of that kind. They write in a capricious manner on the scrolls called zapiz, sacred names which ought not to be trifled with, and sometimes adding others very improperly joined. The virtues attributed to these zapiz are much of the same nature as those which the Basilians attributed to their monstrously cut stones. The Morlacchi use to carry them sewed to their caps, to cure or to prevent diseases; and they also tie them for the same purpose to the horns of their oxen. The composers of this trumpery take every method to maintain the credit of their profitable trade, in spite of its absurdity, and the frequent proofs of its inutility. And so great has their success been, that not only the Morlacchi, but even the Turks near the borders, provide themselves plentifully with zapiz from the Christian priests, which not a little increases their income, as well as the reputation of the commodity.

The Morlacchi have also much devotion, and many of the ignorant people in Italy have little less, to certain copper and silver coins of the low empire; or to Venetian cotemporary pieces, which pass among them for medals of St. Helen; and they think they cure the epilepsy and such like. They are equally fond of a Hungarian coin called petizza, which has the virgin and child on the reverse: and one of these is a most acceptable present to a Morlack.

The bordering Turks not only keep with devotion the superstitious zapiz, but frequently bring presents and cause masses to be celebrated to the images of the Virgin; which is doubtless in contradiction to the alcoran; yet when saluted, in the usual manner in that country, by the name of Jesus, they do not answer. Hence, when the Morlacchi, or other travellers, meet them on the confines, they do not say, *Huaglian Iffus*, "Jesus be praised;" but, *Huaglian Bog*, "God be praised."

Innocence, and the natural liberty of pastoral ages, are still preserved among the Morlacchi, or at least many traces of them remain in the places further distant from our settlements. Pure cordiality of sentiment is not there restrained by other regards, and displays itself without any distinction of circumstances. A young handsome Morlack girl, who meets a man of her district on the road, kisses him affectionately, without the least vicious or immodest thought; and our author has seen all the women and girls, all the young men and old, kissing one another as they came into the church-yard on a holiday; so that they looked as if they had been all belonging to one family. He has often observed the same thing on the road, and at the fairs in the maritime towns, where the Morlacchi came to sell their commodities. In times of feasting and merriment, beside the kisses, some other little liberties are taken with the hands, which we would not reckon decent, but are not minded among them; and, when they are told of it, they answer, it is only toying, and means nothing. From this toying, however, their amours often take their beginning, and frequently end seriously when the two lovers are once agreed. For it rarely happens, in places far distant from the coast, that a Morlack carries off a girl against her will, or dishonours her: and, were such attempts made, the young woman would, no doubt, be able to defend herself: the women in that country being generally very little less robust than the men. But the custom is, for the woman herself to appoint the time and place of being carried off; and she does so in order to extricate herself from other suitors, from whom she may have received some love-token, such as a brass ring, a little knife, or such like tridles. The Morlack women keep themselves somewhat neat till they get a husband; but, after marriage, they abandon themselves totally to a loathsome dirtiness, as if they intended to justify the contempt with which they are treated. Indeed it cannot be said that even the young women have a grateful

odour, as they are used to anoint their hair with butter, which, soon becoming rancid, exhales no agreeable effluvia.

The unmarried women dress in the most complex and whimsical manner, in respect to the ornaments of the head; for when married they are not allowed to wear any thing else but a handkerchief, either white or coloured, tied about it. The girls use a scarlet cap, to which they commonly hang a veil falling down on the shoulders, as a mark of their virginity. The better sort adorn their caps with strings of silver coins, among which are frequently seen very ancient and valuable ones; they have moreover ear-rings of very curious work, and small silver chains with the figures of half moons fastened to the ends of them. But the poor are forced to content themselves with plain caps; or if they have any ornaments, they consist only of small exotic shells, round glass beads, or bits of tin. The principal merit of these caps, which constitute the good taste as well as vanity of the Morlack young ladies, is to attract and fix the eyes of all who are near them by the multitude of ornaments, and the noise they make on the least motion of their heads. Hence half-moons of silver, or of tin, little chains and hearts, false stones and shells, together with all kind of splendid trumpery, are readily admitted into their head-dresses.

In some districts, they fix tufts of various coloured feathers, resembling two horns, on their caps; in others, tremulous plumes of glass; and, in others, artificial flowers, which they purchase in the sea-port towns; and, in the variety of those capricious and barbarous ornaments, sometimes a fancy not inelegant is displayed. Their holiday-shifts are embroidered with red silk, and sometimes with gold, which they work themselves while they attend their flocks; and it is surprising to see how nicely this work is executed. Both old and young women wear about their necks large strings of round glass-beads, of various size and colour; and many rings of brass, tin, or silver, on their fingers. Their bracelets are of leather, covered with wrought tin or silver; and they embroider their stomachers, or adorn them with beads or shells. But the use of stays is unknown, nor do they put whalebone or iron in the stomacher.

A broad woollen girdle surrounds their petticoat, which is commonly decked with shells, and of blue colour, and therefore called *modrina*. Their gown, as well as petticoat, is a kind of serge; and both reach near to the ankle: the gown is bordered with scarlet, and called *sadak*. They use no *modrina* in summer, and only wear the *sadak* without sleeves over a linen petticoat or shift. The girls always wear red stockings; and their shoes are like those of the men, called *opanke*. The sole is of undressed ox-hide, and the upper part of sheep-skin thongs knotted, which they call *apute*; and these they fasten above the ankles, something like the ancient *colurnus*. The unmarried women,

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women, even of the richest females, are not permitted to wear any other sort of shoes; though after marriage they may, if they will, lay aside the opanke, and use the Turkish slippers.

The girls keep their hair tressed under their caps, but when married they let it fall dishevelled on the breast; sometimes they tie it under the chin; and always have medals, beads, or bored coins, in the Tartar or American mode, twisted among it. An unmarried woman, who falls under the imputation of want of chastity, runs the risk of having her red cap torn off her head publicly in church by the curate, and her hair cut by some relation, in token of infamy. Hence, if any of them happen to have fallen into an illicit amour, they commonly of their own accord lay aside the badge of virginity, and remove into another part of the country.

Among the Morlacchi, nothing is more common than marriages concluded between the old people of the respective families, especially when the parties live at a great distance, and neither see nor know each other; and the ordinary motive of these alliances is the ambition of being related to a numerous and powerful family, famous for having produced valiant men. The father of the future bridegroom, or some other near relation of mature age, goes to ask the young woman, or rather a young woman of such a family, not having commonly any determinate choice. Upon this all the girls of the house are shewn to him, and he chooses which pleases him best, though generally respecting the right of seniority. A denial in such cases is very rare; nor does the father of the maid inquire much into the circumstances of the family that asks her. Sometimes a daughter of the master is given in marriage to the servant or tenant, as was usual in patriarchal times; so little are the women regarded in this country. On these occasions, however, the Morlacchi girls enjoy a privilege which ours would also wish to have, as in justice they certainly ought. For he who acts by proxy, having obtained his suit, is obliged to go and bring the bridegroom; and if, on seeing each other, the young people are reciprocally content, the marriage is concluded, but not otherwise.

In some parts it is the custom for the bride to go to see the house and family of the proposed husband, before she gives a definitive answer; and if the place or persons are disagreeable to her, she is at liberty to annul the contract: but if she is contented, she returns to her father's house, escorted by the bridegroom and nearest relations. There the marriage day is appointed; on which the bridegroom comes to the bride's house, attended by all his friends of greatest note, who on this occasion are called *svati*, and are all armed, and on horseback, in their holiday-clothes, with a peacock's feather in their cap, which is the distinctive ornament used by those who are invited to weddings. The company goes armed, to repulse any attack or ambush that might be intended to disturb the feast;

for in old times these encounters were not unfrequent, according to the records of many national heroic songs. The bride is then conducted to a church veiled, and surrounded by the *svati* on horseback; and the sacred ceremony is performed amid the noise of muskets, pistols, barbaric shouts and acclamations, which continue till she returns to her father's house, or to that of her husband, if not far off.

Each of the *svati* has his particular inspection, as well during the cavalcade as at the marriage-feast, which begins immediately on their return from church. The *parvinaz* precedes all the rest, singing such songs as he thinks suitable to the occasion. The *bariahtar* brandishes a lance with a silken banner fastened to it, and an apple stuck on the point; there are two *bariahtars*, and sometimes four, at the more noble marriages. The *starivvat* is the principal personage of the brigade; and the most respectable relation is commonly invested with this dignity. The *stacheo's* duty is to receive and obey the orders of the *starivvat*. The two *diveri*, who ought to be the bridegroom's brothers when he has any, are appointed to serve the bride. The *knum* corresponds to our sponsors; and the *komorgia*, or *sefkana*, is deputed to receive and guard the dowry. A *ciaous* carries the mace, and attends to the order of the march, as master of the ceremonies: he goes singing aloud, *Breberi, Davori, Dobrafrichia; Jara, Pico*; names of ancient propitious deities. *Buklia* is the cup-bearer of the company, as well on the march as at table; and all these offices are doubled, and sometimes tripled, in proportion to the number of the company.

The entertainment on the first day is sometimes made at the bride's house, but generally at the bridegroom's, whither the *svati* hasten immediately after the nuptial benediction; and at the same time three or four men run on foot to tell the good news; the first who gets to the house has a kind of towel, embroidered at the ends, as a premium. The *domachin*, or head of the house, comes out to meet his daughter-in-law; and a child is handed to her, before she alights, to care for it; and if there happens to be none in the house, the child is borrowed from one of the neighbours. When she alights, she kneels down, and kisses the threshold.—Then the mother-in-law, or in her place some other female relation, presents a corn-sieve, full of different kinds of grain, nuts, almonds, and other small fruit, which the bride scatters upon the *svati*, by handfuls, behind her back.

The bride does not sit at the great table the first day, but has one apart for herself, the two *diveri*, and the *stacheo*. The bridegroom sits at table with the *svati*; but in all that day, consecrated to the matrimonial union, he must neither unloosen or cut any thing whatever. The *knum* carves his meat, and cuts his bread. It is the *domachin's* business to give the toasts; and the *starivvat* is the first who pledges him. Generally the *buk-kara*, a very large wooden cup, goes round, first to the

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saint protector of the family; next to the prosperity of the holy faith; and sometimes to a name the most sublime and venerable. The most extravagant abundance reigns at these feasts; and each of the *svati* contributes, by sending a share of provisions.

The dinner begins, with fruit and cheese; and the soup comes last, just contrary to our custom. All sorts of domestic fowls, kid, lamb, and sometimes venison, are heaped in prodigal quantities upon their tables; but very rarely a Morlack eats veal, and perhaps never, unless he has been persuaded to do it out of his own country. This abhorrence to calves flesh is very ancient among the Morlacchi. St. Jerom, against Jovirian, takes notice of it; and Tomeo Marnavich, a Bosnian writer, who lived in the beginning of the last age, says, that the Dalmatians, uncorrupted by the vices of strangers, abstained from eating calves-flesh, as an unclean food, even to his days. The women relations, if they are invited, never dine at table with the men, it being an established custom for them to dine by themselves.

After dinner, they pass the rest of the day in dancing, singing ancient songs, and in games of dexterity, or of wit and fancy; and in the evening, at a convenient hour after supper, the three ritual heaths having first gone round, the *knum* accompanies the bridegroom to the matrimonial apartment, which commonly is the cellar or the stable, whither the bride is also conducted by the *diveri* and the *stacheo*; but the three last are obliged to retire, and the *knum* remains alone with the new married couple. If there happens to be any bed prepared better than straw, he leads them to it; and having untied the bride's girdle, he causes them both to undress each other reciprocally.

It is not long since the *knum* was obliged to undress the bride entirely; but that custom is now out of use; and, instead of it, he has the privilege of kissing her as often as he pleases, wherever he meets her; which privilege may possibly be agreeable for the first months, but must soon become very disagreeable. When they are both undressed, the *knum* retires, and stands listening at the door, if there be a door. It is his business to announce the consummation of the marriage, which he does by discharging a pistol, and is answered by many of the company. The next day the bride, without her veil and virginal cap, dines at table with the *svati*, and is forced to hear the coarse equivocal jests of her indelicate and sometimes intoxicated company.

The ancient Huns called the nuptial feast *drave*, but they are by our Morlacchi called *Jdravize*, from whence our Italian word *Jdravizzo* is undoubtedly derived. They continue three, six, eight, or more days, according to the ability or prodigal disposition of the family where they are held. The new-married wife gets no inconsiderable profit in these days of joy; and it usually amounts to much more than all the portion she brings with her, which often consists of nothing but her own clothes and perhaps a cow; nay,

it happens sometimes that the parents, instead of giving money with their daughter, get something from the bridegroom by way of price.

The bride carries water every morning, to wash the hands of her guests as long as the feasting lasts; and each of them throws a small piece of money into the basin after performing that function, which is a very rare one among them, excepting on such occasions. The brides are also permitted to raise other little contributions among the *svati*, by hiding their shoes, caps, knives, or some other necessary part of their equipage, which they are obliged to ransom by a piece of money, according as the company rates it. And, beside all these voluntary or extorted contributions already mentioned, each guest must give some present to the new-married wife at taking leave the last day of the *svavize*; and then she also distributes some trifles in return, which commonly consist in shirts, caps, handkerchiefs, and such like.

There is very little variation in the performance of the nuptial rites through all the vast country inhabited by the Morlacchi; and those in use among the peasants and common people of the sea-coast of Dalmatia, Istria, and the islands, differ but little from them. Yet among these particular varieties, there is one of the island *Zlarine*, near *Sebenico*, remarkable enough; for there the *stari^{svat}* (who may naturally be supposed drunk at that hour) must, at one blow with his naked broad sword, strike the bride's crown of flowers off her head, when she is ready to go to bed. And in the island of *Pago*, in the village of *Novoglia* (probably the *Gissa* of ancient geographers) there is a custom more comical, and less dangerous, but equally savage and brutal. After the marriage-contract is settled, and the bridegroom comes to conduct his bride to church, her father or mother, in delivering her over to him, makes an exaggerated enumeration of her ill qualities: "Know, since thou wilt have her, that she is good for nothing, ill-natured, obstinate," &c. On which the bridegroom, affecting an angry look, turns to the young woman, with an "Ah! since it is so, I will teach you to behave better;" and at the same time regales her with a blow or a kick, or some piece of similar gallantry, which is by no means figurative. And it seems in general, that the Morlack women, and perhaps the greatest part of the Dalmatians, the inhabitants of the cities excepted, do not dislike a beating either from their husbands or lovers.

The women in the neighbourhood of *Dernish* are obliged, during the first year after marriage, to kiss all their national acquaintances who come to the house; but after the first year they are dispensed from that compliment; and indeed they become so intolerably nasty, that they are no longer fit to practise it. Perhaps the mortifying manner in which they are treated by their husbands and relations is, at the same time, both the cause and effect of their shameful neglect of their persons. When a Morlack husband mentions his wife,

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pardon. And when the husband has a bedstead, the
wife must sleep on the floor near it. Our author often
lodged in Morlack houses, and observed that the female
sex is universally treated with contempt: it is true,
that the women are by no means amiable in that
country; they even deform and spoil the gifts of
nature.

Among us, where the ladies suffer so much, not-
withstanding all the care and circumspection used be-
fore and after labour, the pregnancy and births of these
women would be thought very extraordinary: since
a Morlack woman neither changes her food, nor in-
terrupts her daily fatigue, on account of her preg-
nancy; and is frequently delivered in the fields, or
on the road, by herself; and takes the infant, washes
it in the first water she finds, carries it home, and re-
turns the day after to her usual labour, or to feed her
stock. The little creatures, thus carelessly treated in
their tenderest moments, are afterward wrapt in mis-
erable rags, where they remain three or four months,
under the same ungentle management; and when that
term is elapsed, they are set at liberty, and left to crawl
about the cottage and before the door, till they learn to
walk upright by themselves; and at the same time ac-
quire that singular degree of strength and health with
which the Morlacchi are endowed, and are able, with-
out the least inconvenience, to expose their naked
breasts to the severest frosts and snow.

The infants are allowed to suck their mother's milk
while she has any, or till she is with child again; and
if that should not happen for three, four, or six years,
they continue all that time to receive nourishment from
the breast. The prodigious length of the breasts of the
Morlachian women is somewhat extraordinary; for it
is very certain, that they can give the nipple to their
children over their shoulders, or under their arms.
They let the boys run about, without breeches, in a
shirt that reaches only to the knee, till the age of
thirteen or fourteen; following the custom of Bollina,
subject to the Porte, where no haraz or capitation-
tax is paid for the boys till they wear breeches, they
being considered before that time as children, not
capable of labouring, or of earning their bread. On
the occasion of births, and especially of the first, all
the relations and friends send presents of eatables to
the woman in childbed, or rather to the woman de-
livered; and the family makes a supper of all those
presents together. The women do not enter the church
till forty days after child-birth.

While young, the Morlacchi pass their time in the
woods, attending their flocks and herds; and in that
life of quiet and leisure they often become dexterous
in carving with a simple knife: they make wooden
cups, and whistles adorned with fanciful bass-reliefs,
which are not void of merit, and at least shew the
genius of the people.

There is a people in this country and Carniola,

called Uscocs, a rough savage race, large-bodied,
courageous, and much addicted to rapine; they are also
noted for their agility, skipping like goats among the
mountains, from rock to rock: some of them live in
scattered houses, and others in large villages. Their
language is Walachian, and their religion the Greek,
or something like it. These people, being galled by
oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia; from which cir-
cumstance they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the
word *Scaco*, a *deserter*.

The duchy of Carniola, which is a subdivision of
Austria, in Germany, is bounded by the gulf of Ve-
nice to the west, by Sclavonia and Croatia to the east,
by Carinthia and Stiria to the north, and by the Adria-
tic Sea to the south. It is 110 miles long, 50 broad,
rather cold, but, at the same time, tolerably fertile.
The lower class of people speak the Sclavonian, or
Wendish language, the better sort German, but both
with a very indifferent dialect. The peasants are a very
hardy set of people, going barefoot in the midst of win-
ter, never covering their breasts from the inclemency
of the weather, and sleeping on a hard bench, without
bed or bolster. In the Upper and Lower Krain the
people wear long beards; and such as live by ex-
porting the commodities of the country on pack-horses
are called Samers, or, more properly, Saumers. The
states of Carniola consist of the clergy, the nobility,
knights, and royal towns. Christianity was first planted
in this country about the middle of the eighth century,
and, in the sixteenth, Lutheranism made a considerable
progress in it; but, excepting the Walachians or Usc-
cocs, who are of the Greek church, and style themselves
Staraverzi, i. e. Old Believers, all the inhabitants at
present are Roman Catholics. In the whole duchy are
three bishoprics, twenty-four cloisters, four command-
eries, and 134 parishes; but to the bishopric of Ley-
bach belong also many parishes in Stiria and Carinthia.
The number of inhabitants are supposed to amount to
140,000. The principal commodities exported from
hence are iron, steel, quick-silver, white and red wine,
oil of olives, cattle, sheep, cheese, linen, and a kind
of woollen stuff called Mahalan, Spanish leather, honey,
walnuts, and timber, together with all manner of wood-
work, as boxes, dishes, trenchers, spoons, sieves, &c.
Carniola was long a marquise or margravate; but, in
the year 1231, was erected into a duchy. The arms of
Carniola are an eagle crowned, in whose breast and ex-
panded wings is to be seen a diced crescent.

We shall here give a description of the surprising
lake in Carniola, called by the natives the Zirchnitzer-
See: This lake has such very remarkable qualities in
its filling and emptying, and the uses it is of to the
neighbouring people as so many and various, that no
historians from the oldest times, of which we have any
account, have omitted to name it; yet neither the
ancients nor moderns have well described it, nor is
there any explanation of its phenomena given in any
of our books of travels; wherefore it may be accept-

able to the curious reader, to have a full account both of its nature and origin, and the reasons of all its changes preserved here.

It was called by the ancients *Lugea Palus*, or *Lacus Lugeus*, the *Lugean Lake*; but it is now generally known by the name of *Zirchoitzer-Lake*, which it has from the town of *Zirknitz*, near which it is situated.

The basin of this lake is three miles and three quarters in length, its breadth is two miles in some places, and a mile and half in the narrowest, and its depth, when full of water, is thirty-five feet in the middle, and from that to twelve or fifteen feet in the shallows. It lies in a small flat, every way surrounded with vast mountains, running many miles into the country, several ways. There run at 24 times into this lake eight rivers; the two least are called *Bellebrech* and *Trefnez*, and are trifling; but the others are all large rivers. With all this vast supply of water the lake never runs over, but has two large holes, in at which the water runs, and is carried off under the mountains. Beside these there is a third course, or subterraneous passage, which probably communicates with them also.

All these come out together on the other side of the mountain, into which they are received, and form the river *Jesero*; this river, after it has run a mile above ground, enters a stony cavern, and running slowly under the hill, about four hundred yards, it comes out again, and running about a quarter of a mile above ground, after this plunges into the earth again, and having passed about half a mile, it falls down a precipice, and is dispersed through all the adjoining country. All the mountains hereabout are full of vast caverns, formed by nature, and ornamented by the same great hand, with a vast variety of figures, in the manner of those in the grotto of *Antiparos*, so elegantly described by some travellers. The number and size of the caverns give us great reason to believe there may be others yet larger, which we cannot arrive at; and as those which we know are sometimes dry, and sometimes full of water, we may rationally suppose the others to be subject to the same alterations. This fair supposition will account for all the changes of the *Zirchnitzer-Lake*, and the reader, we hope, will not think this previous account of the face of the country tedious, as it will be necessary to the history of the lake itself.

In the latter end of July, or beginning of August, this lake usually begins to sink, and the water is wholly gone out of it in about sixteen days; it then remains dry, till the middle of November, when it fills again. This is the common method, though not certain, for it sometimes fills three times a year. There are vast numbers of fish and fowl brought up with the water, and deserted at its going off, which afford a vast advantage to the six or seven neighbouring towns, who have a right to the profit. There are three islands in the lake, and several pits in its bottom, of different

breadths and depths. According to this difference in depth, these pits empty in different order of time, one after another, and give a much better opportunity of selling the fish, than if they all were to be taken at once. When the water begins to run off, the pit *Maljoberch* is emptied in three days; the church bell gives notice of this, and all the inhabitants, men and women, lay aside all other business, and with it all shame and modesty, and run into the pit naked as they were born. The water runs out at the bottom of this, and of the other pits, by holes too small to admit the fish, so they are all caught; half is given to the lord of the manor, and the other half is the people's.

The pit *Velkioberch* is empty three days after this; three hours after this the pit *Kamine* empties; one hour after this another; five days after that another large one empties, but the holes are so large at the bottom of this, that they are forced to use nets to take the fish, which would otherwise get out at them. A day and a half after this, another pit empties; twelve hours after this another empties; and three days after that, a very large one, called *Reschetto*; this is fished with nets, and often affords time for three hauls, as the water goes off; and by these they will sometimes get between twenty and thirty carts of fish.

A few hours after this there is another emptied; in this pit they fish under ground, for there is a great hole in the stone at the bottom, and the men go down at this with lighted torches into a vast subterranean cavern, the bottom of which is of hard stone, but is full of holes, like a sieve; these let the water out, and the fish are all taken.

The pits are eighteen in number, and thus gradually become empty, so that in the whole there is time for the making the most of the fishing; but though they empty so long after one another, yet when they once begin to let out the water at all, it is all run out to the last drop in the space of a few minutes, though some of them are eighty feet wide, and thirty or more deep. When the regular fishing is over, the church bells give the signal all over the neighbouring country, and the inhabitants of towns, many miles distant, run to the lake, and enter all stark naked, to look for fish among the weeds, and in the subterranean caverns, of which there are many which have ways into them through holes in the bottoms of the pits. This gleaning of the fish is free for every body.

Some of these caverns are of immense size, and when there is thunder or lightning, those are subject to terrible noises within; the fish also, while the pits are yet full of water, are sometimes so stunned with lightning, that they float to the surface, and are taken out in vast numbers; but they come to themselves when thrown into other water.

In one of the largest mountains near this lake, there are two vast caverns, which, though generally dry, yet when it thunders, generally pour forth out of their mouths a vast quantity of water, in form of a column,

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of twelve or fourteen feet diameter, and to the height of as many feet; this throws into the lake with it a vast number of fish, and of wild fowl, as ducks and the like; and these at first are all blind, and very bald of feathers, and the people easily catch them in great numbers; but in about a fortnight they recover their sight, and have wings enough to fly with.

When one of these cascades of water has begun, the rest all follow, and it is a terrible, but pleasing sight, to see fifty of these columns of water tossed up from different openings in the mountains at once, and twice as many from the dry bottom of the lake itself.

The rivers that run constantly into this lake, while dry, are all received into the holes at the bottom, and never drown any part of it; but when the water is thus thrown up at many mouths at once, from some perpendicularly, from others obliquely, but from all in large columns, the whole lake will be filled in one day's time from being dry.

The first signal of the lake's filling, is a white vapour like a cloud, issuing out of the holes in the mountains; this is followed by thunder, lightning, and the most violent rains; and the Lake fills to a certain standard, and never higher.

The fowl are brought up with the water, and they resort from other places to it, from the neighbouring country for food, as long as the water remains in the lake. When it dries up, they have the vast advantage of the fishery, before described; as soon as that is all over, and the bottom is thoroughly dry, they pull up vast quantities of rushes there, which serve for many necessary uses of life, and are fine litter for their cattle. The soil of the water makes the land so rich, that in twenty days the whole bottom is covered with fine grass for hay; and after they have got this in, they plough it and sow millet, which quickly ripens, and yields a prodigious increase; but this is sometimes destroyed by the too early filling again of the lake; if not, as soon as this is got in, there is a fine pasture left for their cattle, and all the while it is on the ground, they have a vast quantity of quails among it: always when the bottom is dry there is fine hunting in it, the hares, deer, bears, and swine, coming down into it out of the woods and mountains, in great numbers.

The advantages this lake brings the neighbouring people are therefore infinitely greater than those of any other spot of ground in the world, and all these are brought on in the space of one year, thus successively one after the other.

The pike of this lake are found of thirty or forty pound weight, tench of six or seven pounds are very frequent, and cel-pouts of two or three pounds, very well tasted; there are crabs always found in great plenty in two of the pits, but none in any others, and they are not well tasted. The blind ducks being tossed up with the water may seem a very wonderful incident in other places, but there it is so common that no body regards it as a strange thing; and not only this lake,

but all the other places, where the water gushes out of the caverns in mountains thereabout in the same manner, afford more or less of them.

The true Account of the Filling of the LAKE.

The cause of these strange changes in the lake from full to dry, and all its other phenomena, may be accounted for in the following manner. There is under the bottom of this lake another subterranean one, with which it communicates by means of the holes in its bottom; and there are also many subterranean lakes in the mountain Javornick, whose surface is much higher than that of this lake. This upper lake is filled by some of those subterranean rivers, which we find are frequent in this country, and has an out-passage, which is big enough to carry what they usually bring into it; but when these thunder storms and violent rains come, the whole surface of the neighbouring mountains pour into these rivers all the water they receive; this is too much to be carried off by the common out-passage of the upper lake, and swelling it beyond its common surface, carries it up to places where there are holes in the rocks, by which all this mass of water is precipitately conducted into the subterranean lake, that lies under the bottom of the Zirchnitzer-Lake; and this water, when it has filled that lake, is thrown up through the holes in its top, and in the sides of the mountains in vast columns, to the height of the subterranean lake in the mountain Javornick. This must be the consequence of these accidents, according to the known laws of hydrostatics.

Such of these passages as have been level with the surface of the water in the lake of Javornick, bring away with the water the ducks of that lake, and these creatures are found in all the subterranean lakes of this country, covered but poorly with feathers, and their eyes being used only to so small a quantity of light as is in these darksome regions, when they are thrown up at once into broad day-light, are not able to bear it, but the creatures are blinded for some time, till custom makes it easy to them. Those passages which are wholly under water may throw up fish, though no ducks can belong to them, and many others too small to admit either ducks or fish, can throw up only water. Thus it is that the lake is suddenly filled, and that some of its feeding streams bring up only water, others water and fish, and others water, fish, and ducks.

The Account of the Emptying the LAKE.

When the lake has been thus filled, it must continue full as long as the other lakes which supplied it are in the same fulness; but as soon as the lake under the mountain Javornick, being no longer over-filled itself, descends below the channels, by means of which it supplied the lake under the Zirchnitzer-Lake, then the draughts from this under lake are greater than

than the streams into the upper lake can supply, consequently the Zirchnitzer-Lake sinks gradually, according to the excess of the water that runs out above that which comes in. Thus things are reduced to their natural state again, till a second land flood comes to over-fill the lake in Javornick, and so fill up in consequence the Zirchnitzer-Lake again; as the several pits in the bottom of this lake lie higher and lower, they are emptied regularly, one after another, according to this situation, the highest first; when this accidental quantity of water is carried off, all that the common supply of the rivers bring into it, is received in holes at the bottom, and running into the under lake, is discharged by the river Jesefero, in the country on the other side the mountain. All the ducks discharged up with the water, are bred in the lake under Javornick, they are all black, only that they have a white spot on the forehead, and they are well tasted, but too fat.

CHAPTER. XXIII.

P O L A N D,

Extent, Boundaries, Situation, Divisions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Animals, Inhabitants, Religion, &c.

THIS kingdom, before the late dismemberment, was very extensive, being 700 miles in length, and 680 in breadth; and (with the great duchy of Lithuania, anciently called Sarmatia, annexed) was bounded on the north by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic sea; by Muscovy, or Russia, on the east; by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary, on the south; and by Germany, on the west. The situation, between 46 and 57 deg. north lat. and between 16 and 34 deg. east long. This country is divided into the twelve following provinces; viz.

1. Courland (subject to Russia) 174 miles in length, and 80 in breadth, containing 4,114 square miles; its chief city, Mittaw.
2. Lithuania; 333 miles in length, 310 in breadth, contains 64,800 square miles; its chief city, Wilna. Most of this district is now possessed by Russia.
3. Podolia; 360 miles in length, 120 in breadth, contains 29,000 square miles; its chief city, Kaminiuk.
4. Volhinia; 295 miles in length, 150 in breadth; contains 25,000 square miles; its chief city, Lucko.
5. Great Poland; 208 miles in length, 120 in breadth; contains 19,200 square miles; its chief city, Gnesna.
6. Red Russia; 232 miles in length, 185 in breadth; contains 25,200 square miles; its chief city, Lemburg; this district is now chiefly subject to Austria.
7. Little Poland; 230 miles in length, 180 in breadth; contains 18,000 square miles; its chief city, Cracow; great part of this district is now subject to Austria.
8. Polesia; 186 miles in length, 97 in breadth; con-

tains 14,000 square miles; its chief city, Brestlic.
 9. Masovia, 152 miles in length, 90 in breadth; contains 8,400 square miles; its chief city, Warsaw.
 10. Samogitia, 155 miles in length, 98 in breadth; contains 8000 square miles; its chief city, Radium.
 11. Prussia Royal, or Polish Prussia; 118 miles in length, 104 in breadth; contains 6,400 square miles; and is now subject to Prussia.
 12. Polachia; 133 miles in length, 42 in breadth; contains 4000 square miles; its chief city, Bielh.

The name of Poland is derived from Polu, a Sclavonian word, implying a country proper for hunting, on account of its abounding with plains, woods, wild beasts, and every species of game. The climate of Poland is in general temperate, healthy, and more settled than those of such northern countries usually are: in the north parts, however, the air is exceedingly cold; and the Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with perpetual snow, which has even been known to fall in the height of summer. The soil is extremely rich and fruitful, and in many parts clays are found fit for making pipes and earthen-ware.

Poland is fertile in corn, great quantities of which are exported to other nations, it likewise produces hemp and flax: the pastures are rich beyond expression, so that the cattle grazing in them can hardly be seen for the height of the grass; all kinds of herbs and fruits are found here; and in many places there are vines, whose grapes are agreeable to the taste, but the wine made from them usually proves sharp. In the months of May and June a species of manna falls on the grass in the night; and in the morning is collected by the inhabitants, together with the dew, into sieves: the Poles esteem this production a great delicacy, and have various methods of dressing it. The interior parts of Poland contain forests, which furnish timber in such great quantities, that it is employed in house-building instead of bricks, stone, and tiles.

Here are mines of silver, copper, lead, iron, salt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, several species of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; false precious stones, and marine petrifications: other mineral productions are salt-petre, alum, talc, quicksilver, and lapis calaminaris; and on the sea-coast are found large quantities of amber. The water of many springs is boiled into salt.

The principal rivers in this kingdom are the Vistula or Weyfell, the Neister, Nieper or Borithenes, the Wiconen, the Bug, and the Dwina.

The chief lake which merits description, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzasty, or Brial, which is said to dye of a swarthy hue persons who work in it.

The forests of Poland afford shelter to a great number of wild horses, asses, oxen, boars, wolves, elks, deer, foxes, hares, and rabbits. Here are great numbers of uri, or buffaloes, the flesh of which, when salted, is eaten as a great delicacy by the Poles. Here

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The elk is very common in Prussia, Courland, Livonia, Norway, Poland, and other northern countries. It is as high, and every way as large as a horse, but its shape resembles that of a deer: its feet are broad and cloven, and its horns large, rough and broad, like those of a wild goat. Upon dissecting one of these animals, a vast number of large flies were found in its head, which had nearly devoured the brain. Towards winter these poor creatures are always attacked by these insects, which, through the passage of its ears find a way into its head, and there remain during that cold season: the humming of these vermin, and the continual torture occasioned by their feeding on the brain, subjects the elk to the epilepsy, when he is easily taken, which would otherwise prove a very difficult task. The flesh of this animal is eaten by the nobility, and esteemed a great delicacy.

The bohac resembles a Guinea-pig. These little animals dig holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not quit their lodgings till April, unless compelled to it for want of food; and in that case, they always set one or two as sentinels, who on the least appearance of danger give the alarm by making a very peculiar noise, which being understood by their companions, they all make a hasty retreat to their burrows, wherein they have separate apartments for their provisions, their lodging, and their dead; ten or twelve of them usually herding together in one hole. They are easily tamed, and in that state are very diverting.

The birds in Poland, which are very numerous, are such as have been already described in the other northern countries, except the quail, which is said to have green legs, and the flesh unfit for eating. Poland has no species of fish peculiar to itself; but its seas, rivers, and lakes abound in cod, ling, turbot, &c.

It is very difficult, if not impossible, to form an estimate of the number of inhabitants in a country of such vast extent as Poland, many of the remotest parts of which still continue to be little known, or in a very uncivilized state; but they were undoubtedly very numerous before the breaking out of the late war. Some have supposed Poland and Lithuania to contain 12,000,000 of inhabitants; and this calculation may not be exaggerated, when we consider that the Poles have no colonies, have sometimes enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are said to dwell there. Since the partition and dismemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Russia are the largest; those by the Austrians the most populous, and the Prussians are the most commercial. By the dismemberment of Poland, 3,000,000 of souls have been separated from their ancient kingdom; since the provinces seized by the Russians contain 1,500,000; those by the Austrians, 1,200,000; and those by the Prussians amount to about

860,000. The Poles, in their persons, are handsome and well shaped, with fair complexions; in their manners, brave, honest, hospitable, active, and hardy; the women are said to be of exemplary piety and virtue, both in their public and private conduct. These people are divided into three classes, namely, nobles, citizens, and peasants; the nobility are all on a level, except the difference that arises from the public posts they enjoy, and the only title they value is that of a gentleman of Poland. The nobles possess great privileges: they have a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals, pay no taxes, are subject to none but the king, may choose whom they please for their sovereign, and lay him under what restraint they think proper; and none but themselves, and the burghers of some particular towns, can purchase lands. Many of them enjoy estates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities with which the king has no concern. Some of them can raise eight or ten thousand men, and they have always a number of troops in their pay, who do duty night and day before their palaces, and in their ante-chambers, march before them when they go abroad, and particularly when they appear at the diet, many of them, on this last occasion, having 5000 guards and attendants: for their debates in this great meeting are often determined by the sword. It frequently happens that two Polish noblemen go to war with each other, when castles, forts, and whole cities are destroyed in the contest; though the affair, perhaps, which occasions all this havoc, has been before decided in a court of justice: but the sentence of the civil law has very little weight with men who are in possession of the whole power of the military. If a person accused of a crime, however capital, can fly to the house of a nobleman who will afford him his protection, he is safe; for no one dares to take him from thence by force: in short, it may be said, that a Polish grandee is the most independent of any person in any country; but if he once enters into trade, he forfeits his nobility, and every privilege thereto annexed.

The citizens of Poland resemble those of other places, but the peasants are undoubtedly the most wretched race of beings. The nobility style them their subjects, and if they sell an estate, dispose of them in the same manner they do the cattle, or any other part of it. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is only obliged to make reparation by sending him another of equal strength and value. When a person of distinction intends to cultivate a spot of land, he causes a little wooden hut to be built near it, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him for the first year; and in return, the peasant is to improve the land for his own future subsistence, and the advantage of his lord. Thus are these poor creatures born and kept in a state of perpetual servitude, of which they never see the end, unless by the permission of their tyrants, from

whom they frequently suffer the most cruel and wanton insults. Sometimes these monsters proceed so far as to injure their wives and daughters, wrongs which must rouse the rage of every being but a Polish peasant, whose spirit, through oppression, is sunk into a state of total insensibility, scarce ever being heard to repine at his hard lot, or wish for a better; particularly, if his master feeds him well, thinking it impossible for a man to be miserable who has sufficient to eat; and in this case, they are always ready to sacrifice themselves and their families for their lords, whom they are taught to regard as a superior order of beings. Lately indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings have ventured to give liberty to their vassals. Zamoiski, formerly great chancellor, was the first who granted this freedom; and in 1760 enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and afterwards on all his estates. The event has shewed this act to be no less judicious than humane; conducive to the noble's own interests as well as the happiness of the peasants: for it appears, that in the districts in which this new arrangement hath been introduced, the population of the villages is considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Stanislaus, nephew of the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchised four villages near Warsaw, and hath not only freed his peasants from slavery, but condescends to direct their affairs. This conduct is truly laudable, and betokens better times to the lower class in this distressed country.

The Polish nobility assume great state upon all occasions, particularly in their equipages and manner of living. It is no unusual thing for the lady of a Polish grandee, on a common visit, to be attended by a coach and six, and a great number of domestics, among which are an old gentleman-usher, an old governante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train: if it happens to be an evening visit, the grandeur of the scene is augmented by the number of flambeaux which surround her coach. When they sit down to table, a number of gentlemen wait upon them with the greatest respect, and these are usually some of the poor nobility, who, not daring to demean themselves by trade, are glad to earn a subsistence by thus servilely waiting on their equals in birth, though superiors in fortune. It generally happens, however, that this mode of life is rendered very easy to them, for their patron usually treats them with the greatest civility; permitting the oldest among them to sit down, with his cap off, at the same table with him, and giving the rest part of his meat, which they eat standing: they likewise all drink out of his cup, and have each a peasant boy kept to wait on them. At a Polish entertainment there are neither knives, forks, or spoons laid upon the table, but every guest brings them with him. When the company are all seated, the doors are shut, and not opened again till they have done eating; and the whole time of the repast, they are entertained with music, of which every nobleman keeps a

band. Bumpers are as much the fashion in Poland as in Ireland; and a stranger will find it as difficult to return sober from a feast in one country as the other.

The Polish dress is pretty remarkable. They cut the hair of their heads short, and shave their beards, leaving only large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a sash, but the sleeves sit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloths. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots with thin soles and deep iron heels bent like a half-moon. They carry a pole-ax and a sabre or cutlass by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs, both within and without. The people of fashion wear sables, and others the skins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have 50 suits of clothes, exceeding rich, which descend from father to son. The habit of the women very much resembles that of the men, being a simple Polonaise, or long robe edged with fur; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. The peasants, in winter, wear a sheep-skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but they wear no linen. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters; and in the district of Samogitia, that they may know where they are, and what they are doing, make them wear little bells before and behind.

The houses in Poland consist entirely of a ground-floor, and the apartments are not joined to each other, but rather form a square court, on one side of which is the kitchen, the stable on the other, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate in front. The inns of this country are nothing more than long stables built with boards, and covered with straw, without windows or furniture. At one end there is a chamber, which usually swarms with fleas and other vermin; so that travellers rather choose to lodge among the horses than go into it. They are obliged to carry provisions with them, and when foreigners want a supply, they inform the lord of the village, who immediately provides them with necessaries.

The usual diversions of the Poles are vaulting, dancing, hunting, skating, bull and bear-baiting, and riding; of which exercise they are so exceedingly fond, that they will not stir a hundred yards without their horses. They are so extremely hardy, that, if by chance they are benighted, they sleep upon the ground, in frost and snow, without any covering, except their usual clothing.

Warsaw, the capital of Poland, stands nearly in the centre of the kingdom, on the river Vistula, over which is a curious wooden bridge. This city is large, popu-
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ious, tolerably well fortified, and contains both within and without the walls a considerable number of churches, palaces, and convents. The king usually keeps his court here, in a noble palace which forms a large square, surrounded with delicious gardens and groves. Here are likewise held the general diets, to which such multitudes of people resort, that great numbers are obliged to reside in tents. The ordinary diets are held at the royal palace; but during the interregnum, in a field, not far from the city, near the village of Wola. In the year 1746, was opened count Zaluzki's library, which is said to contain two hundred thousand volumes. Goods are brought to the city, by the Vistula and other rivers, and sent from thence to Dantzick. Here is a stately castle, and an arsenal; and near the city are two royal palaces, viz. Viaslow, and Viallanow.

The established religion in Poland is that of the church of Rome, carried to the highest pitch of enthusiasm: the Polish clergy being most illiterate bigots, and the monks some of the most profligate of mankind; and it is chiefly owing to the conduct and influence of the Popish clergy, that the peasants of Poland are so miserable. The monasteries in Poland are said to amount to 576, and the nunneries to 117, besides 246 seminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. There are in this country, great numbers of Lutherans, Calvinists, and members of the Greek church, who are all distinguished by the common name of dissidents, and, by the laws of that kingdom, are entitled to toleration and protection; but, owing to the bigotted spirit of the Popish clergy, who instill the same sentiments into their deluded followers, they live in a state of continual persecution. In the year 1724, a public massacre was made of the Protestants at Thorn, in open defiance of a treaty concluded at Oliva in 1660, and guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe, for which no satisfaction has been as yet obtained, and several other stipulations, made in their favour at different times, have been regarded with the same inattention: so that they have often suffered the most cruel outrages, while Jews, Turks, and other infidels, have been tolerated and encouraged. The Jews particularly are indulged with great privileges, and are so numerous, that their poll-tax is said to amount to near fifty-seven thousand rix-dollars annually. The principles of Socinus made a very early and considerable progress in Poland; which is no wonder, as before his time, it is computed, 32 congregations denied the doctrine of the Trinity. It is at length resolved, that all dissidents shall be tolerated, but to have no seat in the diet, senate, or permanent council, though they may sit in the inferior courts of justice.

The Polish language is a dialect of the Slavonic, being neither copious nor harmonious, but abounds in consonants, and many of the words have not a single vowel in them. The Lithuanians and Livonians talk a language peculiar to themselves, among which are found several corrupted Latin words; but the Russian and

German tongues are understood in the provinces bordering on those countries. The High Dutch and Latin are frequently spoke here, but very incorrectly.

In Poland are two archbishoprics, viz. Gnesna and Lemburg. The former of these is always a cardinal, and, during an interregnum, prince regent, or interrex of the kingdom. Gnesna has for its suffragans the bishops of Cracow, Cujavia, Culin, Liuke, Mednick, Pofna, Plosko, and Wilga; and those of Lemburg are the bishops of Cholm, Kaminiack, and Prenyzil.

There were three universities here, viz. Cracow, Pofna or Posen, and Wilna, but they are now almost entirely neglected. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendency of fourteen grammar-schools, which are dispersed through that city; in 1778, the number of students amounted to 600. That of Pofna is rather a Jesuits college than an university; Wilna was under the superintendency of the Jesuits; but since their suppression, the king hath established a committee of education, who appoint professors, and direct their salaries and studies.

Learning in Poland is in a very low state, notwithstanding several efforts have been made to raise it. The clergy, we have already observed, are illiterate bigots, consequently averse to the light of learning. The nobility despise it, placing their chief importance in the privileges of their rank; and the lower class are too wretched ever to think of study: of late, however, a taste for science has begun to spread itself among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment. This kingdom has formerly produced several great geniuses, particularly Copernicus, Vorstius, and some Protestant divines, who are highly received by the literati of Europe.

The natural curiosities of Poland are more numerous than the artificial. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deserts of Podolia, are several grottoes containing a great number of human bodies, which, notwithstanding the time they must have lain there, are still entire: and among them are two princes in the habits they used to wear. These bodies are neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies, and no art having to all appearance been used for their preservation, this phenomenon is attributed to the nature of the soil, which in that part is dry and sandy. The salt mines may be justly placed among the natural curiosities of Poland.

A modern traveller has given us the following accurate description of those at Wielitka, which are situated within eight miles of Cracow: "These mines," says he, "are excavated on a ridge of hills at the northern extremity of the chain which joins to the Carpathian mountains: they take their appellation from the small village of Wielitka; but are sometimes called, in foreign countries, the mines of Cracow, from their vicinity to that city.

"Upon our arrival at Wielitka, we repaired to the mouth of the mine: having fastened three separate hammocks





hammocks in a circle round the great rope that is used in drawing up the salt, we seated ourselves in a commodious manner, and were let down gently, without the least apprehension of danger, about 160 yards below the first layer of salt: quitting our hammocks, we passed a long and gradual descent, sometimes through broad passages or galleries capable of admitting several carriages abreast; sometimes down steps cut in the solid salt, which had the grandeur and commodiousness of the staircase in a palace. We each of us carried a light, and several guides preceded us with lamps in their hands; the reflection of those lights upon the glittering sides of the mine was extremely beautiful, but did not cast that luminous splendor which some writers have compared to the lustre of precious stones.

"The salt dug from this mine is called *zlebna*, or green salt, for what reason I cannot determine; for its colour is an iron grey: when pounded, it has a dirty ash colour, like what we call brown salt: the quality improves in proportion to the depth of a mine; towards the sides and surface it is mixed with earthy or stony particles; lower down it is said to be perfectly pure, and requires no other process before it is used than to be pounded. The finest of this grey salt, however, is of a weak quality, when compared with our common sea salt; it is therefore, undoubtedly, by no means perfectly pure, but is blended with extraneous mixtures, though it serves very well for common purposes. Being almost as hard as stone, the miners hough it with pick-axes and hatchets, by a tedious operation, into large blocks, many of which weigh seven or eight hundred pounds: those large masses are raised by a windlass, but the smaller pieces are carried up by horses along a winding gallery, which reaches to the surface of the earth.

"Beside grey salt, the miners sometimes discover small cubes of white salt, as transparent as crystal, but not in any considerable quantity: they find likewise, occasionally, pieces of coal and petrified wood buried in the salt.

"The mine appears to be inexhaustible, as may easily be conceived from the following account of its dimensions: its known breadth is 1115 feet, its length 6691, and depth 743; and the best judges on the spot suppose, with the greatest appearance of probability, this solid body of salt to branch into various directions, the extent of which cannot be known: of that part which has been perforated, the depth is only calculated as far as they have hitherto dug; and who can tell how much further it may descend? The revenue arising from these and other salt-mines is very considerable, and formed part of the royal revenue before seized by Austria: the annual average profit of those of *Wielitka* was about 98,000*l.* sterling.

"Our guide did not omit pointing out to us what he considered as one of the most remarkable curiosities of the place—several small chapels excavated in the salt, in which mass is said on certain days in the year: one

of those chapels is thirty feet long, and twenty-five broad; the altar, the crucifix, the ornaments of the church, the statues of the saints, are all carved out of the salt.

"Many of the excavations, or chambers, from whence the salt has been dug, are of an immense size; some are supported with timber, others by vast pillars of salt, which are left standing for that purpose; several of vast dimensions are without any support in the middle. I remarked one of this latter sort in particular, which was certainly eight feet in height, and so extremely long and broad, as almost to appear amid the subterraneous gloom without limits. The roofs of those vaults are not arched, but flat. The immense size of the chambers, with the chapels above mentioned, and a few sheds built for the horses, which are foddered below, probably may give to the exaggerated accounts of some travellers, that those mines contain several villages inhabited by colonies of miners, who never see the light. It is certain that there is room sufficient for such purposes; but the fact is, that the miners have no dwelling under ground, none of them remaining below more than eight hours at a time, when they are relieved by others from above. In truth, those mines are of a most stupendous extent and depth, and are sufficiently wonderful without the least exaggeration. We found them as dry as a room, without the least damp, or moisture; observing only in our whole progress one small spring of water, which is impregnated with salt, as it runs through the mine.

"Such an enormous mass of salt exhibits a wonderful phenomenon in the natural history of this globe. Monsieur Guetard, who visited these mines with great attention, and who has published a treatise upon the subject, informs us, that the uppermost bed of earth at the surface immediately over the mines is sand; the second clay, occasionally mixed with sand and gravel, and containing petrifications of marine bodies; the third calcareous stone: from all those circumstances, he conjectures that this spot was formerly covered by the sea, and that the salt is a gradual deposit formed by the evaporation of its waters.

In the centre of the mountain called the Wonderful, frequently mentioned by modern geographers, is a spring of very clear water, which rises with a remarkable noise and vibration; and its ebullition or swelling increases or decreases with the moon. This spring, which is called by the inhabitants, *Ignis Fatuus*, never freezes by any degree of cold; and by holding a lighted torch over it, it immediately flames like spirits of wine, when the only way of extinguishing this fire is by brushing the surface of the water with brooms. Some years ago this fountain was set on fire by lightning, and the people neglecting to extinguish the flame, it communicated itself through subterraneous cataracts to a neighbouring wood, great part of which it destroyed by burning the roots of the trees, and it was three years before this conflagration entirely ceased; since which time watchmen have been appointed to prevent a repetition

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dition of this accident. The water itself, and the slime which it deposits, are said to be highly beneficial in most disorders of the human body, and that, owing to them alone, the people who reside near this spring are seldom ill, and are remarkable for their longevity, few of them dying before they arrive at the age of an hundred, or an hundred and fifty. There have been found in the woods, both of Poland and Germany, certain beings which seemed divested of almost all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all-fours, and were dumb; but some of them, it is said, by proper management, have attained to the use of speech. Probably, when the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, made inroads into Poland, the women were sometimes forced to leave their children exposed in the woods, where they might be nursed by bears and other wild beasts, otherwise it is difficult to account for their subsistence.

The most considerable cities in Poland are the following, viz.

Warsaw, situated 154 miles south-east of Dantzick, on the Vistula, and nearly in the centre of Poland. The kings usually reside here. The chief church, dedicated to St. John the Baptist, is very fine; as are the arsenals, castles, and palaces in that place, and other public-buildings. The streets are spacious, but ill paved; and the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city, like the rest of this unhappy country, exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty; it has little or no commerce, but is said to contain 70,000 inhabitants.

Cracow, situated on the conflux of the Vistula and Radawa, is very populous, and the largest and best built town in Poland, of which it is the capital: the houses are of free stone, four or five stories high, and covered with boards cut in the form of tiles. The public buildings are magnificent; among which are the cathedral of St. Stanislaus, the church of St. Mary, and 50 other churches, 17 religious houses in the castle, city, and suburbs, with the noble and well-built monasteries of the Jesuits and Dominicans. The suburbs occupy a vast space of ground. Near the city are some admirable salt mines, discovered in 1548; it is defended by walls, towers, and bastions; the garrison consists of 600 Russians. The commerce is inconsiderable.

Grodno, the largest town in Lithuania, next to Wilna, is situated on the river Nicmen, 160 miles north-east of Warsaw. Here is a fine palace, a castle, a college, a Jews synagogue, a Carmelite nunnery, three Greek, and nine Roman Catholic churches. Besides these, here are two other palaces, the one belonging to prince Radzivil, and the other to the Sapietian family. Very few of the streets of this city are paved; and a great part of the town was consumed by fire in the year 1753. It is a place of good trade, has a provincial diet, a court of judicature, &c. In 1776, the king established here several new manufactures of cloths, camblets, linen,

cotton, &c. and also an academy of physic and surgery.

Dantzick, the capital of Polish Prussia, is situated on the Vistula, and consists of the old and new town, with their suburbs. It is large, populous, and rich; and may well be considered as the chief mart and magazine of Poland, and one of the greatest granaries in the world; for so considerable is the trade of this city, that a whole fleet come hither every year to load with corn alone; and it is computed, that 265,000 lasts of Polish wheat are shipped from hence one year with another. Its houses are generally five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chestnut trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, though it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory; its trade getting into other channels, and daily diminishing. It is a republic, claiming a small adjacent territory, about 40 miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and republic of Poland. Its magistracy, and the majority of inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romanists and Calvinists are equally tolerated in it. This city is rich, contains 26 parishes, with several public buildings, convents, and hospitals. The inhabitants are computed at 150,000: they have often changed their masters, and have sometimes been under the protection of the English and Dutch; but have generally shewn a peculiar regard for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being less likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their valuable privileges, among which are those of coining money; gathering amber, and sending representatives to the general diet of Poland and the Prussian senate. Though strongly fortified, and possessed of 150 large brass cannon, it could not, through its situation, stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminences. This city, as well as Thorn and Elbing, enjoy large and ample privileges, both civil and religious, very different from those of the rest of Poland, which they were permitted to retain when they put themselves under the protection of that kingdom, not being able any longer to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights.

The king of Prussia exempted this city, and that of Thorn, from the claims he had lately made in the neighbouring countries; notwithstanding which, he soon after thought proper to seize on the territory belonging to Dantzick, under pretence of their having formerly belonged to Polish Prussia. He next proceeded to possess himself of the port duties belonging to that city, and erected a custom-house in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and insupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. Not satisfied with these oppressions, he caused custom-houses to be erected at the very gates of Dantzick, so that no persons could go in or out of the town, without undergoing a strict search. So lately as in 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences; but by the interposition of the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at

Warsaw, and concluded on the 7th of September, by which it was agreed, that the place and trade of the city should be restored to its former stability.

Thorn, an ancient city in Polish Prussia, is also situated on the Vistula. This town is defended by a double wall and moats, and is said to be the handsomest and best built in this country. The streets are broader, and the houses more elegant, than those at Dantzick. This city has shared the fate of that above-mentioned, and is now added to the dominion of the king of Prussia; law and justice giving place to the largest sword—*ratio ultima regum*.

Commerce, in this country, is entirely confined to the city of Dantzick, and the other towns on the Vistula and Baltic: some linen and woollen cloths, and hard-wares, are their principal manufactures, which are carried on in the interior parts.

Concerning the form of government in Poland, it is to be observed, that the Poles live under one head, who bears the title, and lives in the splendor becoming a king; but if you consider his power, as it is circumscribed within very narrow bounds, he is in effect no more than the prime or chief regent in a free commonwealth; since he can do nothing without the bounds of that authority which the laws of the land have given him, and the nobles take care to maintain.

The people elect the king on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres; but if the minority are sufficiently strong, a civil war ensues. The king, immediately after his election, signs the *pacta conventa*, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the kingdom or government; so that in fact, he is no more than president of the senate, which is composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemburg, fifteen bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the Palatines, and the Castellans; in all, 147.

The Polish diets are of two kinds, viz. either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary diets meet every second year, but the extraordinary diets only upon particular occasions when summoned by the king. They sit but six weeks, and the dissenting voice impedes the passing of any law, or coming to any final resolution concerning what had been proposed by the throne. Here are not only general diets, but dietines or provincial diets, and when the nobility enter into an association, either during an interregnum, or while the king is living, it is termed a confederacy. Indeed, to the great misfortune of the country, confederacies have been too frequent, as anarchy and confusion are usually their certain consequences.

The chief secular senators are, in number, 36, viz. 30 palatines, who are, properly, governors of provinces; three castellans, viz. of Cracow, Wilna, and Troki; and the starost of Samogitia. It is observed, that though the quality of castellan and starosta is infe-

rior to that of palatine, these four last-mentioned, possess almost the first rank among the lay senators.

The office of a palatine is, to lead the troops of his palatinate to the army, to preside in the assemblies of the nobility in his province, to set a price upon goods and merchandize, to see that the weights and measures be not altered, and to judge and defend the Jews. He has a vice-palatine under him, who must take an oath to him, and who ought to have an estate in land, which they call *Possessionatus*.

The castellans are the next in dignity to the palatines, and there are four sorts of them in the kingdom, who are usually distinguished by the title of great castellans, and petty or *sub-castellans*. The number of the former, both in the kingdom and duchy, amount to 39, and that of the latter to 49; and they are all senators, lieutenants, or deputies of the palatines; and heads of the nobility in their respective jurisdictions.

A king of Poland may nominate the great officers of state, but they are accountable only to the senate; neither can he displace them when once appointed: he also makes archbishops, bishops, &c. appoints judges and magistrates of provinces; and upon invasions or rebellions, can summon the nobility to his standard; he has all power to remit fines and capital punishments: but he can neither marry, nor divorce a wife, without consent of the republic; and if he marries after his coronation, the queen cannot be crowned without his asking their consent, nor even then, unless she be a Roman Catholic.

From the imperfect sketch above given of this motley constitution, we may discern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet invest him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wise people. The institutions of the diet and dietines, are favorable to public liberty, as are many other provisions in the commonwealth: but even in its best state, it has laboured under incurable disorders. The exercise of the *veto*, or negative vested in each member of the assembly, must nevertheless be destructive of order, and embarrassing to government; and appears to be founded upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited jurisdiction which the great lords, in former ages, used to enjoy all over Europe. The government of Poland cannot be otherwise improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would in a short time render the common people independent on the nobility; and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their sovereign, and to maintain those unequal privileges which are so prejudicial to the community.

Besides dismembering the best provinces of Poland, the partitioning powers have proceeded to change and fix the constitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confusion. The more effectually to accomplish their des-

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the great officers of to the senate; neither appointed: he also appoints judges and on invasions or rebellions his standard; he has capital punishments: but a wife, without consents after his coronation without his asking she be a Roman

given of this motley great outlines of a no precautions taken to invest him with an amiable people. The in are favorable to public sions in the common, it has laboured under of the veto, or negative assembly, must never and embarrassing to go-founded upon Gothic jurisdiction which the to enjoy all over Europe cannot be otherwise of arts, manufactures, a short time render the nobility; and prefer power to annoy their unequal privileges community.

the provinces of Poland, succeeded to change and ment, under pretence of defects, and endeavour of anarchy and confusion accomplish their designs,

signs, they insisted upon the four following principal laws to be ratified; which was at last obtained. These were,

I. That "the crown of Poland shall be for ever elective, and all order of succession proscribed:" thus the exclusion of the king's male heirs removes the prospect of an hereditary sovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom all the evils inseparable to an elective monarchy.

II. That "foreign candidates to the throne shall be excluded, and, for the future, no person can be chosen king of Poland, excepting a native Pole of noble origin, and possessing land in the kingdom:" by which law, the house of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and restore its provinces and liberties, are set aside.

III. That "the government of Poland shall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form:" thus confirming the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equestrian order, in their utmost latitude.

IV. "A permanent council shall be established, in which the executive power shall be vested:" in this council are to be admitted the equestrian order, hitherto excluded from the administration of affairs in the interval of diets, by which means the prerogatives of the crown are still further diminished.

It may be easily perceived, that this change of the constitution was intended by the partitioning powers to give a large scope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not seized, in order the more effectually to serve their own sinister purposes.

The revenue of the king of Poland is clear to himself, and sufficient to maintain him and his household with great splendor; for he pays no troops, not even his own body-guards; all the public expences being provided for by the senate; and all the officers of the household are Polish gentlemen, who serve without salary, in expectation of some office. The present king had one million and a half of florins (at 3s. 6d. each) settled upon him by the commission of state; and the income of his predecessors generally amounted to 1,400,000 sterling. The public revenues were collected chiefly from the crown-lands, the salt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Austrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000 sterling; the rents of Marienburg, Dirschau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow, and district of Niepolomiez, besides ancient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzick.

The greatest loss to Poland was Western Prussia, as by the dismemberment of that province the navigation of the Vistula depends entirely upon the king of Prussia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, since Prussia has laid such heavy duties on the merchandize passing to Dantzick, as greatly to diminish the trade of that town, and to transfer a considerable part of it to Me-

mel and Koningsburgh; so that Poland having, by the dismemberment, lost near half her annual income, it became necessary to new-model and increase the taxes, in order to supply this deficiency.

All the imports in 1775 amounted to 323,012l. the nett revenue of the king (which arises from his royal demesnes, starosties, and 74,074l. out of the treasury) is 194,500l. out of which he only pays his household expences and menial servants. The whole revenue is 443,938l. out of which if we deduct 194,500l. for the king's privy purse, there will remain the sum of 249,438l. for army, state officers, and all other charges.

Respecting the military strength of Poland, we have already observed, that the innate pride of the Polish nobility is so great, that they always appear in the field on horseback, and hence the principal force of the kingdom consists in cavalry; indeed, the infantry, which are generally hired from Germany, and soon dismissed, are seldom considered as any part of the Polish army. The nobility who have seized the reins of government, together with all the honours and emoluments of the state, have also undertaken to defend it, leaving all the rest of the nation to cultivate the lands. Hence the Polish cavalry are all gentlemen; and it is said that Poland can raise 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 of such horsemen, including their servants, who always attend their masters on horseback in the field. This combined army, or rather two armies, consisting of Polish and Lithuanian cavalry, have each their grand general, entirely independent of each other. It has been already observed that the office of grand-marshal is the second in dignity, but the grand-general is superior in power, being confined only by the limits he prescribes to himself, nor is this authority ever suspended but when the king commands the army in person.

Besides these, there is a third army called the *pospolite*, consisting of all the nobility and their followers in the kingdom, except the starosts and generals of the frontier places. This army can be summoned by the king on extraordinary occasions; but he cannot keep them above six weeks in arms, nor are they obliged to march above three leagues beyond the frontiers of the kingdom.

A fourth army has been for some time maintained in Poland, consisting of infantry and light horse, generally called hussars. The latter are reckoned the finest and most showy body of troops in Europe. They wear defensive armour, and their horses are remarkably swift, so that they greatly harass the army of an enemy. But want of discipline has rendered the Polish troops, notwithstanding all their bravery, very incapable of facing an army of veterans belonging to the other powers of Europe in the field. Formerly indeed, especially under the command of the famous John Sobieski, they made a noble figure against the Turks, and proved the bulwark of Europe against all the attacks of the infidels: but the Saxon princes, who succeeded.

succeeded that hero; did not think it prudent to encourage the martial spirit of the Poles. On the contrary, they perpetually overawed them with their electoral troops. At the same time they neglected to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military: the ignorance of the Poles suited better with their plan of subordination. This neglect, which was not felt for many years, has now been severely felt in this devoted kingdom.

A great variety of coins have been struck in Poland; but the following only are at present current in that kingdom, viz. the gold ducat of Poland, valued at 9s. 3d. the old silver dollar of Dantzick, 4s. 6d. the old rix-dollar of Thorn, 4s. 5d. the rix-dollar of Sigismund III. and Uladislavus IV. 4s. 6d.

The Poles never had any order of knighthood before that of the Immaculate Conception, erected by Sigismund III. with some privileges above the rest of the gentry, who so much despised it, that the order soon came to nothing. King Augustus, in 1705, revived the order of the White Eagle, in remembrance of his happily meeting the diet in Lithuania, when the Swedes and Stanislaus thought to have intercepted him. This order was first instituted by Uladislavus, in the year 1325. The badge is a white eagle, crowned with diamonds. He conferred it on several lords, but the senators are distinguished by wearing a golden cross, with a badge in the middle of it: the motto is, *pro fide regis, et lege*; "for the faith, the king, and the law."—His late majesty, on the 26th of September 1736 (which was the anniversary of his birth) created eight knights of a new order, in honor of St. Henry, of which he assumed the title of grand-master. The badge of this order is a red star with eight points, in the middle of which there is a representation of the emperor Henry, and upon each ray or point appears the electoral sword of Saxony. The star is appendent, by a silver string, to a ribband of crimson velvet. The present king, soon after his election to the crown in 1765, instituted the order of St. Stanislaus. The badge is a gold cross enamelled red, and in the centre of it a medallion with the image of St. Stanislaus enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red ribband edged with white. The star of the order is silver, and in the centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Stanislaus Augustus Rex) encircled with the motto, *Pre-mundo inciat*; "he stirs up by oppressing."

THE HISTORY OF POLAND.

THIS kingdom was originally inhabited by the Sarmatians, who were expelled by the Rus and Tartars. The government was, in process of time, divided between twelve palatines, who were sovereigns of so many districts, and independent of each other. About the year 700, one Cracus, either by force, or by consent of these petty princes, became sovereign of the whole,

and he it was that built the city of Cracow. The line of Cracus being extinct, Poland was again governed by twelve palatines, who agreed, in the year 760, to elect Lescus their sovereign, with the title of duke, which was retained till the year 999, when Boleslaus first assumed the title of king; and, about this time, Christianity was first established in Poland; since which it appears to have been an hereditary monarchy, his posterity succeeding to the throne for several generations, among whom was Casimir I. Boleslaus II. marrying Vicislava, the daughter and heiress of Red Russia, that province was united to Poland anno 1050. The kings of Poland, among whom was Casimir III. were absolute sovereigns until the reign of Lewis, anno 1370, but then the Poles insisted on limiting the prerogative, probably because Lewis was king also of Hungary, and they suspected he would favour his native country to their prejudice. Lewis being succeeded by his daughter and heiress, Hedwigis, anno 1382, she married Uladislavus V. great duke of Lithuania, on condition he should become a Christian, and their issue should succeed both to the crown of Poland and the duchy of Lithuania, which have been united ever since. Uladislavus, their son, succeeded them, who was also king of Hungary. This prince was killed in a battle with Amurath, the Turkish emperor, and, leaving no issue, was succeeded by his brother Casimir IV. between whom and the knights of the Teutonic order, who had been placed in Prussia by the pope, there were continual wars, until it was agreed, that the knights should remain possessed of Eastern or Ducal Prussia, the grand-master taking an oath of fealty to the king of Poland. In the reign of Sigismund II. the Russians invaded Livonia, then possessed by the Teutonic knights, who called in the Poles to their assistance; other provinces called in the Swedes, and these three powers contended for the dominion of Livonia many years. Henry of Valois, duke of Anjou, was elected king of Poland anno 1574; but his brother Charles, the French king, dying, he quitted Poland, and succeeded to the crown of France anno 1577. Stephen Batory, prince of Transylvania, was elected king of Poland on the abdication of Henry. In his reign the supreme courts of justice were first erected, before which time the king and council were the last resort in cases of appeal. Sigismund III. son of John, king of Sweden, was elected king on his renouncing Lutheranism, anno 1587. Uladislavus, his son, succeeded him, anno 1632, and invading Russia, took the capital city of Moscow, and, in a treaty that ensued, he obliged the Russians to confirm the provinces of Smolensko and Zernigoff to Poland. Uladislavus, leaving no issue, was succeeded by his brother John Casimir, anno 1648, though he was then a cardinal. In this reign, the old Cossacks, being obliged, renounced their allegiance to the Poles, and became subjects to the Russians and Turks. Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, conquered Poland, but lost it again in six months; after which, John Casimir in-

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roduced an army of 30,000 Germans to defend the kingdom against the Swedes; but the Poles, suspecting he intended to render himself absolute, deposed him; whereupon he retired into France, and was made abbot of the abbey of St. Germain. Michael Wisnowiecki being elected in 1670, the Turks conquered Podolia in his reign, but were defeated by John Sobieski, who was elected king on the death of Wisnowiecki. This prince died after a glorious reign, in the year 1696, and the greatest anarchy and confusion succeeded. Confederacies were formed in support of different candidates, and the most horrid ravages were committed on the territories of each party. In the mean time, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and its crown in a manner offered to the highest bidder. In 1693, Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, was placed on the throne, in opposition to the prince of Conti, who had been proclaimed king by the French faction; but, being unable to support his pretensions against the armies of Augustus, he retired into France; but it was not till the year 1712 that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The year after his accession, the Turks, by the peace of Carlowitz, restored the province of Podolia to Poland.

Augustus was not so fortunate in his alliances against Charles XII. of Sweden. He was defeated in several battles, and afterwards deposed by that monarch, who placed Stanislaus Leszczinski on the throne of Poland in 1704. That prince continued to enjoy the royal dignity till the year 1709, when Charles XII. being totally defeated at the battle of Pultowa, and obliged to take refuge among the Turks, Augustus was replaced on the throne of Poland by Peter the Great. The Poles were, however, so strongly attached to the interest of their countryman Stanislaus, that Augustus was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon forces. In the year 1725, his natural son prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was elected duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to support him in his new dignity.

Augustus died in 1733, after doing every thing in his power to insure the succession of the throne of Poland to his son Augustus II. but Stanislaus being elected by a considerable party, with the primate at their head, Augustus found it necessary to support his pretensions with the sword. This brought on a war, in which the interest of Stanislaus was supported by the French. But Augustus entering Poland at the head of a powerful army, composed of Saxons and Russians, Stanislaus was obliged to retreat to Dantzick, from whence he afterwards, with great difficulty, escaped into France. Augustus, however, could not acquire the affections of his Polish subjects: so that when he was driven from his electorate by his Prussian majesty, he could obtain nothing more than shelter for himself and his friends; the Poles absolutely refusing to take any part in the war. Augustus died at Dresden in 1763, when count Stanislaus Poniatowski was unanimously chosen king by the name of Stanislaus Augustus.

He was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. While a private nobleman, he resided some time in London, and is a member of the Royal Society. As he was peculiarly favoured by the empress of Russia and some Protestant powers, the papers which he signed, at the time of his election, were deemed too favourable to the Protestants in general, and the Greeks in particular. Hence the army, which the empress of Russia had in Poland, gave a pretence for various confederacies to be formed against the king by the Roman Catholics; and the conspiring nobles at length were so unnatural as to throw off all allegiance to the sovereign, and to put themselves under the protection of the grand seignior. This mad step of some of the Polish nobles occasioned the Ottoman Porte to declare war against Russia, and to invade Poland with a powerful army. Since which time, that unhappy country has been a scene of confusion, rapine, horror, oppression, and bloodshed. Hurried on either by blind zeal, or mistaken bigotry, the confederates precipitated the ruin of their devoted country, and some of the neighbouring powers, invited by their incautious enthusiasm, took an advantage of this absurd civil war, and, under the mask of friendship, dismembered this once powerful kingdom.

So far was dissimulation used in the dismemberment, or partitioning of Poland, as the powers concerned think proper to term it, that they all expressly deny having had the least intention to seize any of the Polish provinces, or in anywise to divide that country. In the act of renunciation transmitted to the court of Warsaw in the year 1764, and sealed with the seal of the Russian empire, the empress of Russia says, "She did by no means arrogate, either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories which were actually in possession or subject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every person or persons who should at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same."

The king of Prussia, in the same year, signed an act, in which he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof; and that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the same instrument, he guarantees the rights and territories of Poland against every other power whatever. The empress-queen of Hungary, likewise, in the year 1771, wrote a letter, with her own hand, to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that

the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him, that she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it." Yet these very sovereigns, so liberal in their professions of protection, and warm in their professions of friendship, are the persons who have jointly invaded the unhappy kingdom of Poland, distressed its inhabitants, seized on its most valuable revenues, dismembered its palatinates, duchies, &c. and partitioned out some of its richest cities and provinces among themselves. Such is the political faith of princes! and hence may be ascertained the dependence that is to be placed upon their most solemn promises.

Since these illusive declarations and fallacious professions were made and given, the partitioning powers published each a manifesto, in which they respectively laid claim to certain of the Polish territories. In these pretensions the king of Prussia shewed himself a deep politician, by contriving to lay claim to the most valuable share, and thereby obtaining the richest, most populous, and most commercial parts. It was in the year 1770 that these false and pretended friends threw off the mask, and began to avow their intentions. The Prussian consul, having received his political lesson, took occasion to quarrel with the magistrates of Dantzick, and having been palpably the aggressor, was, according to his instructions, the first to complain. The king of Prussia pretended to be highly offended: but instead of coming to an explanation, or hearing both parties, he determined to be at once judge, jury, and executioner; he, therefore, to make a decision, not by the sword of justice, but by the sword military, suddenly surprised the city with a strong body of troops, fined the magistrates 100,000 ducats for what he termed their insolence, seized upon 1000 men to recruit his army, and, having thus executed his intentions first, he began very calmly to argue the matter with the magistrates afterwards; and having coolly remonstrated with them on their imprudence, as he called it, told them to do so no more, and he would freely forgive them. Amazing condescension, and truly characteristic of the moderation of an arbitrary prince!

This, however, was a trifling prelude to what was to follow; for in the ensuing year, 1771, the Prussian troops entered Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood above 12,000 families; and, about the latter end of the same year, his Prussian majesty published an edict, commanding, under the most severe penalties, that all persons should take in payment for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver bearing the impresson of Poland, and worth only one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, but above seventeen per cent. inferior in value to the real ducats of Holland. With this very base money he bought up a sufficient quantity of forage and provisions to stock his magazines and supply his army for two years; and

the poor inhabitants, after having been thus obliged to part from their property much below its value, were, through necessity, compelled to come to repurchase corn from those magazines, and to pay good substantial money for it; for the Prussian commissaries absolutely refused to receive again the same coin which they had paid: from this curious, though not very honest manoeuvre, the king of Prussia cleared 7,000,000 of dollars. The country being thus stripped of money and provisions, the next plan of his Prussian majesty was, to clear it of its inhabitants. To increase the population of his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had long been his aim. To this end he enacted, that every city, town, village, &c. in the places which his troops possessed, should furnish a certain number of marriageable young women, and the parents were ordered to give, as a portion, a feather bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. This cruel order was rigorously executed. The parents were stripped, in the most tyrannical and oppressive manner, to supply extorted portions for the children ravished from their arms. The young women were inhumanly dragged from their parents, their friends, and their connections; and, being bound hand and foot, like criminals, were carried off, in spite of the lamentations of themselves and relations, in carts, waggons, &c. After this horrid exertion of arbitrary power, the exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, nobles, &c. were so great and unreasonable, that the people of fortune fled from their estates, and retired into foreign countries, and the priests abandoned their churches. These exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces wrested from Poland; when Polish Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, were allotted to the king of Prussia; almost all the south-eastern parts of the kingdom, with the rich salt-works of the crown, fell to the empress-queen of Hungary: and the empress of Russia took possession of a large territory about Mohilow.

Every person of good sense, moderation, and equity, will certainly consider the violent dismemberment and partition of Poland as the first great breach in the modern political system of Europe; and notwithstanding the destruction of a great kingdom, with the consequent disarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the most astonishing indifference and unconcern, yet future ages will regard this unjustifiable measure with the greatest indignation; those who projected it with horror; and those who acquiesced in it with contempt. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonstrated against the usurpations, but made no attempt to oppose them; so that Poland was forced to submit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. There was a majority of six in the senate; but, in the lower house, the assembly of nuncios, there was a balance.

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lance of but one vote in favour of the measure, fifty-four against fifty-three. This is a very alarming circumstance, and shews that a most important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general system of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for some ages an object of unremitting attention with most of the states of Europe.

REVOLUTION IN POLAND,

Which took Place in 1791.

EVERY person, whose attention has at all been directed to political events, must recollect with indignation the infamous dismemberment of Poland in the year 1773. From that period the republic has been reduced to a most humiliating state of servitude and dependence upon Russia. Notwithstanding the advances of Prussia were favourably received by the nation during Russia's contest with the Porte; yet the enlightened part of the Polish patriots flattered themselves with no advantages from Prussia, which were not to be paid by sacrificing the best interests of the republic; they determined, therefore, to make a wiser use of the interval of relief from foreign oppression, which they now enjoyed; and they found themselves warmly seconded in their views by the greatest part of the nation, when it appeared that the cession of Thorn and Dantzick to Prussia was the immediate object of that insatiable court.

Every nation must find its own support within itself; since, by depending on a foreign power, it will ever find its prosperity precarious, and its government contemptible. Poland wanted not indolence nor valour; but what she stood most in need of was unity, a constitution, an active and efficient government. Happily for her, she was at this time possessed of some men of the most rational abilities, and apparently of the most exalted patriotism. The king had indeed been elected by the Russian interest; but he has shewn that foreign obligations have not been able to eradicate from his breast an attachment to his country.

During the session of the diet many excellent decrees had been passed in favour of general liberty; and calculated to attach the citizens to the interests of their country: that of the 18th of April 1791, in particular, which secured to the freemen the rights which had been previously confined to the order of nobles, and which opened the door of nobility to the inferior orders, was a considerable advance in favour of human nature, in a nation which had so long been devoted to the slavish principles of the feudal system. The minds of the public were also prepared for the change, by the apprehensions which the designs of Prussia upon Thorn and Dantzick had excited, and by the just alarms, which agitated the people, of a future division of their territory. The new constitution, however, was suggested and prepared with the utmost secrecy and

caution; and but few were intrusted with the projected design.

On the memorable 3d of May 1791, at three o'clock in the morning, a select body of patriots assembled in the royal chamber; there, in presence of the king, they solemnly engaged never to separate till the intended revolution should be happily accomplished. The galleries of the hall, in which the diet was held, were crowded at an early hour, as if in expectation of some important event.

The session was opened by the king in person, instead of the marshal; and instead of recurring to the order of the day, which was a report on the finances, his majesty addressed the assembly on the general state of the nation; and observed, that "whatever assurances foreign powers might amuse them with, he had undoubted proofs that the alarming rumours which had been spread concerning a fresh dismemberment of the territories of the republic, rested upon too sure a foundation; and that the contending powers were about to terminate their differences at the expence of Poland. That one way remained, and but one, to secure the possessions of the republic, and to preserve the state from ruin; and that was, to give it such a constitution as might impart unity to its government, and attach the people to its support. That, with this view, a constitution had been prepared, principally founded on the English and American constitutions, and adapted as much as possible to the circumstances of the country; and he trusted that they would adopt this constitution.

A tumultuous debate ensued, after the reading of the constitution. The nuncios of Volhynia and Podolia protested against the proceeding. M. Suchorzowsky, who has been the author of the decree in favour of the citizens, threw himself at the feet of the throne, and besought his majesty, that he would not persist in his intention to make the crown hereditary. Others referred to the instructions of their constituents, and entreated that the further consideration of this business should be deferred to a future day; but this proposal did not meet with the sentiments of the majority. The king then, rising from his seat, respectfully called the bishop of Cracovia, and took a solemn oath to maintain the constitution: "He that loves his country," exclaimed his majesty, "let him follow me to the church, and repeat this oath at the foot of the altar." The king was attended to the church by all the nuncios, except between thirty and forty. Te Deum was sung; all the deputies present took the oath; and the new constitution was announced to the people by the firing of 200 pieces of cannon. It was reported that, on the preceding day, a foreign minister had distributed the sum of 50,000 ducats for the purpose of obstructing the revolution. The attempt, however, proved abortive; the most perfect tranquillity prevailed; and nothing but exclamations of joy was heard throughout Warsaw. Thus without bloodshed, and even without tumult, was effected a revolution honourable to those who projected it, and promising.

promising to be essentially conducive to the happiness of the people.

GENERAL OUTLINES OF THE

NEW POLISH CONSTITUTION.

" BY this new constitution, a full and free toleration is permitted to all sects and religions; the peasants, who were formerly in a state of the most abject vassalage, or rather slavery, are received under the protection of national law and government, and all contracts between the lords and vassals are declared equally binding. The sovereignty is declared to reside altogether in the will of the people; and three distinct powers are established in the government—the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. With respect to the first of these powers, the diet or legislature is to be elected every two years from the order of nobles, and is divided into two houses, namely, the house of nuncios and the senate; the former, however, possesses the pre-eminence, and every law which passes in it is immediately to be sent to the senate, where, if it is accepted, it becomes a law in full force: if supereded, it must be resumed at the next diet; and if a second time it passes the house of nuncios, the senate must submit to it.

" With respect to individuals the crown of Poland is hereditary, and elective as to families; and the house of Saxony is the family now (1791) chosen for the vacancy. To the king and his council is intrusted the execution of laws. The king's person is inviolable. He may pardon all criminals but state prisoners: he commands the forces, appoints commanders, patentees, officers, bishops, senators, ministers. But no minister or senator can sit in the house of nuncios.

" The judiciary power is thus divided: first, primary courts in each district or palatinate; second, courts of appeal in each of the three provinces. There are some other local inferior courts, and a comital tribunal for the trial of crimes against the state.

" Citizens in general are empowered to purchase landed estates; and, whoever purchases a village or township, paying 200 florins land tax, is ennobled. Thirty citizens are also ennobled at every diet. The army, the law, and the church, are all thrown open to the citizens. Perfect and entire liberty is proclaimed to all new settlers, whether foreigners, or emigrants returned from foreign parts."

The opposition which at first was made to the constitution, chiefly on account of the hereditary succession, soon began to subside. Count Braniki, grand-general of the kingdom, who at first had declared against the constitution, acceded to it, and signed it at the diet on the 5th; and the celebrated friend of liberty, Malackowiky, great chancellor of the crown, who on that event had resigned the seals, re-accepted them at the requisition of the diet, and accepted the office of minister of justice, and for the interior department. On

the 17th M. Goltz, chargé des affaires from the court of Berlin, announced his Prussian majesty's approbation of the new arrangement, though there has been some reason to suspect that this profession was not accompanied with much sincerity; which can only be ascertained by the future conduct of that prince.

The ready concurrence of the king of Poland in a measure adapted to promote the welfare of his people; and the animated support which he gave to the new constitution, evinced the goodness of his heart, and the liberality of his principles. But here our commendation must end: we cannot give to his Polish majesty the praise of political sagacity, of foresight, of activity, or even of courage. Lulled into a fatal security by the insidious professions of a court, noted for its perfidy, as well as for its versatile and selfish politics; a court which appeared to promote the revolution, while it meditated secretly the dismemberment of Poland; the unfortunate monarch appears to have neglected every means of defence; nor was even the hesitating and undecided conduct of Saxony sufficient to excite his vigilance. No alliances were formed, no preparations made for supporting with vigor the infant constitution. In the predicament in which Poland then stood, if Prussia was averse to forming a permanent and sincere alliance, or if the faith of Prussia could not be depended upon; if Great-Britain had been found impracticable, and determined to sacrifice her real interests and those of Europe to the ambition of Prussia, it was then the part of Poland to look forward to other connexions, to cultivate, if possible, the friendship of France, of Denmark, and of Sweden. Such a combination, founded upon the moderate principle of mutual defence, would have successfully resisted the most determined attacks of imperial plunderers.

Something of this kind ought to have been attempted; but the Polish ministry permitted itself to be amused by fruitless negotiations at the court of Dresden, by the vague professions of Prussia; nor was it even roused to action by the cool reception which its ambassador experienced from the haughty despot of Vienna.

This neglect, great as it was, was even exceeded by the indifference of the king as to the means of internal defence. While the discontented nobles, who from personal resentment, or disappointed ambition, manifested the most earnest hostility to the constitution; while these were openly received and encouraged at Petersburg, neither the standing force of Poland was properly organized, nor the militia embodied. Not a magazine was erected, nor an intrenchment thrown up to oppose the entrance of the enemy. It was all a dead calm, and the Russians appeared upon their frontiers before the diet had recovered from its surprize at the first hostile declaration of the empress.

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unjust intentions of Russia. He informed them, that without the shadow of pretence, this avowed enemy of the rights of mankind had determined to invade the territory of the republic with an army of 60,000 men. This formidable banditti, commanded by generals Soltikow, Michelson, and Kosakowski, was afterwards to be supported by a corps of 20,000, and by the troops then acting in Moldavia, amounting to 70,000. The king, however, professed that he was not discouraged, and declared his readiness to put himself at the head of the national troops, and to terminate his existence in a glorious contest for the liberties of his country. Then, and not before, the diet decreed the organization of the army, and its augmentation to 100,000. The king and the council of inspection were invested with unlimited authority in every thing that regarded the defence of the kingdom. Magazines were ordered to be constructed, when it was too late, and quarters to be provided for the army.

In consequence of these preparations, the diet and the nation rose, as one man, to maintain their independence. All private animosities were obliterated, all private interests were sacrificed; the greatest encouragements were held forth to volunteers to enroll themselves under the national standard, and it was unanimously decreed by the diet, that all private losses should be compensated out of the public treasury.

In 1792, Russia, seeing war declared between Austria and France, and finding herself likely to be called upon to fulfil her engagements with the former of those powers, avowed her intentions, in the month of May, to overturn the present constitution of Poland, and give it a form of government which might best suit herself. An official declaration was accordingly delivered to the Polish government on this subject, dated the 18th of May, and filling twelve pages, in the Polish, French, and Russian languages: It announces the entrance of the Russian troops on the territory of Poland, and the formation of a new confederacy. When the declaration of the court of Russia was read at the diet, the king immediately rose, and explained to the members how far he thought the republic menaced, and its independence wounded; and declared he thought there were but two ways left for the republic to chiose out of, viz. whether they should go to war, or endeavour to keep the republic at peace by means of negotiation; if the last is resolved upon, the kings of Hungary and Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, should be requested to use their good offices. His majesty said, that with respect to himself, he should always be found, wherever he could, either by council or personally, to render most service to his country, without any regard to his own life. The king said, what hurt him most was, that for their critical situation they were indebted to Polanders by birth, who misrepresented every thing to the empress of Russia, and concluded by recommending the necessary arrangements to be immediately taken.

With respect to the declaration itself, it was in general considered as a tissue of falsehood and hypocrisy. It asserted, that this wanton invasion, which was evidently against the sense of almost every individual Polisher, was meant entirely for the good of the republic. It censured the precipitancy with which the new constitution was adopted, and ascribed the ready consent of the diet to the influence of the Warsaw mob. It represented the constitution as a violation of the principles on which the Polish republic was founded — complained of the licentiousness with which the sacred name of the empress was treated, in some speeches of the members; and concluded, by professing, that on these accounts and in behalf of the emigrant Poles, her imperial majesty had ordered her troops to enter the territories of the republic.

This declaration was no sooner delivered to the diet, than the Russian troops, accompanied by counts Potocki, Rzewuski, Branicki, and a few Polish apostates, appeared upon the frontiers, and entered the territories of the republic, in several columns, before the close of the month. The spirit manifested by the nobility was truly honourable. Some of them delivered in their plate to the mint. Prince Radzivil engaged voluntarily to furnish 10,000 stand of arms, and another train of artillery. The courage of the new and hastily embodied soldiers, corresponded with the patriotism of their nobles. Prince Poniatowski, nephew to the king, was appointed commander in chief, and though his force was greatly inferior to the enemy, it must be confessed that he made a noble stand. On the 5th of May, the enemy's cossacks were repulsed, and pursued by the patrols of the republic to the very entrenchments. On the 26th, about one o'clock, the pickets of the republic discovered a large body of Don Cossacks approaching the outposts; and a squadron of cavalry, commanded by lieutenant Kwashniewski, supported by lieutenant Golejowski, with two squadrons more, in all about 300, marched out to meet them. They attacked the Cossacks with success, but pursued them with more valour than prudence, to the side of a wood, where they found themselves drawn into an ambuscade, and surrounded by 2000 horse, two battalions of chasseurs, and six pieces of cannon. The intrepid Poles bravely fought their way through the Russian line, and killed upwards of 200 of the enemy. The Poles, in this engagement, lost 100 men, and two officers; one of whom, lieutenant Kwashniewski, was wounded, and made prisoner. The remainder of the detachment reached their quarters in safety.

The history of man can scarcely furnish an instance of perfidy, meanness, and duplicity, equal to that which was manifested by Prussia on this occasion. By the treaty of defensive alliance, solemnly contracted between the republic of Poland and the king of Prussia, and ratified on the 23d of April 1790, it is expressly stipulated, "That the contracting parties shall do all in their power to guarantee and preserve to each other reciprocally

reciprocally the whole of the territories which they respectively possess. That, in case of menace or invasion from any foreign power, they shall assist each other with their whole force, if necessary;" and by the 6th article, it is further stipulated, "that if any foreign power whatever shall presume to interfere in the internal affairs of Poland, his Prussian majesty shall consider this as a case falling within the meaning of the alliance, and shall assist the republic according to the tenor of the 4th article," that is, with his whole force. Posterity will scarcely believe, or will believe with indignation after this, that on application to the court of Berlin, for the succours thus solemnly contracted for, the only answer they received, was—"That the treaty was dated previous to the new constitution, and that constitution establishing a new order of things, his Prussian majesty held himself absolved from his engagements." Of such value are treaties in the eyes of despotic princes! But what enhances the treachery, is this, that it is confidently asserted, that most of the obnoxious acts, of which the empress complains in her declaration against the Poles, were done by the influence and advice of Prussia; that the king of Prussia, when the constitution was proposed, never gave the smallest intimation that "the new order of things" would dissolve the alliance; and that so far from this being the case, our readers will find, that "on the 17th of May 1791, M. Goltz, chargé des affaires from the court of Berlin, formally announced his Prussian majesty's approbation of the new arrangement."

The great scene of action, in the beginning of the war, was the duchy of Lithuania; but the Russians had made little progress before the middle of the month of June. On the 10th of that month, general Judycki, who commanded a detachment of the Polish troops, between Mire and Swierzna, was attacked by the Russians; but, after a combat of some hours, he obliged them to retire with the loss of 500 men dead on the field; the general was desirous of profiting by this advantage, by pursuing the enemy, but was prevented by a most violent fall of rain. On the succeeding day, the Russians rallied again to the attack; and it then too fatally appeared, that the Poles were too young and undisciplined to contend with an inferior force against experienced troops and able generals. By a masterly manœuvre, the Russians contrived to surround their antagonists, at a moment when the Polish general supposed that he had obliged the enemy to retreat; and though the field was contested with the utmost valour by the troops of the republic, they were at length compelled to give way, and to retire towards Nielwiez.

Another engagement took place on the 14th near Lubar, on the banks of the river Sluez, between a detachment of the Russian grand army, and a party of the Polish cavalry, dispatched by prince Joseph Poniatowski, to intercept the enemy. The patriotic bravery of the Poles was victorious in this contest; but upon reconnoitring the force of the enemy, the prince found

himself incapable of making a successful stand against such superior numbers. He therefore gave orders to strike the camp at Lubar, and commenced a precipitate retreat. During their march, the Polish rear was harassed by a body of 4000 Russians, till arriving at Boruskowee, the wooden bridge unfortunately gave way, under the weight of the cavalry. The enemy, in the mean time, brought their artillery to play upon the rear of the fugitives, who lost upwards of 250 men. The Polish army next directed its course toward Zielime, where meeting, on the 17th, with a reinforcement from Zaslów, it halted to give battle to the enemy. The Russians were upwards of 17,000 strong, with twenty-four pieces of cannon, and the force of the republic much inferior. After a furious contest from seven in the morning till five in the afternoon, the Russians were at length obliged to retreat, and leave the field of battle in possession of the patriots. The Russians were computed to have lost 4000 men in this engagement, and the Poles about 1100.

The Poles, notwithstanding these exertions, were obliged gradually to retire before their numerous and disciplined enemies. Nielwez, Wilna, Minsk, and several other places of less consequence, fell into their hands one after another. On a truce being proposed to the Russian general Kochowski, the proposal was haughtily rejected; while the desertion of vice brigadier Rudnicki, and some others, who preferred dishonour to personal danger, proclaimed a tottering cause. The progress of the armies of Catharine was marked with devaluation and cruelty, while, such was the aversion of the people both to the cause and the manner of conducting it, that, as they approached, the country all around became a wilderness, and scarcely a human being was to be seen.

A series of little defeats happening in the mean time, to which the inexperience of the commanders, and the intemperate valour of new raised troops, appear to have greatly contributed, served at once to distress and to dispirit these defenders of their country. Prince Poniatowski continued to retreat, and on the 17th of July, his rear being attacked by a very superior force, it suffered a considerable loss, though the skill and courage of general Kosciuszko enabled him to make a most respectable defence. On the 18th, a general engagement took place between the two armies. The Russian line extended opposite Dubienka, along the river Bug, as far as Opalin. The principal column, consisting of 14,000 men, was chiefly directed against the division of general Kosciuszko, which consisted of 5000 men only. After a most vigorous resistance, in which the Russians lost upwards of 4000 men, and the troops of the republic only some hundreds, the latter was compelled to give way before the superior numbers of the enemy, and to retire further into the country. Thus was this unequal contest at length prematurely terminated.

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haps, overpowered by his mental imbecility, and whose age and infirmities, probably, rendered him unequal to the difficulties and dangers which must attend a protracted war, instead of putting himself, according to his first resolve, at the head of his army, determined, at once, to surrender at discretion. On the 23d of July, he summoned a council of all the deputies at that moment in Warsaw. He laid before them the last dispatches from the empress, which insisted upon total and unreserved submission. He pointed out the danger of a dismemberment of the republic, should they delay to throw themselves upon the clemency of the empress, and, to entreat her protection. He mentioned the fatal union of Austria and Prussia with Russia; and the disgraceful supineness manifested by every other court in Europe. The combination formed by crowned heads against the rights and liberties of men, and the little spirit which was manifested for the maintenance of those sacred rights.

The intrepid and patriotic Malachowski, the princes Sapieha, Radzivil, and Soltan, were the four citizens who vehemently protested against these dastardly proceedings; and the following evening a company of gentlemen, from the different provinces, assembled for the same purpose. The assembly waited immediately on these four distinguished patriots, and returned them their acknowledgments for the spirit and firmness with which they had resisted the usurpations of despotism. The submission of the king to the designs of Russia was no sooner made known, than Poland was bereft of all her best and most respectable citizens. Malachowski, as marshal of the diet, and prince Sapieha, grand marshal of Lithuania, entered strong protests on the journals of the diet against these hostile proceedings, and declared solemnly that the diet legally assembled in 1788 was not dissolved.

A confederation was formed on the 2d of August, at Warsaw, of which the grand apostate, Potocki, was chosen marshal. The acts of this confederation were evidently the despotic dictates of Russia, and were calculated only to restore the ancient abuses, and to place the country under the aggravated oppression of a foreign yoke. By some succeeding transactions, it has appeared, that the unhappy country of Poland is to be converted into a province of Russia.

The king of Poland, deeply affected in being disappointed of carrying his beneficent views into execution, resolved, it is said, to retire from the supreme management of affairs; and even from the capital, where, in future he can experience nothing but mortification. He had determined, while a remnant of his army remained, to oppose with vigour the Russian forces; but his finances became so desperate, and his resources so precarious, that any further resistance must have been considered as the extreme of rashness and folly.—Some suspect that Holland had conspired with the other powers against this ill-fated monarch; as the expected loan from that country failed, which

would have prolonged the war another campaign. Thus deserted by his allies, disappointed in his hopes, and with an army reduced to 40,000 men, without magazines, and destitute of the means of continuing the war, an extraordinary council was convened. At this the prince primate assisted, and the council agreed, that as resistance was in vain, and as it would only augment the difficulties of the country, it was prudent to listen to the propositions of the empress, and that the king should accede to the counter-federation of Targowitz.

One of the stipulations made by the empress is, that Constantine Paulowitz, second son to the grand duke of Russia, shall succeed the present king of Poland.

Prince Constantine Paulowitz, was born on the 8th of May 1779; and his appointment will, no doubt, at any rate prevent the dread of a partition. The empress, after settling this affair, it is not impossible, may think of extending her territories more southward; and even her good friends and allies, Austria and Prussia, by their wavering actions, may one day be engaged in a war of her kindling.

The supineness of the king of Prussia, and his flagrant violation of his engagements, will not, however, in all probability, pass without a reward. Thorn and Dantzick, the possession of which he has long had in view, with some additional territory, will at least fall to his share in the partition. Austria too will scarcely be satisfied without a part; but to record the successful robberies of the imperial allies, will be the unpleasant duty of some future historian.

We cannot help remarking here, that at the very moment when Poland was surrendering its liberties to its despotic invaders, the generous sympathy of Great-Britain was evinced by a liberal subscription, supported by all the most respectable characters in the nation, of every party and of every sect, for the purpose of assisting the king and the republic to maintain their independence: and though the benevolent design was frustrated, the fact remains on record as a noble testimony of the spirit of Britons in the cause of freedom, of the indignation which fills every British heart at the commission of injustice, and of the liberality with which they are disposed to assist those who suffer from the oppression of tyrants.—Thus, in one instance, the concert of princes, as it is called, has proved fatally victorious over the cause of man. Thus the growing happiness of a respectable nation has been sacrificed to the personal ambition of three despotic sovereigns. Thus the citizens of a free republic are by one blow reduced to be the abject slaves of tyrants. Thus the balance of Europe, so much the theme of politicians, and perhaps so necessary to the permanent welfare of Europe, has been sacrificed to private and to selfish views, while those nations who have on former occasions devoted millions of lives, and expended countless sums in maintaining it, view with rigid tranquillity the fatal increase of despotic authority.

Be the real object of this combination what it may, it is such as no sound politician can observe with indifference. The precedent is fatal, the proceedings are ominous. If the object is ultimately the gratification of personal ambition in the parties concerned; if they have really, as some are disposed to believe, formed a secret agreement to divide among themselves, as suits their interest or their inclination, or as opportunity permits, the territory of Europe; if, as in the case of Poland, they may without a shadow of pretence, without a cause of complaint, without any legal claim or interest, invade and subjugate a country, merely because it is too weak to oppose them: then the citizens of free states have indeed cause to tremble; then the opulent part of every community have cause to fear for their possessions, since a respect for property never has been the creed of conquering despots: then the enlightened part of mankind may weep over the fate of their fellow-creatures; and every individual who would not wish to change the government under which he lives for the most tyrannical and oppressive, may have cause to imprecate the interposition of Providence, to put a stop to a system which threatens the subversion of all that is dear or valuable of temporal enjoyments.

The titles of the king are, king of Poland, great duke of Lithuania, duke of Russia, Prussia, Masovia,

Samogitia, Kiovia, Vollandia, Podolia, Podlachia, Livonia, Smolensko, Severia, and Czernichovia.

CHAP. XXIV.

S W I T Z E R L A N D ;

AND THE COUNTRIES OF THE ALLIES OF THE SWITZERS.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Towns, Climate, Produce, Mountains, Inhabitants, Religion, Curiosities, Government, History, &c.

THIS country is situated between the 6th and 11th deg. east long. and between the 45th and 48th of north lat. being about 60 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. It is bounded, on the west, by France; on the south, by Italy; on the east, by the lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent; and, on the north, by Alsace and Suabia, in Germany. The whole is divided into thirteen cantons; viz. Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Zug, Glaris, Basle, Fribourg, Soleure, Schaffhausen, Appenzel.

The following TABLE will give the dimensions and principal towns of each canton in Switzerland:

COUNTRIES NAMES.		Length.	Breadth	Sq. Miles.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Calvinists	Berne	111	87	2346	Berne, E. long. 7—20. N. lat. 47.
	Zurich	34	83	728	Zurich.
	Schaffhausen	23	9	140	Schaffhausen.
	Basle	21	18	240	Basle, 47—40. N. lat. 7—40. E. long.
Papists	Lucerne	33	35	460	Lucerne.
	Unterwalden	23	10	270	Stantz.
	Uri	48	21	612	Albort.
	Suisse	27	13	250	Suisse.
	Fribourg	24	21	370	Fribourg.
Calvinists and Papists	Zug	18	10	112	Zug.
	Soleure	31	24	253	Soleure, or Soloturn.
	Appenzel	23	21	270	Appenzel.
Subjects of the Switzers, Calvinists and Papists	Glaris	24	18	257	Glaris.
	Baden	26	12	216	Balden.
	Bremgarten				Bremgarten.
	Mellingen	20	5	40	Mellingen.
	Rheinthal				Rheinfick.
Thurgau	Frowanfield.				
Papists	Lugano	52	30	850	Lugano.
	Locarno				Locarno.
	Mendris				Mendris.
	Maggia				Maggia.
Total				7533	

The Dimensions and principal Towns of each Canton belonging to the ALLIES of the SWITZERS.

NAMES OF COUNTRIES.		Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Calvinists	Grisons	100	6a	2,270	Coire.
Calvinists and Papists	Chiavanna	4a	34	47a	Chiavanna.
	Bormio and Valtellina	27	19	360	Sondrio.
	Tocklenburg	27	8	168	Liechtensteg.
Calvinists	Geneva	13	11	160	Geneva.
	Neufchatel	3a	20	320	Neufchatel.
Papists	Valais	80	30	1,287	Sion.
	Basle	13	16	270	Delsberg.
	St. Gall	20	10	144	St. Gall.
Total		5,451	To these, Mulhausen in Alsace is also united.

Switzerland enjoys in general a healthy climate. The air, in winter, is exceedingly cold, both in the vallies and on the mountains; but during the summer it is delightfully cool in the latter, though sultry hot in the former. The inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons: sometimes the north side of a mountain will be clothed in all the horrors of winter, while the opposite is decked in the cheerful robes of summer: on one side of the mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies are, however, warm, fruitful, and well-cultivated, and the summer months in this charming country are extremely delightful. The water is generally excellent.

The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Aar, the Ruis, the Inn, the Rhone, the Tesin, the Oglio, and the Lutschinen.

A very curious phenomenon presents itself to our observation with respect to the dangerous bridge over the last mentioned river Lutschinen, in the bailiage of Interlacken, and canton of Berne, in Switzerland. This river is formed by the junction of two streams: the one, called the Weiss Lutschinen, flowing through the valley of Lauterbrunnen; and the other called the Schwartz Lutschinen, which comes from the valley of Grindelwalde. Having left the fertile plains of Giffelg, and passed the village of Wilderfwyl, the breadth of the valley lessens, and continues to grow so narrow, that the stream of the Lutschinen can hardly force a passage. In the rainy season, the river forms a torrent, which rushes impetuously through the great masses of rock that obstruct its course, and, with inconceivable violence, forces from their beds the most enormous fragments. The road to Twey-Lutschinen and Lauterbrunnen is over this river, by a kind of

bridge, which, to a stranger to the country, exhibits a very terrific appearance. Suspended over a roaring torrent, and fixed against the sides of rocks that are almost in a leaning position, it exhibits the idea of a double danger. A huge vertical stone, raised in the middle of the river, supports some thick planks, so badly joined as to be neither steady nor solid; and these form a wretched insecure bridge, over which the country people daily pass, with a firm step and undaunted eye; a passage, which the traveller, unaccustomed to such strange communications, would tremble to attempt. From this place the river flows till it falls into the lake of Brientz.

The chief lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Neufchatel, Biel, Brin, Thun, Zurich, Lucerne, and Brientz.

In the mountains are mines of iron, marble of various colours, crystal, spar, common gypsum, slate, sand-stones, chalk, mundic, terra sigillata, sulphur, salt-petre, rock-salt, and pit-coal.

The cattle and sheep in Switzerland are very numerous; and they have an exceeding good breed of horses. On the mountains are white and yellow foxes; hares, which turn white in winter; marmosets, and the Alpine mice, which are in reality a species of badger. Here are also the bouquetin and the chamois, whose activity in scouring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are much subject to pleurisy, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder: the flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Tame and wild fowl are very plentiful here; among the latter is a very large

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kind of eagle; and the rivers and lakes are stored with fish. The mountains produce good timber and pasture; and in the vallies there are vast quantities of wheat, barley, oats, rye, spelt, flax, and hemp; also apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, pomegranates, and grapes; in other parts, saffron is cultivated with good success. In a word, Switzerland produces sufficient for the subsistence of its inhabitants; and in order to provide against the scarcity which would be felt, if, from the sudden rains and tempests, to which the country is subject, or any other cause, the crops should fail, public granaries, well supplied with corn, are established in various places.

The mountains in Switzerland are many and stupendous: they not only divide almost every canton from each other, but the whole country is separated from Italy by a long chain of them, called the Alps, which must be crossed in order to pass from one place to the other; and accordingly there are four beaten roads over them, which in many parts will allow of no other method of travelling than on horses, asses, or mules. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture-grounds. In winter, prodigious masses of ice and snow fall from these mountains, which is generally attended with considerable damage to the inhabitants.

There are several mineral waters and baths in this country; but the most excellent baths are those at Baden, which, Tacitus observes, were known even in the time of our Saviour: they are used for drinking as well as bathing, and are recommended for the cure of several disorders: the town of Baden owes its riches and grandeur to this bath, which is much resorted to by the gentry, from all parts of Switzerland.

At the distance of two leagues north from the town of Le Valais are the celebrated baths of Leuk, situated at the foot of Mount Gemmi, in a narrow profound vale, closed in on all sides by high mountains, leaving only a small entrance through a wood to the south. In the vale are five springs of warm mineral water, which are conveyed to divers baths in convenient houses for the use of the sick.

These baths are greatly frequented in summer: the water is clear, and without any colour; yet some of the springs are so hot, that they will boil an egg, or scald the feathers from a fowl. From the pretty village containing these baths, there is a way to pass to the canton of Berne, by ascending mount Gemmi; but it is uncommonly steep, and the declivity remarkably rugged: in short, if it had not been for facilitating the access to the baths for the inhabitants of Berne, no mortal could have thought of making this mount passable. The deep sighs that are occasioned by the fatigue of ascending it, has given its name to this rocky mountain. Little serpentine narrow roads, cut into the rock, in some

places defended by walls, in others by beams fastened cross-ways, to keep passengers from falling over, render travelling this way very dangerous, and impracticable for those who are subject to giddiness, or bleeding at the nose; who, upon fainting, would be liable to fall down a steep craggy road at the peril of life. An engineer measured the ascent of this mount, and found it to be one million and ten feet.

The thirteen cantons of Switzerland, according to the best computation, are supposed to contain about two millions of inhabitants. The men are generally tall, robust, well made, with bad complexions, owing chiefly to their laborious way of life, which exposes them to tempestuous and stormy weather. The women are usually handsome, well-shaped, sensible, and modest, yet frank and easy in their conversation and behaviour. They are a brave, honest, hospitable, industrious, hardy people; very friendly and humane, and always steadfast to their engagements. The gentry are much improved of late years, both in their conversation and behaviour; but they are generally haughty, and value themselves very highly on their privileges as citizens, or sharers in the government; and disdain the profession of trade and manufactures, for it is very difficult for a man to render himself of any consequence among them, either as an adept in his profession, or by possessing a superior genius. The merchants have great privileges, and many of them are very rich. The peasants, equally inured to arms and agriculture, are brave and laborious, making at once excellent soldiers and husbandmen. The state of matrimony is held in the highest esteem among the Switzers, and several privileges belong to such as enter into it. The women are generally very fruitful, and their country being but narrow, parents are obliged to send their sons to seek a support in foreign climates, and as they are usually of a martial spirit, and accustomed to arms from their youth, they most commonly enter into foreign service; those of the Popish cantons into the French and Spanish, and those of the Protestant into the pay of the States General, and of the Protestant princes in Germany. They are so tenacious of their rights and privileges, that they discourage foreigners from settling among them, which is a great detriment to the arts and manufactures. Sumptuary laws are in force in some parts, by which superb clothes, and ornaments of lace, gold, silver, and jewels, are prohibited both sexes; but, of late years, they have made some alterations in the ancient simplicity of their dress, in which they now conform more to the French taste: most of the men wear their own hair, and whippers. Their diversions are of the warlike and active kind, of which hunting seems to be that they most delight in. As to plays, gaming, and even balls, except at weddings, the magistrates of most of the cantons have thought proper to impose fines upon them, as tending towards an introduction of extravagance and luxury into the country.

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tion; their common people are far more intelligent than the faric rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even amongst many of the lower rank; and a genuine and fruitful good-breeding is extremely conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, a traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants: a general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, joined with an invincible spirit of freedom, are their distinguished characteristics. With respect to domestic oeconomy, the cleanliness of the houses and of the people is peculiarly striking; in short, in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotic government.

The two established religions in Switzerland are Calvinism and Popery, which differences formerly occasioned great commotions, but at present they are entirely subsided. Protestantism was introduced into this country by Zuing, or Zuinglius, and is professed in the cantons of Zurich and Berne, the towns of St. Gall, Geneva, Mulhausen, and Biel, the principality of Neuchatel, the greater part of Basil, Schaffhausen, the country of the Grisons, the Thurgau, Toggenburg, Glaris, and the Rhine valley, the frontiers of Appenzel, with a small part of Solothurn, and some places in the countries of Baden and Sargans. All the other parts of Switzerland profess the tenets of the church of Rome.

Several languages are spoken in Switzerland, but the most common is the German, and in that all public affairs are transacted. In the cantons bordering on Italy, the inhabitants speak a corrupted Latin, or Italian.

The Swiss are not celebrated for their extensive learning or deep erudition, though there are among them many learned men, but their knowledge is generally confined to divinity and law. Rousseau, whose works have been much admired in the present age, and who gave a surprising force to the French language, was a native of Geneva, where the laws instituted by Calvin for that city are held in high esteem. M. Bonnet, and Mess. de Saussure and de Luc will also be mentioned with applause to the latest posterity. Some Switzers have also distinguished themselves in the fine arts, particularly painting and engraving.

The only university in Switzerland, is that of Basil; it was founded in 1459, and has a curious physic-garden, well stocked with choice exotics. The library and museum belonging to it are very noble, and contain some valuable manuscripts, with an excellent collection of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Erasmus and Amerbach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than 20 original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a dead Christ, 1000 ducats have been offered. The colleges are those of

Zurich, Bern, Lausanne, and Geneva; besides which, there are gymnasiums, and scholæ illustres, in most of the cantons: they have also some societies for the improvement of the German language, and the sciences.

The natural curiosities of Switzerland are very numerous, but none are more deserving of notice than the glaciers, or ice-vallies, which, notwithstanding this appellation, are situated a considerable height above the contiguous rivers and lakes. The ascent to them is very steep, craggy, and slippery. These vallies are only frequented in July and August, when the ice is found to be eight feet thick, and in some places of such a height, that it seems to have been accumulating ever since the creation. There are also several wonderful hermitages in Switzerland; especially one, about two leagues from Fribourg, among woods and rocks, which conspire to form a most beautiful solitude. It consists of a chapel, oratory, steeple, hall, refectory, kitchen, rooms, stairs, cellar, well, and other conveniences, all hewn out of a rock, even to the chimney and steeple, though the latter is fifty-four feet in height. The astonishment, which this of itself may excite, will not be a little increased, when it is known to have been the labour only of a single man and a boy. Nature had indeed provided a fine spring, but the industrious architect had hewn little channels for bringing the water of the rock into small cisterns; and of earth brought from other places, he made a small kitchen-garden.— This edifice it is impossible to view without pleasure, but likewise a mixture of concern for the fate of its owner, a man of such contrivance and industry: in the year 1708, in carrying back some young people who came to visit him on the consecration of his chapel, he was drowned in the river Sane, running by the hermitage, on which river he used once a week to fetch necessaries from the town in a little boat.

At Lauffen, on the north-east part of the canton of Zurich, is a wonderful cataract of the Rhine, which falls from a height of between 40 and 50 cubits, with a noise that, in a calm night, may be heard at the distance of two leagues. And in the bailiwick of Interlaken and canton of Bern, in Switzerland, is Lauterbrunnen, a village, or rather collection of cottages, sprinkled, like those of Grindelwald, about the valley and accessible parts of the hills. Near the clergyman's house is the celebrated cataract of Staubbach, to view which is almost the only motive that induces a great number of travellers, every summer, to visit the valley of Lauterbrunnen. "This torrent," says Mr. Coxe, "rolls perpendicularly from so considerable a height, as to resolve itself into a fine spray; the greatest part of it falls clear of the overhanging mountain, during its whole descent: but the remainder dashes about half way against a projection from the rock, and flies off with great violence. The clergyman measured, a short time ago, its perpendicular height, and found it nine hundred and thirty feet. The sun shining in an opposite direction, a miniature rainbow was reflected toward the bottom of the fall: while

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I stood at some distance, the rainbow assumed a semi-circular figure; as I approached, the extreme points gradually coincided, and formed a complete circle of the most lively and brilliant colours. In order to have a still finer view, I ventured nearer and nearer; the circle at the same time becoming smaller and smaller; and as I stood quite under the fall, it suddenly disappeared. When I looked up to the torrent, in this situation, it resembled a cloud of dust: and from this circumstance indeed it takes its name; Staubbach signifying, in the German language, a spring of dust. I paid for my curiosity, by being extremely wet; but then I had the satisfaction, at the same time, of seeing a rainbow in miniature: no uncommon phenomenon, as it may be observed in any cascade, upon which the sun shines directly in a certain position. In the present instance, however, it was some consolation to me, that the object happened to be peculiarly striking.

The engraved view exhibits the profile of this magnificent cascade. With such impetuous violence the torrent rushes down a precipice upward of nine hundred feet high, that its waters, in a manner, leave near two thirds of the rock dry, and do not reach, but at this distance, the lower projecting rocks which it covers with froth, rushing with a roaring noise into the basin below; accompanied by a tempest, occasioned by the violent agitation of the air, excited by the rapidity of this fall. The circular hillock, near the rainbow, at the foot of the rock, from the top of which we may contemplate this beautiful phenomenon, forms one of the sides of the reservoir. Above the great torrent, is seen another smaller fall, floating in the air, at the pleasure of the winds. This brook is named the Kupferbacklein, or Rivulet of Copper. The side of the rock, beyond that of Staubbach, is called Schneppf. At the extremity of it, which is almost perpendicular, a mass of rock overhangs, and from which rushes a considerable brook. On the opposite part of the landscape, is seen, at the extremity of the mount of the Virgin, an insulated conical point, called the Monk, from its exact resemblance to a monk's hood. In the distance appear mountains of snow and glaciers.

Among the other natural curiosities of this country may be reckoned two wells, one of which ebbs and flows once a day; and another which flows three months, and is dry the other three; and also the marcasites, false diamonds, which are pieces of the purest crystal, and other stones, found in the mountains.

The most considerable city, and the capital of Switzerland, is Berne, standing on the river Aar. The houses are mostly built of white free stone, with piazzas, for sheltering the passengers from rain. This city and canton, it is said, forms almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men.

Lausanne, capital of the Pais de Vaud, consists of steep ascents and descents; at the east side is a pleasant walk, with a beautiful view of the city, and of the

country round, which is a delightful variety of hills, vallies, corn-fields, meadows, vineyards, and woods. The great church, said to have been 200 years in building, is a noble Gothic structure.

Basil is the largest town in Switzerland, having 220 streets; and six market-places, or squares. It is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire; the Rhine divides it into the Upper and Lower Town. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsac, is supported by very large pillars, and its large hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of Basil, which is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland.

Zurich is far less considerable than Berne. The streets are neat, and houses well built, but not magnificent. In the arsenal is shewn the bow of the famous William Tell, with the cross-bow from which he struck the apple from his child's head; and in the library is a manuscript of excellent letters written by the unfortunate lady Jane Gray to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German. This town is fortified in the modern way, and has wide ditches faced with free-stone. The sumptuary laws are observed here.

Baden is an ancient town, situated on the Limmat; it is famous for its hot-baths: here are several churches and convents, and a council-house.

Geneva, though an associate of Switzerland, and under the protection of the Helvetic body, is an independent state and republic. It is a large, handsome, well-fortified place, containing 24,000 inhabitants, chiefly Calvinists; and is situated partly on an island in the Rhone, and partly on the banks on each side. The trade of this place is very considerable, it being a great thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy; and has a variety of manufactures and arts, particularly in the watch-making branch. Here are six churches, a guildhall, and an arsenal. This city (or rather its magistrates and council, the partisans of aristocracy) has been under the protection of France; in consequence of which, many of its valuable inhabitants left the place, and sought refuge and protection in Ireland, and other countries, which they have enriched with their useful manufactures.

For the entertainment as well as information of our readers, we shall here insert an account of the smallest republic in Europe. It is the village of Gersau, which is situated on the eastern branch of the lake of Schweiz, at the foot of Mount Rigi. Its territory is only six miles in length, and three in breadth; situated partly on a small neck of land at the edge of the lake, and partly lying upon the rapid declivity of the Rigi. It contains about 1200 inhabitants. They have their general assembly of burgeses, their landman, their council of regency, their courts of justice, and their militia; but there is not a single horse in the whole territory of the republic, as indeed may well be supposed; for the only way of arriving at the town is by

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water, excepting a narrow path down the steep sides of the mountain, which is almost impassable. Gerisau is composed entirely of scattered houses and cottages, of a very neat and picturesque appearance. Each dwelling is provided with a field or small garden. The inhabitants are much employed in preparing silk for the manufactures of Balle. This little republic is under the protection of the four cantons of Lucerne, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden; and, in case of war, furnishes its quota of men. To the ambitious politician, who judges of government by extent of dominion and power, such a diminutive republic, thrown into an obscure corner, and scarcely known out of its own contracted territory, must appear unworthy of notice; but the smallest spot of earth on which true civil freedom is cultivated and flourishes, cannot fail to interest those who know the real value of liberty and independence, and are convinced that political happiness does not consist in great opulence and extensive empire.

With respect to manufactures, the principal are sunff and tobacco, linen of several sorts, lace, thread, silk and worsted stockings, neckcloths, cotton stuffs, gloves, handkerchiefs, silks of several sorts, gold and silver brocades, a variety of woollen manufactures, hats, paper, leather of all sorts, earthen wares, porcelain, toys, watches, clocks, and other hardwares, &c. The trade of Switzerland is greatly promoted by many navigable lakes and rivers. In some of the above manufactures, and in cheese, butter, sheep, horses, black cattle, hides, and skins, the exports are considerable; and as the imports are chiefly grain and salt, with some American and Asiatic goods, there is probably a large balance in their favour.

Before we give an account of the government and constitution of Switzerland, it may not be amiss to observe in general, that there is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of territory, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swifs, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that, since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves that were not soon happily terminated: and, indeed, there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people; for, whether the government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the federal constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states, which are usually the most tyrannical, are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to ensure its con-

tinuance. But, to be more particular respecting the nature of the Swifs constitution:

In some of the cantons the government is aristocratical, and in others democratical. The former are those of Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Basle, Friburg, Solothurn, and Schaffhausen; the other six are democratical. In the first, both the legislative and executive power is lodged in the burghers, or citizens of the capital of each canton; and in the latter the legislative power is lodged in the whole body of the people; and every male, above sixteen, whether master or servant, has a vote in making laws, and in the choice of magistrates.

The thirteen cantons are in fact so many independent states, only united by strict alliances for their mutual defence. This confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions: first, the Switzers, properly so called; secondly, the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Switzers for their common protection; and, thirdly, those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates.

In Switzerland, there are two kind of diets held; general and partial. The general diet, which represents the whole Helvetic body, usually sits at Baden, and consists of two deputies from each canton; besides which, the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and of Bienne, send deputies as allies. When any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet assembles annually on the feast of St. John the Baptist, and seldom sits longer than a month. The partial or extraordinary diets are summoned according to the will of the respective states which constitute them.

The revenues of the different cantons cannot easily be ascertained, but it is supposed that those of Berne, which is the largest, amount to 300,000 crowns; those of Zurich to 150,000; and those of the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever remains, after the necessary expences of government are defrayed, is laid up in the treasury. The Swiffes are said to be possessed of 500,000l. sterling in the English funds, besides monies in other banks. Their revenues arise chiefly from the profits of the demefne lands; the tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country, the customs and duties on merchandize, some casual taxes, and the sale of salt; but this last article forms by far the most considerable part.

The Switzers maintain but few regular troops, and those are employed in the garrisons. Their internal strength (independent of the militia, which is esteemed the best in Europe) consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each canton. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, is obliged to learn the use of arms, appear on the days appointed for shooting at a mark, furnish himself with proper clothing,

accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes or states, either as guards or in marching regiments. Such powers as are in alliance with the cantons, are, on paying them an annual subsidy, allowed to make levies there, when the inhabitants may enlist with their own consent, and with the concurrence of the magistracy, for what number of years they please; at the expiration of which they are always at liberty to return home. Thus the service of foreign princes forms a school for the young recruits of Switzerland, where, having perfectly learnt the art of war, they return to their native country able and experienced officers and soldiers, or die nobly in endeavouring to obtain those characters in the service.

The coins of Germany, France, and Italy, pass current in Switzerland, there being none peculiar to the country.

THE HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND.

THE Switzers and Grisons are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, and were reduced under the Roman yoke by Julius Cæsar, who added their country to the province of Gaul. They continued under the Roman government till the time of Honorius and Valentinian II. when their country was conquered by the Burgundians and Germans; but their government was little more than nominal. About the year 635, part of Switzerland was given to Sigebert, count of Hapsburg, the founder of the house of Austria; and, in the year 1032, the rest of this country was given by Rodolph, the last king of Burgundy, to Conrad II. emperor of Germany, and, from that period, Switzerland was considered as part of that empire. This government continued about 300 years, during which period the Austrian governors exercised almost every species of oppression.

Wearied with continual acts of injustice, the Switzers applied to Albert I. for redress; but this petition was so far from procuring the removal of their grievances, that their hardships were increased. Gessler, the Austrian governor, exasperated at their laying their complaints before the emperor, exerted the most wanton tyranny. He even placed a hat upon the top of a pole, commanding the Switzers to pay the same respect to that mock representation of authority, as to himself. William Tell, a native of Berne, and one of the best marksmen of the age, beheld this instance of Gessler's malice with contempt; he paid no regard to the Austrian's ridiculous commands, and frequently passed the spot without taking the least notice of the hat. Exasperated at the disobedience of Tell, the tyrant condemned him to suffer death, unless he cleft an apple placed on his own son's head, who stood at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell performed the task with amazing dexterity; and Gessler observing another arrow stuck in his belt, told him, he imagined a single arrow was all he could want on this occasion. Tell

nobly replied, "That arrow was intended to have pierced your heart, had the first unfortunately killed my son." Provoked at this reply, Gessler sent Tell to prison; but the Swiss escaping from his confinement, watched an opportunity, and shot the governor. It appears, however, that a plan had been for some time concerted by the principal persons of this distressed country, for the recovery of their liberty; and this action of Tell hastened its execution. They defeated the forces of Austria and France, an union of the cantons was formed, and they defended the liberty they had obtained with so much valour and intrepidity, that by the treaty of Munster, often called the treaty of Westphalia, concluded in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Their union was effected in the following manner: Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suisse, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itself in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Basle and Schaffhausen in 1501; and, in 1513, Appenzel completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, at the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their mutual alliance was acknowledged as a free and independent state.

Since the year 1707, Neuchâtel hath been subject to Prussia, but the inhabitants are nevertheless free to serve any prince whatever, and not compellable to take an active part in his wars. The king may recruit among them, and name a governor; but he derives from them a revenue of only 5000l. yearly, great part of which is expended on the roads and other public works.

C H A P. XXV.

S P A I N.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Animals, Vegetables, Fish, Corn, Fruits, Rivers, Bays, People, Learning, Commerce, Religion, Language, History.

THIS kingdom, including Portugal, was anciently called Iberia, from the river Iberus; and Hesperia, from its situation, being the most western part of the continent of Europe. It lies between the 36th and 44th deg. of north lat. and between the 3d of east and 10th deg. of west long. Its greatest length, from east to west, is about 700 miles; and its greatest breadth, from north to south, about 480; being bounded by the Mediterranean on the east; by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean on the west; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean-Hills on the north; and by the Straights of Gibraltar on the south.

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NAMES OF PROVINCES.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	CHIEF CITIES.
Castile, New.....	220	180	27,840	Madrid, N. lat. 40-30. W. long. 4-15.
Andalusia.....	273	135	16,500	Seville.
Castile, Old.....	193	140	14,400	Burgos.
Aragon.....	190	105	13,818	Saragossa.
Extremadura.....	180	123	12,600	Badajos.
Galicia.....	165	120	12,000	Compostella.
Leon.....	167	96	11,200	Leon.
Catalonia.....	172	110	9,000	Barcelona.
Granada.....	200	45	8,100	Granada.
Valencia.....	180	75	6,800	Valencia.
Biscay and Ipuscoa.....	140	55	4,760	Bilboa.
Asturia.....	124	55	4,600	Oviedo.
Murcia.....	87	65	3,600	Murcia.
Upper Navarre.....	92	45	3,000	Pampeluna.
Islands in the Mediterranean.				
Majorca.....	58	40	1,400	Majorca:
Yvica.....	37	25	625	Yvica.
Minorca.....	41	20	520	Citadella.
Total	150,763	The town and fortrefs of Gibraltar are subject to Great-Britain.

The Subdivisions of Spain are :

1. GALICIA, KINGDOM, N. W.

Archbishopric of Compostella; chief town Compostella.

Bishoprics of Mondonedo, ch. town Mondonedo; Lugo, ch. town Lugo; Ortense, ch. town Ortense.

Tenitory of Tuy, ch. town Tuy.

Other considerable towns in this province are, Comma, Ferrol, Vigo, Betawzes, and Rivadavia.

2. AUSTRIA, PRINCIPALITY, N.

Principality of Austria de Oviedo, ch. town Oviedo; Andria de Santillana; ch. town Santillana.

Other considerable towns in this province are, Avilles and St. Vincent.

3. BISCAY, LORDSHIP, N. W.

Biscay Proper, ch. town Bilboa; Guipusco, ch. town Tholosa; Alva, ch. town Vittoria.

Other considerable towns in this province are, Fontarabia, St. Andrew, Lacedo, Ordunna, and Placentia.

4. NAVARRE, KINGDOM, N.

Majorships of Pampeluna, ch. town Pampeluna; Olita, ch. town Olita; Tudela, ch. town Tudela; Estella, ch. town Estella; Sanguesa, ch. town Sanguesa.

5. ARRAGON, KINGDOM, E.

Archbishopric of Saragossa, ch. town Saragossa.

Bishoprics of Jaca, ch. town Jaca; Huesca, ch. town Huesca; Balbestro, ch. town Balbestro; Tarazona, ch. town Tarazona; Albarasin, ch. town Albarasin; Teruel, ch. town Teruel; Sobarbe, ch. town Ainsa.

Other considerable towns in this province are, Calatuid; and Boria.

6. CATALONIA, PRINCIPALITY, E.

Districts of Barcelona, ch. town Barcelona; Urgel, ch. town Urgel; Balaguer, ch. town Balaguer; Lerida, ch. town Lerida; Tortosa, ch. town Tortosa; Girona, ch. town Girona; Tarragona, ch. town Tarragona; Lampredun, ch. town Roses; Vich, ch. town Vich; Cardonna, ch. town Cardonna; Solsona, ch. town Solsona; Puycerda, ch. town Puycerda.

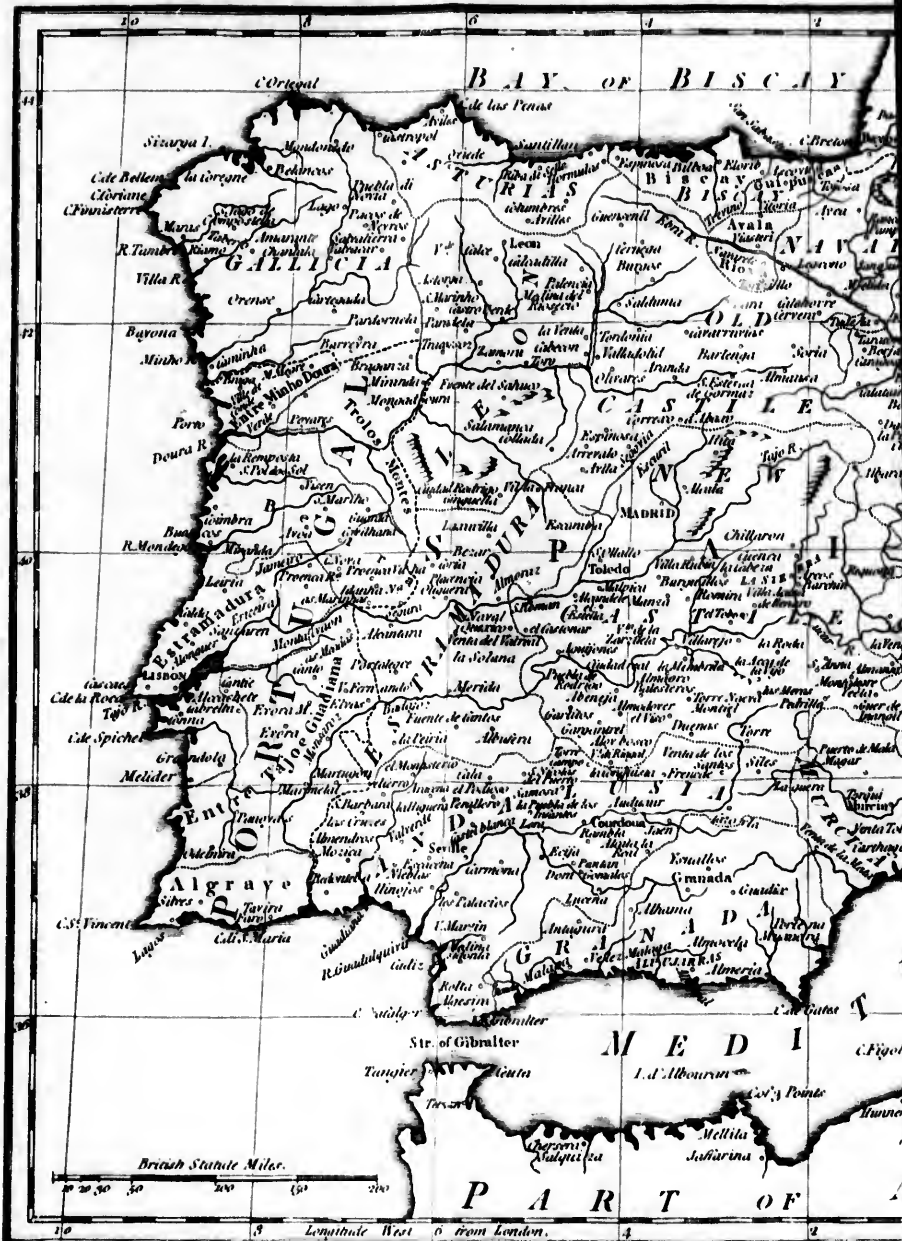
Maurefa is another considerable town in this province.

7. VALENCIA, KINGDOM, S. E.

Districts of Xucar, ch. town Valencia; Millaros, ch. town Villa Hermosa; Segura, ch. town Origucla.

Other principal towns in this province are, Segorbe, Xativa, Alicante, Denia, Gandia, Morviedro, Villareal, Alzira, Altea.

8. MURCIA,



Cortezal

BAY OF BISCAY

GALICIA

CASTILE

ANDALUSIA

ARAGON

SEVILLE

ALGRAVE

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

PART OF

British Statute Miles

Longitude West of London



8. MURCIA, KINGDOM, S.

Districts of Murcia Proper, ch. town Murcia; Lereca, ch. town Lereca; Carthagena, ch. town Carthagena.

Caravaca and Mula are the other considerable towns in this province.

9. GRANADA, KINGDOM, S.

Archbishopric of Granada, ch. town Granada; Malaga, ch. town Malaga; Almeria, ch. town Almeria, Guadix, ch. town Guadix.

Other considerable towns in this province are, Renda, Antiquera, Braga, and Loya.

10. ANDALUSIA, PROVINCE, S. W.

Archbishopric of Seville, ch. town Seville.

Bishoprics of Jaen, ch. town Jaen; Corduba, ch. town Corduba.

Duchy of Medina Sidonia, ch. town Medina Sidonia. Other considerable towns in this province are, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Port St. Mary, Ezeja, Baeza, Osluna, St. Lucar, Anduxar, Carmona, Alcalareal, Luena, Arcos, Marchena, Ayamont, Ubeda, and Moguer.

11. OLD CASTILE PROVINCE, NEAR THE MIDDLE.

Burgos, ch. town Burgos; Rioja, ch. town Rioja; Calahorra, ch. town Calahorra; Soria, ch. town Soria; Oflina, ch. town Oflina; Valladolid, ch. town Valladolid; Segovia, ch. town Segovia; Avila, ch. town Avila; Sigüenza, ch. town Sigüenza.

The other considerable towns in this province are, Roa, Aranda, Calzada, Negera, and St. Domingo.

12. NEW CASTILE, IN THE MIDDLE.

N. of the Tajo, ch. town Madrid; Upon the Tajo, ch. town Toledo; E. of Toledo, ch. town Cuenca; On the Guadiana, ch. town Ciudad Real; E. of Madrid, ch. town Alcalade Henarez; Frontiers of Valencia, ch. town Almanza; N. W. of Madrid, ch. town Escorial; N. E. of Madrid, ch. towns Guadaluaxara, Brihuega; La Moucha, S. La Sierra, E. On the Guadiana, ch. town Calatrava; Frontiers of Valencia, ch. town Villena Requena.

13. LEON, KINGDOM, N. E.

North of Douro, ch. towns Leon, Palencia or Placentia, Toro, Zamora, Astorga.

South of Douro, ch. towns Salamanca, Alva, Ciudad Rodrigo.

14. ESTREMADURA, PROVINCE, S. W.

On the Guadina, ch. towns Merida, Badajox; North of the Tago, ch. towns Placentia, Coria.

Between the Tajo and Guadina, ch. town Truxillo; South of the Guadina, ch. town Lereca, or Ellerena; on the Tajo, ch. town Alcantara; on the Guadina, ch. town Medclin.

SPANISH ISLANDS, E.

Majorca, ch. town Majorca; Minorca, ch. town Citadella, Port Mahon; Yvica, ch. town Yvica.

The climate and air of Spain vary greatly in different parts. In the south, the heat is excessive during the months of June, July, and August, and would be almost insupportable, were it not for the cool breezes which blow off the mountains, but the remainder of the year is delightful and temperate. In the north, and near the sea-coast, the air in summer is much less sultry, and in winter very cold. If the natural luxury of the soil in Spain was seconded by the industry of her inhabitants, it would be the most fruitful country in Europe. In many places it produces fruit almost spontaneously, and formerly vast quantities of corn grew there, but at present there is a great scarcity of it, entirely owing to the want of tillage, and not, as some have asserted, to the barrenness of the soil: for, excepting some sandy deserts in the south, and the mountains in the north, it is exceeding rich, particularly in the plains and valleys; and were it not for the generous qualities of the soil, the vast number of inhabitants in this country, who neither toil nor spin for their food, could never be maintained.

The Spanish wheat is esteemed the finest in Europe; barley is produced there in great quantities, and very good: it is the common food for the horses and mules, oats and hay being very scarce in that kingdom, and there is not much flax or hemp. Besides the fruits which are produced in England, Spain yields citrons, lemons, oranges, almonds, raisins, prunes, olives, dates, figs, chestnuts, pomegranates, and capers. Valencia is famous for the growth of lemons; and in the kingdom of Arragon, the trees bear fruit three, and sometimes four times in a year. Grapes are cultivated in most parts with the greatest success, and produce some exceeding rich wines, among which are sack and sherry. Dr. Buschius says, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export wines and raisins to the amount of 268,759l. sterling annually. Sugar-canes and saffron are cultivated in Granada; and the kingdom of Murcia abounds in mulberry-trees, for the sustenance of its silk-worms, which are said to produce 200,000l. worth of raw silk every year. The mountainous parts yield prodigious quantities of wild thyme, majoram, and other aromatic herbs, which renders the taste of their kids and sheep, that feed on them, of a most delicate flavour. Villa Franca produces the herb escuzonera, esteemed by the Spaniards an antidote against all sorts of poisons, and a certain cure in the plague; likewise the herb eustracia, which being soaked in warm wine, and the eyes washed with it, is very beneficial to the sight. Great quantities of the plant esparto are found on the rocky lands, of which they make ropes and other cordage; and upon the banks of the river Guadina, there grows a very extraordinary shrub called the laurel-rose, from the resemblance

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which the flowers bear a rose, but the leaves are of
such a quality, that all animals die who happen to feed
on them.

Spain is much infested with locusts: in 1754, La
Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of fam-
ine attacked the fruitful provinces of Andalusia,
Murcia, and Valencia. They have sometimes ap-
peared in the air in such numbers as to darken the
sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy,
and the finest summer day of Estremadura has been
rendered more dismal than the winter of Holland.
Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can
scent a corn-field or garden at a great distance, and
which they will ravage almost in an instant. Mr. Dil-
lon thinks that the country people, by destroying the
eggs, might totally extirpate these formidable in-
sects.

Andalusia is remarkable for a very fine breed of
horses, esteemed the handfomest in Europe, and at the
same time exceeding fleet and strong. The Spanish
mules are very serviceable, and the asses of a prodigious
size. The wild bulls of this kingdom have long
been famous for their fierceness, and are chiefly bred
in Andalusia. Chamois and other goats are found in
Spain, as are stags, many species of deer, and vast
quantities of game, but the only beasts of prey there
are wolves. Here are great numbers of black cattle
and sheep, the latter of which produce the finest wool
in the world. The number of shepherds in Spain are
computed to be about 40,000, who move regularly with
their flocks every summer from south to north, along
the mountains, which yield a great variety of sweet
herbs and plants, and return again towards the winter.
During this progress, large quantities of salt are dis-
tributed among the sheep, and all possible care is taken
both of their health and fleeces.

Most of the feathered race in Spain are birds of pas-
sage, but two of them are worthy description, viz. the
flamencoes, and the sea-cock. The first is about the
size of a stork, but in its form seems a compound of
the duck and the swan; the body is white, and the wings
are spotted with a beautiful scarlet. The colour of the
sea-cock is blue, or scarlet and blue, extremely brilli-
ant, with scarlet crests and feet; they fly very slow, are
good to eat, and, if taken young, may be brought up
tame. The tame fowl are of various kinds, and very
fine: and at Corga there is a particular breed of hens
of a prodigious size.

Fish of all kinds, particularly anchovies, is very
plenty in the seas; there are also great quantities in
many of their lakes and rivers; and the port of Car-
thagena, with some adjacent places, are noted for large
schools of herrings.

Many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Se-
ville, and Cordova. All the waters in Spain are pos-
sessed of such healing qualities, that they are outdone
by those of no country in Europe; and by enclosing and
encouraging a resort to them, they grow every day more

and more in vogue, especially at Alhamar in Granada.
The medicinal-waters of Spain are little known.

It would be almost impossible to particularize all the
mountains in Spain, the whole country being inter-
sected by them. The principal, and the highest, are
the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend
from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and di-
vide Spain from France. The Aturian and Biscayan
mountains are a considerable chain, which branch out
from the Pyrenees, and, running westward, form the
southern boundary of Biscay and Asturias. Near Gib-
raltar is situated the famous mount Calpe, opposite to
mount Abyla, in Africa: these two mounts were called
Hercules' Pillars by the ancients. Among the moun-
tains of Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the at-
tention of the curious traveller, being one of the most
singular in the world for situation, shape, and composi-
tion. It stands in a vast plain, about 30 miles from
Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality
of Catalonia. When this mountain is first seen at a
distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of
rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon
another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto-
work, or Gothic spires. Upon a nearer view, each
cove appears of itself a mountain, and the whole com-
poses an enormous mass about 14 miles in circumfer-
ence: the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues
in height, but Mr. Swinburne estimates its height at
only 3,300 feet. This wonderful mountain appears, at
a distant view, to be the work of man; but on a nearer
approach, the observer is convinced that it is the pro-
duction of the God of nature.

The principal rivers in Spain are, the Ebro, the
ancient Aberus; the Douro, formerly Durius; the
Turo, formerly Guadalaviar; the Guadiana, formerly
the Anas; the Tajo, the ancient Tagus; and the Bœtis.
Here is also the famous river Tinto, the qualities of
which are very extraordinary: it rises in Sierra More-
na, and has the name of Tinto given it from the tinge
of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, harden-
ing and putrifying the sand; in a most surprising man-
ner. If a stone happens to fall in, and rests upon
another, they both become in a year perfectly conglu-
tinated and united. This river withers all the plants
on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it
dies of the same hue as the waters. No kind of ver-
dure will spring up where it reaches, nor any fish live
in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them
to drink; but no animals will drink out of the river,
excepting goats, whose flesh has nevertheless an ex-
cellent flavour. These singular properties continue till
other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature; for when
it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers,
and falls into the Mediterranean sea, six leagues lower
down, near Huelva.

The chief lakes are, 1. Bonaventa, which runs in
the middle with such violence, that waves rise like those
in the sea; it abounds with fish, particularly excellent
trout.

trout. 2. A lake on the top of the Pyrenees, of vast depth: it is asserted, that a stone slung into it, causes a prodigious vapour. 3. A lake near Antiquera, the waters of which are by the heat of the sun made into salt.

There are many bays belonging to this country, the chief of which are, Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicante, Altea, Valencia, Roses, Majorca, and Port Mahon in Minorca.

There were formerly mines of gold and silver in this kingdom, and the latter in such plenty, that Strabo observes, when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, they found the domestic and agricultural utensils of that metal. There is no doubt, but that these mines are still in the country, but they have been entirely neglected since the Spaniards have been able to draw such immense quantities from America. Here are mines of lead, copper, and iron, the best of which is dug from the mountains of Biscay, and sent all over Europe, as exceeding any other in goodness. Here is also great plenty of sulphur, alum, calamine, vermilion, and quicksilver, of which they send large quantities to the West-Indies. Near the town of Cardona are mines of salt of various colours, which the inhabitants term fossil salt: it is dug out like stones, and grows very fast. At Antiquera, in the diocese of Malaga, are excellent salt-pits, and the water that runs from them is evaporated into salt, by the heat of the sun. Santa Maria, in the province of Andalusia, and Mengravia, are likewise famous for their mines of white salt. Many places in Spain are noted for beautiful marble, alabaster, granate, crystal, jasper, jet, agate, cornelian, and other stones.

The number of inhabitants in Spain has been computed, by one of their own writers, at 9,250,000. This kingdom was formerly one of the most populous in Europe, but has never recovered the blow given to it by the expulsion of the Moors, who, from motives of religion, were banished to the amount of 100,000. Other great causes of this depopulation are the great drains of people sent to America; the indolence of the natives, who do not provide food for their families; and the prodigious numbers of both sexes, who live in a state of religious celibacy; to which may likewise be added, the natural sterility of the women.

In their persons, the Spaniards are of a middle stature, rather lean, but well made, of an olive complexion, with black glossy hair, fine eyes, and expressive countenances. They have a natural gravity in their air, great coldness and reserve in their deportment, and are far from being communicative to strangers; but when once they are thoroughly acquainted, and have contracted an intimacy, they are conversible, social, and friendly. They have great probity and integrity of principle, and possess the highest notions of honour, even to excess, which is a still visible effect of their ancient love of chivalry, and was the animating spirit of

that enthusiasm. They persevere with great fidelity and zeal in their friendships; but are warm, vindictive, and implacable in their resentments. They are generous, liberal, magnificent, charitable, and religious; but their devotion too frequently degenerates into superstition.

The predominant foible of the people is pride, which at different periods has led them to form the wildest chimeras; such as, that the sun only rose and set in their dominions; that their language was the only one fit to address the Almighty in; that they were the peculiar favourites of heaven; and that wisdom, glory, power, riches, and dominion, were their sole monopoly. Though these lofty conceits are at present in some measure eradicated, it is owing to them that they are still possessed with the highest notions of nobility, family, and blood; for the mountaineer of Allurias, though a peasant, will plume himself as much upon his genealogy and descent, as the first grandee; and the Castilian, with his coat-armour, looks upon the Galician with sovereign contempt. This pride, however ridiculous in itself, is certainly productive of the most exalted qualities: for it inspires the possessors with generous, humane, and virtuous sentiments; and that a Spanish nobleman, gentleman, or trader, has been guilty of a mean action, is a thing seldom known. This, however, is not to be understood of the people that live on the coasts, who too often partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in the refuse of other nations: for in these places there is an assemblage of French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers, who being unable to live in their respective countries, mingle with the Spaniards, where they engage in all illicit practices, or enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service; and, during a war, many of them follow privateering with great success.

The Spaniards take great delight in the profession of arms, and to this darling passion, commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, have been always sacrificed. They bear all hardships with the most unremitting patience, and can endure heat, cold, and even hunger, with some degree of cheerfulness. They have courage and constancy for the most hazardous undertakings, and though naturally slow, yet, when once put in action, pursue their object with great warmth and perseverance; and as the inhabitants of several of the provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andalusia, have thrown aside their indolence, and employed themselves assiduously in agriculture and manufactures, it is to be hoped their example will be followed by all their countrymen; as industry is the only thing wanting to render Spain the most fruitful and opulent kingdom in Europe. The Spaniards have a natural turn for politics, study, and thoroughly understand the natural interests of their own country; and even the common peasants will sometimes make reflections on public transactions, which would have done honour to a senator.

The Spanish ladies are in general exceedingly handsome,

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some, but are more famed for their wit, vivacity, and politeness, than for their beauty. They are small and slender in their persons, on which they bestow a profusion of art, not only painting their faces, but likewise their necks, arms, and hands; and there is not a defect in nature, which they have not the secret of hiding, or at least of palliating; but these artifices thrive their skin, and give them the appearance of old age long before they have attained it. The passion of jealousy, for which the men of this nation were formerly so remarkable, seems to be totally eradicated, or at least confined to very narrow bounds; for every married lady has her professed lover, who attends her with impunity.

The Spaniards formerly wore black cloaks, short jerkins, straight breeches, long Toledo swords, and mustachoes; but this dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks, that of the French court being introduced among the nobility, &c. They are very able-minded in eating and drinking; and their breakfast, which is usually chocolate, they frequently take in bed. Their dinners generally consist of beef, mutton, veal, pork, bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together; and they are very fond of garlic, chives, salads, and radishes. The men drink very little wine, and the women use water, or chocolate. They always take their siesta, or afternoon's sleep.

A ruling passion in this nation is gallantry, and they omit no expence in the gratification of it. A lover will frequently pass the night under the windows of his mistress, serenading her with the finest music in Spain; and to this passion may be attributed the amazing courage and agility which they exhibit at their bull-fights, where the ladies are always present, and by their looks animate their admirers to the most desperate acts of valour. This diversion, which is of Moorish original, is attended with infinite danger to the cavalier, who always attacks the bull on horseback, with a lance, and endeavours to subdue him; but if the animal defends himself so long that the spectators are tired, they bait him with dogs, and ham-string him. The dexterity with which the combatants manage their horses and arms is incredible, keeping sometimes a whole hour within a foot of the beast, without being touched; but if the bull insults him, by forcing his lance out of his hand, throwing off his hat, wounding his horse, or any of the company, he is obliged, by the rules of honour, to wound the beast in return, or die in the attempt, which is too often the case; for if his horse, terrified at the bull, refuses to advance, he must quit him, and engage on foot, in which situation he is still more exposed to the fury of the animal. If he is happy enough to come off conqueror, he receives the loudest acclamations of applause, and sometimes a reward from the hands of his favourite lady. The bulls used on these occasions are the wild ones, already mentioned to be bred in Andalusia, and kept for some time in stables, and fed for this purpose.

A very favourite diversion in Spain is dancing, from which even old age is not exempted; for it is no uncommon thing to see the grandmother, mother, and daughter, join in the same dance; but the continual round is commonly made in the morning, dinner at noon, and an airing in the evening. When they take these airings on gala or court days, all their attendants are dressed in laced liveries, with plumes of feathers in their hats. The number of servants kept by the grandees and persons of the first fashion in Spain, almost exceed credibility, for it is asserted, that they sometimes amount to four hundred. The theatrical diversions of this kingdom are very poor and insipid. The prompter is placed underneath the stage, with his head peeping through a trap-door, and he always performs his office loud enough to be heard by the audience. Their tragedies are for the most part ridiculous bombast, and the comedies are a jumble of religion and buffoonery, mingled together in a most whimsical and inconsistent manner.

It is pretended by the Spaniards, that Christianity was introduced into their country by St. James the apostle, four years after the death of our Saviour; and that St. Paul preached there in person. Admitting these assertions to be true, they have been so much the longer degenerating from the tenet delivered to them by those great pillars of the primitive church; and at this time, the religion is that of Rome, attended with all the horror of an inquisition, and clothed in its grossest errors, though these are now greatly lessened, by moderating the penalty of the inquisition, a tribunal disgraceful to human nature, but which is still in force against the Moorish and Jewish converts: the burning zeal, however, which distinguished their blood-thirsty ancestors above the rest of the Catholic world, hath lost much of its activity, and seems nearly extinguished; the power of the clergy having been much reduced of late years, and no pretence of the inquisition can be carried into execution without the royal authority. It is computed, that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 secular clergy, but as to real devotion and morality, they are no where less found than in Spain; ridiculous pomp and farcical parade having been long since substituted in its place. The churches are magnificently decorated, and, though the rest of the nation is poor, the clergy are immensely rich. Their avarice, which is insatiable, is gratified by every indulgence that could be granted them; their estates are exempt from all public burdens, and their commerce, which is very considerable, is free from all duties and imposts.

Before we conclude this article, respecting the people of Spain, it may be proper to take notice of an agreeable piece of intelligence received in Nov. 1793, from one of their settlements in the West-Indies; which is thus expressed:

"The following regulations have been recently adopted by the Spaniards at the Havannah, and other

other places, for the gradual enfranchisement of slaves.

"As soon as the slave is landed, his name, age, price, &c. are inserted in a public register; and the master is obliged by law to allow him one working-day in every week to himself, besides Sunday; so that if the slave chooses to work for his master on that day, he receives the wages of a freeman for it; and whatever he gains by his labour on that day is so secured to him by law, that the master cannot deprive him of it.

"When the slave is able to purchase another working-day, the master is obliged to sell it to him at a proportionable price, namely, one fifth part of his original cost, and so likewise the remaining four days at the same rate, when the black is able to redeem them; after which he is to be absolutely free."

There are eight archbishoprics in Spain, viz. Toledo, Burgos, Compostella, Granada, Seville, Saragossa, Tarragona, and Valencia. Toledo has eight suffragan bishops; Burgos, four; Compostella, fourteen; Granada, two; Seville, two, and the Canary islands; Saragossa, six; Tarragona, seven; and Valencia, two. The archbishop of Toledo is styled the primate of Spain, is great chancellor of Castile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. sterling per ann. but the Spanish court has now lessened the revenues of the church, by taxing them with pensions, donations to hospitals, premiums to societies of agriculture, &c.

The language of the Spaniards, like that of the Italians, is a corruption of the Latin, to which it very nearly approaches; but it is mixed with Arabic words and terminations introduced by the Goths and Moors. In some provinces they use a dialect of the old French or Gascon; and in Biscay, the language is said to be a dialect of the Gothic or Celtic, and to have some analogy with the Welsh and Irish. The Spanish language, however, has nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years, and is at present most majestic and expressive: it has been observed, that foreigners, who understand it the least, prize it the most; though it makes but a poor figure even in the best translations. Its affinity to the Latin may be seen by the following specimen of the Lord's prayer: "Padre nuestro, que estás en el cielo, santificado se el tu nombre; venga a nos al tu reyna; hagese tu voluntad, assien la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia da nos le oy; y perdona nos nuestras deudas passi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es, le reyno, y la potencia, y la gloria, per los siglos. Amen."

Bigotry and indolence have been very prejudicial to the Spaniards, not only in religion, but in the arts and sciences, and have greatly retarded their improvement in literature; for to these only can be attributed the few learned men so extensive a kingdom has produced; especially as the Spaniards in general are possessed of ex-

cellent natural capacities. Among the men of literature, natives of Spain, the following are the principal: Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes Calderoni and Lopez de Vega, dramatic writers. Herrera, and de Solis, historians and antiquarians. Tostatus a divine, whose works are exceeding voluminous, and have long been neglected; and that excellent satirist, Cervantes, who, by his Don Quixote, in a great degree, eradicated the ridiculous spirit of knight-errantry out of his country. The author of this moral and humorous satire was born at Madrid in 1549, listed 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. The works of Quevedo, and the other works of that author, comprised in three vols. 4to. are well known in this country. 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: besides his merit as a poet, he was well versed in the oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570. The Saracens introduced oriental poetry into Spain at a very early period; and the Spanish Jews afterwards made a considerable figure in literature; particularly, in 967, Rabbi Moses, and Rabbi Enoch, his son; likewise Rabbi Ezekias, who was put to death at Babylon in 1039. To these Jews the Spaniards are indebted for a curious version of the Hebrew books of the Old Testament, printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic Spanish letter. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work the Arte de la Gaya Ciencia, comprehending a system of poetry, rhimes, and oratory: he also translated Virgil's *Aeneid* into Spanish verse. Juan de Mena, Juan de la Encina, Boscan, Ercila, Villegas, and other Spanish poets, also obtained great reputation in their own country. But Lopezele Vega, contemporary with our Shakespear, was the most distinguished dramatic poet of this nation.

The palaces, particularly the Escorial, and other public buildings, do honour to the Spaniards as architects and sculptors. Murillo has distinguished himself by his paintings; and here are others that excel in the polite arts, whose names have not reached this part of Europe.

In Spain there are twenty-four universities, of which the chief is that of Salamanca, founded by Alphonus IX. king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains twenty-one colleges, most of which are well endowed, and very magnificent, particularly the public schools. In Marineus's time this university was supposed to have 7000 students, and always maintained 75 professors, who have noble salaries. Most of the noblemen in Spain send their sons to be educated at this university. The other 23 are those of Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcalá, Sigüenza, Valencia,

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 Onata, Gandia, Barcelona, Murcia, Tarragona,
 Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

The principal cities and towns, &c. in Spain are the
 following:

Madrid, the capital of this kingdom, is situated in
 the centre of a large plain, on the banks of the little
 river Manzanares, surrounded with mountains, and in
 the heart of Spain. The streets are wide, straight, and

handsome; the houses in general are lofty, and built
 with brick; but the windows are of lattice, except
 those of the nobility, which are of glass. 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.
 Besides this, there are several noble palaces. Madrid
 also contains a great number of churches, convents,
 and hospitals: among the last is one open for pa-

tients of all nations and distempers, supported by a
 large revenue. Here are three royal academies, one
 for the improvement of the Spanish language, another
 for history, and another for medicine. There are two

stately bridges over the Manzanares; and round the
 Plaza-mayor, or grand square, are piazzas, with houses
 all uniform, and a continued line of balconies, for

viewing the bull-fights and other public shews exhib-
 ited there. At the east end of the city is the Strado,
 a delightful plain, planted with regular rows of poplar

trees, and watered with a great many fountains; here
 the nobility and gentry take the air on horseback, or in
 their coaches, and the common people on foot. The

compass of the whole city is computed at about nine
 miles; it is well supplied with provisions of all
 kinds, at reasonable rates; and the court, with the re-
 sidence of the quality, and the high colleges and offices
 that are kept here, occasion a brisk trade.

The environs are very pleasant, and contain several
 royal seats, among which, the most magnificent is the
 Efcurlal, which takes its name from a village in the

neighbourhood, above 22 miles north-west from Ma-
 drid. It is a spacious structure, built of curious white
 speckled stone, with ornaments of various sorts of mar-
 ble, jasper, &c. It is said to have about 11,000 win-

dows, and contains, besides the royal apartments and
 offices, a most splendid church, in which are forty
 chapels, and as many altars, exceedingly rich; a con-
 vent of Jeronites, a college, several hospitals or infir-

maries, and a noble library, containing a large and
 choice collection of books in all languages and facul-
 ties. Here is likewise the burial-place of the kings
 and queens of Spain, called the Pantheon. In short,
 the whole forms so amazing an edifice, that it re-
 sembles more a town than a palace. The apartments
 are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings,
 sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, mar-
 ble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones, surpassing
 all imagination. Aranjuez, which is situated on the

Tagus, about thirty miles south of Madrid, is another

royal palace, which is greatly admired, particularly for
 its noble gardens and surpassing water-works.

Toledo is situated on the Tagus, about 36 miles
 south of Madrid. It is an ancient, large, and well-
 fortified city. Here are many stately edifices, squares,
 convents, churches, and hospitals: the cathedral is a

noble structure, built of a beautiful white stone, en-
 riched with sculpture; the roof of it is supported by
 eighty-eight stately columns, and it has eight large
 beautiful gates of brass, with above thirty chapels,
 some of them large enough to pass for churches. The

treasure of this cathedral is of inestimable value, and
 the annual revenue of about one hundred thousand du-
 cats. The jurisdiction, power, and grandeur of this
 see, is inferior only to that of Rome. Here is also an

university, a royal palace, and a court of inquisition.
 There are three noble bridges over the river; and with-
 out the walls, on the north-side, are still to be seen the
 ruins of a Roman amphitheatre; and under the city is
 a large common-sewer, which is also said to be a Ro-

man work. Seville is situated 200 miles south-west of Madrid,
 and 57 from the mouth of the river, in the Guadal-
 quiver. This city contains a great number of con-
 vents, churches, squares, hospitals, a royal palace,

which is now going to decay, an exchange, a custom-
 house, an university, and a cathedral, the largest and
 finest in all Spain, and is esteemed inferior to none ex-
 cept St. Peter's at Rome. On the top of the high

tower is the statue of a woman, which turns with the
 wind like a weather-cock; 500 masses are said every
 day in this cathedral. The archbishop has a revenue
 of 100,000 ducats. Here is a bridge of boats over the

Guadalquiver, which is navigable for large vessels forty
 miles from its mouth; all along the river are a great
 many commodious quays, near which is also a stately
 tower, called the Golden Tower, which entirely com-

mands the river, city, and suburbs. This city car-
 ries on a great trade, and has many manufactures, par-
 ticularly of silk and silver-stuffs, earthen-ware, soap,
 and salt; but their commerce has been declining for
 some years past. Here is a mint, which can coin in
 one day seven hundred marks, each containing eight
 ounces of gold or silver. The compass of the city walls
 is eight miles, and the number of its inhabitants is
 computed at 300,000.

Placentia is situated on the banks of the little river
 Xerte, about seventy miles south-west from Madrid,
 and one hundred and twenty-fourth from Mexico. This
 is a well-built handsome city, it is defended by strong

walls, and a castle; there are three bridges over the
 river Xerte; it is a bishop's see, and takes its name
 from the delightfulness of its situation, in the midst of
 La Vera de Placentia, or the orchard of Placentia,
 which is diversified with beautiful seats, villages, gar-

dens, and groves of the finest citron, lemon, orange,
 and fig-trees. Salamanca stands on the river Tormes, about 75
 miles,

miles north-west from Madrid; it is an ancient, large, rich, and populous city. Here is an university, and many magnificent palaces, convents, colleges, chapels, churches, hospitals, and squares. A Roman way leads from hence to Merida and Seville; and there is an old Roman bridge over the river Tormes. The most beautiful part of this city is the great square, built about 40 years ago. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days, in the month of June.

Cadiz, which is supposed to have been built by the Tyrians, stands on an island, and is joined to the main land by means of the bridge Suaco, which is defended at both ends by redoubts, and other works thrown up of earth. The island, from Fort St. Catalina to the island of St. Pedro, is five miles long, and from the south-point near the latter to the north point, just by the above-mentioned bridge, almost two miles broad. Most of the streets are narrow, crooked, indifferently paved, and dirty. The houses are in general four stories high, handsomely built, and have each a quadrangular area. This city is computed to contain about 5000 houses, one parish church, twelve convents, and a Jesuits college, supposed, at the time it was inhabited by that order, to be the finest in all Andalusia. The population is estimated at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. Here is the royal audience of the Indies, or the Indian board of trade, which was formerly held at Seville. The adjacent country is extremely rural and pleasant.

The harbour and bay of Cadiz are very fine and spacious: the entrance is defended by Fort Matagorda, and Fort Pontal, the latter of which is situated opposite to it, upon a point of the neck of land on which the city is built. The entrance into the harbour is about five hundred fathoms broad, and the harbour itself about ten leagues in circuit, but, at ebb tide, great part of it lies dry. The only safe landing-place is on the south-west side, which is defended by a small fort called St. Catalina. The number of foreigners in Cadiz are said to amount to 50,000, who reside there for the sake of trade, and its common inhabitants are computed at 40,000.

Barcelona is situated on the Mediterranean, between the rivers Llobregat and Besos, at the foot of the mountain Monjoiu, on which are several forts, commanding the town and harbour. The city itself is well fortified, the streets spacious, in which are 15,000 houses, besides churches, colleges, hospitals, fountains, gardens, convents, an university, an academy of arts and sciences, founded in 1752, a court of inquisition, and the court of royal audience for Catalonia. The cathedral is a large and magnificent edifice, and there are a number of antiquities about the town, which prove it to have been a considerable place in the time of the Romans, when it was called Faventia. This city was formerly the residence of several Gothic kings, and was afterwards subject for a long time to counts of its own. It carries on a considerable trade, and the

country around is very fertile and delightful. The number of inhabitants is supposed to be nearly 150,000.

Valencia, 180 miles south-east from Madrid, is situated on, and has five bridges over the Guadalquivir. It is a large, handsome, populous, trading city, and has a port within two miles of it. It is the see of an archbishop, whose income amounts to 40,000*l.* sterling a year, and contains a tribunal or inquisition, a sovereign court of judicature, an university, and a flourishing woollen manufactory. Priests, nuns, and friars, of every garb, swarm in this city, whose inhabitants are reckoned to be 80,000.

Carthagenia is a famed sea-port in the province of Murcia, in Spain, on the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river Guadalentin near Cape Palos, and about one hundred and eighty miles south-west from Madrid. Its harbour is defended by forty pieces of cannon; being one of the finest ports in the Mediterranean, and one of the three royal marine departments; the other two are Cadiz and Ferrol. It is a city, and the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Toledo, and has a revenue of twenty-four thousand ducats per annum.

Carthagenia is announced at a distance by villages, farms, country-houses, and several pleasant walks. This city remained in the possession of the descendants of Aldrubal till the year 208 before Christ; when it was conquered by Publius Scipio and Caius Lælius. It was at that time governed by Nago, the last Carthaginian chief. Livy informs us, that, at the arrival of Scipio in Spain, Carthagenia was, after Rome, one of the richest cities in the world, and full of arms and soldiers. But, notwithstanding all its resources, Scipio took it, and delivered it up to pillage. He carried away with him sixty-four military banners, two hundred and seventy-six golden cups, and eighteen thousand three hundred marks of silver, besides vessels of the same metal; forty thousand measures of wheat, and an hundred and sixty thousand measures of oats. In a word, he acquired there such immense riches, that, the historian says, the city itself was the least thing the Romans gained by the expedition.

After this conquest Scipio set the great example of chastity and generosity, so much celebrated in that and the present age. We learn from history, that some soldiers brought him a young female captive of noble extraction, whose beauty attracted the eyes and admiration of the whole camp. Scipio, hearing that she had been promised in marriage by her parents, to Lucius, prince of the Celtiberians, and that the two lovers had a great affection for each other, sent for the young prince; restored to him the lady; forced him to take, as a marriage portion, the sum of gold her friends had brought for her ransom, and offered them, at the same time, the friendship of the Roman people.

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mans; and there are still silver mines in the environs.
Philip II. had some of the silver melted, to estimate
the expence of working, and the produce. The lead
mines in the village of los Alumbres are very rich;
amethysts and other precious stones are found near
Cuevas de Porman; and, not far from Hellin, there is
a very considerable mine of sulphur. The country
round Carthage was formerly called Campo Spar-
taria; and the appellation of Spartarians was also given
to the city, on account of the great quantities of *spar-
tum*, or Spanish broom, found in the plains and moun-
tains.

This city was totally destroyed in the wars of Atana-
gilda, with Agila king of the Goths in Spain: several
antique stones, with inscriptions, have been found
among the ruins. One of these is now in a garden
in the town of Espinardo, near Murcia. On one side
it has the stern of a ship, and on the other the figure
of Pallas, holding an olive branch; at her feet are a
cornucopia and the caduceus of Mercury. Cascales
attributes this monument to Julius Cæsar, and sup-
poses it to have been erected by him at the time he
formed the design of subjugating the world, and his
country.

On the land side, says Bourgoanne, Carthage is
defended by a mountain formed by three hills; one
of which was formerly called Phesto, another Alesto,
and the third Chrono. In the middle of the city is a high
hill, with a fort, now almost in ruins: it was anciently
called *Mercurius Theutates*, from a temple erected there
in honour of that deity. The harbour is spacious, and
so deep that ships may moor close to the land. It is a
basin hollowed by nature, which seems to have shel-
tered it from the winds by several hills placed round
it at equal distances; so that, from the mole, nothing
but the entrance of the harbour and the basin are to be
seen. No port can be compared to this for safety and
regularity. Virgil, wishing to give, at the landing of
Æneas in Italy, the description of a port as perfect as
art and nature could make it, seems to have taken for
his model the harbour of Carthage, *Est in secusu
longe locus: insula portum, &c.*

The entrance is defended by two redoubts which are
not yet fortified: the mole is protected by twelve
pieces of cannon. The arsenal is extremely large, and
provided with every thing that can facilitate the build-
ing and fitting out of ships. Every requisite is there
in such readiness, that a ship of the line may be got
ready for sea in three days. At the pleasure of the
builder the water fills the magnificent basons, which
serve as stocks, and the ship slides of itself into the
sea. Each ship has in this arsenal its particular store-
house, which contains all the rigging necessary to it:
the provision of small timber is considerable, but great
pieces are scarce as well as masts. It is said, that the
king of Spain, or his contractors, procuring timber and
rigging at the third hand, pay a fourth more than the
value for them. There are great numbers of workmen,

Moors, and galley-slaves, in the arsenal: they are di-
vided into companies, and distributed in the docks,
magazines, rope-yards, and forges.

Mr. Swinburne says, "Every feeling of humanity was
put to the torture, on his observing the extreme hard-
ships and sufferings of these slaves; of which he gives
the following narrative: the ships are hove down in a
dry dock, which, by reason of the back water, and
the springs which ooze through the marshy soil, would
never be clear of water, were it not for the fire engines:
continually going; and for the great pump, which is
plied without intermission by Spanish criminals and
Barbary slaves. Of the former they have eight hun-
dred; of the latter, six hundred. Most of these
wretches are kept at it sixteen hours out of the twenty-
four, by four hours at a time: some work only twelve,
and most of the Moors only eight hours. It is the
hardest labour in the world: ten men are set to each
pump, to the amount of above a hundred in the room
above-ground, and as many in a kind of a dungeon
below. In summer time scarce a day passes without
some of them dropping down dead at their work; and
even at the cool season of the year we have met every
day some of them carrying to the hospital. The des-
pair which seizes them is so outrageous, that, if they
can get within reach of a weapon, there are many in-
stances of their having plunged it into their own breast,
or that of some person near them, which answers the
same purpose, a speedy deliverance from all their woes
by death. As we were looking on them, a dirty little
keeper struck a fine tall Moor over the head, for leaving
his pump to beg of us. The Mussulman darted a look
of indignation at his tyrant, and resumed his work,
without saying a word, or shrinking from his blow.
On our leaving this house of sorrow, we met several
strings of galley slaves, going to relieve those at work,
or to fetch their provisions. The Moors had an *M* on
the sack-cloth which covers them, and the whole gang
were striking pictures of malady and despair. The
king allows them a pistreen a day, but I am afraid
they are defrauded of their allowance; for we saw them
making their dinner upon black bread, and horse-beans
boiled in salt-water. We returned quite melancholy
from this scene of woe. The only collection which
diminishes our compassion, is the atrociousness of the
crimes which have brought the Christians to the chain:
none are here who have not deserved death in fifty
thaps. One boy, of fifteen years old, is here for the
murder of his father and mother; and either murder,
sacrilege, or some such enormous and horrible offence,
have been perpetrated by almost all those who are con-
demned for life to this punishment." Swinburne, in his
travels, observes, that the severity exercised over the
Moorish captives is not so easily reconciled to the
principles of humanity, and the meek doctrine of
Christianity: retaliation does not seem a sufficient plea.
The same author, however, speaks highly of the ac-
commodations in this city. "We lodged, says he, at
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the Golden Eagle, kept by a Frenchman, the *best cook* in the best inn we have met with in Spain."

This city is large, but has few good streets, and still fewer grand or remarkable buildings. The hospital is a large square house, round two courts, three stories high towards the sea, and only one towards the land: the architecture and method of laying out the plan are good; but the stone is of so soft and friable a texture, that the sea air has corroded it, and caused much of it to crumble away. Further east, at the foot of the summer-evening walk, is a small church, erected in honour of St. James, the patron of Spain, who is piously believed to have landed here when he came from Palestine to convert this country to Christianity.

Carthagená much resembles Plymouth: there are two dry docks, which were constructed by the late Don Jorge Juan. Here are two public walks: that of the Alameda is very long, and planted with double rows of white elms; that of Santa Lucia is near the harbour. The town is chiefly inhabited by officers of the army and navy, who are always obliged to wear their uniform; and none under the degree of captain are permitted to carry a cane. The port of Carthagená is the best in the kingdom, and not much inferior to any one in Europe. It is seated at the bottom of a small bay, five hundred paces in length, and about six or seven hundred at the mouth. The anchoring is very good: the bay abounds in fish, particularly mackerel. The air here is temperate in summer, and so mild in winter, that the roses blow as fine at Christmas as they do in England at Midsummer. Great quantities of fine wool are exported from this city.

Malaga, an ancient, large, well built, well fortified, and populous city, with a fine harbour on the Mediterranean, is 260 miles south of Madrid, and 75 south-west from Granada. The city is of a circular form, encompassed with a double wall, and defended by two castles: the houses are solid and lofty, and the streets well paved and level. So great is the exportation of wines, raisins, almonds, figs, lemons, oranges, and other fruits, from hence, besides wool and oil, that the duties on them are said to yield the king 800,000 ducats per annum. The harbour runs up into the town 530 common paces, with a good breadth, and four stairs to take water at, and 24 pillars of Jasper stone to fasten the ships to. The city is supposed to have been founded by the Phœnicians. The bishop is subject to the archbishop of Seville, and has a revenue of 20,000 ducats per annum.

Granada is situated at the conflux of the Xenil and Dauro, 180 miles south of Madrid. It stands in the midst of a fruitful country, has a fine air, is capacious and populous, being one of the largest cities in Spain, and containing upwards of 90,000 inhabitants. It is divided into four quarters, and has 12 gates, which are always open. It is an archbishopric, and contains 24 parishes, and 29 convents, with a church to each, 11 hospitals, and four colleges. The streets are narrow,

crooked, and badly paved, and the houses in general mean: here is an university, and a royal chancery. The amphitheatre, for bull feasts, is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain, and the environs of the city are still pleasing and healthful. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned useful; the surplus being made of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars.

Bilboa, the capital of Biscay, is pleasantly situated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, six miles from the sea, where it has a good port, and a great trade in iron, wrought and unwrought, wool, saffron, and chestnuts. This city contains about 800 houses, which are solid and lofty, and the streets well paved and level; and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure, which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe. None are suffered to settle here, or in any part of the province, unless they can prove their descent from the ancient Gothic Christians, and that their blood is untainted with that of Jews or Moors.

Lurgos, the capital of Old Castile, is situated by the river Arlançon, 120 miles north of Madrid. It is a large, but not a fine city. The cathedral, built in the Gothic style, is one of the noblest and richest in Spain: the archbishop has a revenue of 40,000 ducats per annum, and the king is always the first of the canons. Among other convents, here is one for ladies of quality, called Las Huelgos, the revenue of which is said to be 80,000 ducats per ann. The abbess, who is generally a lady of one of the first families in Spain, has 17 other convents, 14 towns, and 50 villages subject to her: she has also the disposal of 12 commanderies, and takes place of all ladies, except those of the royal family.

Gibraltar being once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, though at present in the possession of Great-Britain, claims our attention here from its situation. It was taken from the Spaniards by the confederate fleet of the English and Dutch, under the command of Sir George Rooke, in the year 1704, and, after many fruitless attempts to recover it, was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; repeated attempts have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success: the last war made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long siege against the united forces of Spain and France by sea and land, but was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garrison, to the great loss, disgrace, and disappointment of the besiegers; though it must be granted, the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the harbour in the 10 floating batteries destroyed by the red-hot bullets, have been raised, and sold, and the money arising therefrom distributed among the garrison, as a reward for their toil and bravery. But of this siege, and its disastrous issue to Spain, we have already given a description in p. 699. It is a commodious port, and formed by nature for commanding

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the houses in general a royal chancery. They are built of stone, and the environs of the city of 50,000 inhabitants, and the surplus being for the poor, and beggars.

It is pleasantly situated at Cadiz, six miles from the sea, and a great trade in wool, saffron, and cheese. There are 800 houses, which are well paved and level; and the streets, that they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is confined within very narrow limits, and the ground scarcely produces any thing, so that it is supplied with provisions either from England, or from Ceuta on the Barbary coast. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but finding that power was carried to an extravagant height, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates. The road of Gibraltar is neither safe against an enemy nor storms, and is not convenient for reëtting of vessels, though they may be laid on their sides for careening. The Straights are twenty-four miles long, and about fifteen broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required.

None are suffered to enter the province, unless they are of the ancient Gothic Christian religion, and are not tainted with that of

the Moors, is situated by the bay of Madrid. It is a magnificent cathedral, built in the style of the most ancient and richest in Spain: it is valued at 40,000 ducats per annum, and is the first of the canons. There are none for ladies of quality, the use of which is said to be the cause of the debility of the families, who are generally poor. The province of Castile has 17 ducal villages subject to the crown, and 12 commanderies, except those of the royal

separated town and fortress of Ceuta, is in the possession of the Spaniards by the conquest of the Dutch, under the command of the year 1704, and, after it was recovered, was confirmed by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; since which it was made to wrest it from the French: the last war made it the theatre of a long siege between Spain and France by sea and land, defended by general Elliot, who, by his loss, disgrace, and disaffection, though it must be granted, was impregnable. Near 300 cannon-bores, and chiefly brass, and iron shot, have been cast, and many hot bullets, have been cast, and many arising therefrom dispersed as a reward for their toil, and its disastrous illness, as a description in p. 609, and formed by nature for commanding

commanding the passage of the Straights. The town is neither large nor beautiful, yet, on account of its fortifications, is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison, well provided, for its defence. It is built upon a rock, in a peninsula, to which on the land-side is only a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, which passage is walled and fortified both by art and nature. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, in order to prevent the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country; notwithstanding which they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is confined within very narrow limits, and the ground scarcely produces any thing, so that it is supplied with provisions either from England, or from Ceuta on the Barbary coast. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but finding that power was carried to an extravagant height, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates. The road of Gibraltar is neither safe against an enemy nor storms, and is not convenient for reëtting of vessels, though they may be laid on their sides for careening. The Straights are twenty-four miles long, and about fifteen broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required.

The principal islands of Spain are Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica.

Majorca is situated 120 miles eastward of Spain, and opposite to Valencia; it is about 60 miles in length from east to west, and about 56 in breadth from north to south. In some parts of it, there are large and small cattle, game, corn, saffron, fruits, honey, &c.

Minorca, 33 miles E. N. E. of Majorca, is about 38 miles long, and 15 broad. This island produces no corn, but yields wine, oil, and fruit: it also feeds a number of small cattle. It was first taken by the English in 1708; from whom the French took it in 1763; was restored to the English at the peace of 1763, from whom the Spaniards took it in 1782, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1783.

Yvica, situated between Majorca and Valencia, is about 40 miles in length, and 22 in breadth. Its chief productions are corn, wine, oil, fruits, and drugs: here are also salt-rocks and mines.

Among the natural curiosities of Spain is a very deep cavern at Algizira, the descent to the entrance of which is by an hundred steps; when the spectator has attained the mouth, he must be very cautious how he proceeds, for the passage is very narrow, and on a great declivity for a considerable way. This passage leads to a sort of labyrinth, which abounds in crystallizations, from whence there is a communication to a much larger cave, filled with an infinite number of various kinds of figures, which reflect the light of the torches in a most surprising manner. It is said that the echo

in this cave is so great, that if a single pistol is discharged there, the sound will reverberate for the space of seven minutes. In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone, some of which have been brought to England, and deposited in the British Museum. On the west side of the mountain is St. Michael's cave, 1110 feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The other natural curiosities of Spain consist in the lakes and springs already described.

In several parts of this country are the remains of Roman and Moorish antiquities, consisting of Roman ways, aqueducts, theatres, and palaces. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. This way was repaired by the emperor Adrian, but it is now greatly injured by time, though there are still the ruins of some of the columns to be seen. Near Segovia is a grand aqueduct erected by Trajan, which extends over a deep valley, between two hills, and is supported by a noble row of 152 arches. Notwithstanding this aqueduct has stood so many centuries, it still retains its strength and beauty. Near Murviedro (once the faithful Saguntum, destroyed by Hannibal) are the remains of an old Roman theatre, an exact semicircle, about 82 yards diameter, some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibition without inconvenience: and at Cordova is an edifice, which was formerly a mosque, but is now converted into a church, said to be one of the wonders of the world. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Granada is to be seen great part of a most magnificent palace called the Alhambra, belonging to the Moorish kings. The inside is overlaid with jasper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inscriptions. The whole edifice is executed in the Gothic taste. This noble royal structure was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards.

With respect to commerce; the articles exported from Spain to other parts of Europe, are wines, fine oil, vinegar, fruits of various kinds, indigo, cochineal, materials for dyeing, kali or barilla, quicksilver, some wrought silks, balsam of Peru, vanilla, cake-chocolate, sarsaparilla, salt-petre, salt, woollen counterpanes, a very fine sort of blankets, iron, Toledo sword-blades, gun and pistol-barrels, vermilion, Seville and Havannah snuff, and several sorts of roots of Spanish and American growth.

The Spaniards import principally from England dried and salted fish, meat, butter, cheese, beer, corn, rice, pepper, warlike and naval stores, particularly cables and anchors; cutlery-ware, watches, wrought brass and princes metal, mathematical instruments, toys, mahogany cabinet-work, wrought and unwrought tin, lead, leather, various kinds of silk and woollen stuffs, and broad cloths. They import from America gold, silver, cochineal, indigo, cocoa or chocolate-nuts, logwood, and other dyeing woods, sugar, tobacco, snuff, and other valuable American productions.

Spain formerly extended the chief part of her foreign European trade to England; but it is now one-third less than it was fifty years ago, owing in some measure to the establishment of some arts and manufactures in that kingdom since the above period. Unhappily, however, for themselves, they make gold and silver the chief branches both for their exports and imports. This trade is chiefly carried on from the port of Cadiz; and to this port other European nations send their merchandize to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, secured under the name of Spanish factors; for the merchandize properly belonging to Spain forms the least part of the freight which these ships carry to America.

The merchants of England, Holland, France, &c. have agents and correspondents at Cadiz, who transact this business for them; and their great care is, to elude the duties laid on foreign merchandize sent in this manner to America; which, if paid, are so exorbitant, that the profits would sink very low; though at this time they seldom amount to less than 20 per cent. Spain has ineffectually endeavoured to prevent this contraband trade; but no measure taken for that purpose can succeed, till the inhabitants, by a proper exertion of industry, are enabled to supply their American possessions with merchandize of their own manufacture and produce.

The manufactures of Spain consist chiefly of silk, wool, copper, and hard-ware. The first of these is at present so greatly encouraged, that, we are told, above a million of people are employed in feeding, gathering, and curing silk-worms, and in spinning, weaving, and making all kinds of silks. Most of the laborious works in husbandry, manufactures, and handicrafts, are performed by the French, especially in the two Castiles.

The constitution and government of Spain are greatly altered from their ancient form; since, from being a free monarchy of hereditary succession in males and females, it is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe; and as, in the administration of its government, no proper attention is paid to the interests and welfare of the people, we may from hence easily account for the poverty which is so visible in most parts of the country. The cortes, or parliaments, were composed of representatives sent from the cities and towns, and the oldest member for Burgos always acted as speaker. The cortes

formerly possessed great privileges, and the legislative authority was so equally blended in the king and the estates, that no law could be made, repealed, or suspended, nor any money raised upon the subject, but with their common consent. But these cortes are now abolished, and Spain is become an absolute monarchy, the whole government being solely in the hands of the king, his ministers, and the councils, which are entirely at the devotion of the two former.

The privy-council is composed of a certain number of noblemen, nominated by the king; their business is, to prepare matters and to digest papers for the cabinet council, or *junto*, the members of which are likewise nominated by the king, and consist of the first secretary of state, and three or four more; and in these the direction of all the executive part of government may be said to reside. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The Spanish monarchs are declared out of their minority on the completion of their fourteenth year; and in regulating the succession, after the death of Charles II. a medium was observed between the Salic law and the ancient law of Spain, viz. that any male heir, however distant, should inherit before a female, who can have no right but after the extinction of every male branch.

The laws of Spain are compounded chiefly of the Roman civil law, the royal edicts, and, probably, certain provincial customs. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal in the kingdom. In Galicia, Seville, Valencia, Barcelona, Saragossa, Majorca, and the Canaries, courts, called royal audiences, are established, who judge primarily in all causes within fifteen miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these, there are many subordinate tribunals for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The tribunal of the Inquisition is established at Madrid, but there are inferior ones in the principal cities almost all over Spain; and these are the great state curbs whereby the people are held in such an implicit religious obedience, and preserve their boasted uniformity of the Roman Catholic faith. This infernal court was erected about the year 1251. Pope Innocent IV. authorized the Dominicans perpetual inquisitors; and, in 1265, Clement IV. confirmed these powers, and enlarged their privileges and tribunals. It was established in Castile by Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1557, and some time after extended all over Spain. Formerly this office only acknowledged the power of the pope, raising itself above that of kings, who were often bribed, humbled, and even punished by it. Their *Auto da Fé's*, or solemn acts of faith, used commonly to be exhibited when their princes came of age, or at their accession. But the power of this office is now greatly diminished; the officers belonging to it can carry no sentence into execution without the royal authority, and there has not been an *Auto da Fé* at Madrid for some years. Add to this, that some of the late

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late popes, and the present, appearing to be in a good
degree protestantized, and divested of the superstition
and bloody zeal of their predecessors, are hopes
that the remaining errors and blind bigotry of that
corrupt church will continue to evaporate, and at length
give place to the light of reason, good sense, and the
precepts of divine revelation. The government of
Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is dele-
gated to viceroys and other magistrates, who are in
their respective districts almost absolute.—The towns
of Ceuta, Oran, and Masulquivir, on the coast of
Barbary in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the
Philippines, and Ladrones in Asia, are among the
foreign possessions of the crown of Spain.

The revenues arising to the crown from Old Spain
amount to five millions sterling per annum, which arise
chiefly from taxes on all kinds of goods, houses, lands,
timber, and provisions: besides which, a fifth of the
produce of all the silver mines in America belongs to
the king, but this part of his revenue is usually very
ill accounted for, and he seldom receives it without
part having been previously embezzled.

The gold coins in Spain are pistoles or doubloons,
worth about 17s. and double and quadruple, half and
quarter pistoles. The silver coins are reals de Plata,
worth about 6d. of our money; piastres, or pieces of
eight, worth about 4s. 6d. and half and quarter pieces
of eight, but these are not common. The brass money
consist of quartos and octavos, which answer to our
halfpence and farthings. The Spanish escudos, or
crowns and ducats, are imaginary coins, and both of
the value of about 6s. of our money. There are also
imaginary piastres and pistoles.

The land-forces of Spain, in time of peace, are
computed at about 80,000, but in time of war they
commonly amount to 100,000, or upwards. The marine
of that kingdom, at this time, exceeds 70 ships of the
line, owing to the great attention which has been paid
to it by the present monarch. There are watch-towers
from mile to mile, all along the coasts of Spain: these
are provided with lights and guards at night, so that
from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilbao to Ferrol,
the whole kingdom, in case of an invasion, may be
soon alarmed.

The king of Spain formerly enumerated twelve king-
doms, and other places, to the amount of thirty-two,
in his royal titles; but this absurd custom is now only
occasionally contrived, and he is generally contented
with the appellation of His Catholic Majesty. The
custom, however, of giving a number of names to the
children of the royal family of Spain is still observed,
the prince who was born in June 1786, being the son
of the Infant Don Gabriel, by the Infanta Donna-
Mariana Victoria, was baptized by the names of Pedro-
Charles--Antonio--Raphael--Joseph--Janvier--Francis--
John--Nepomucene--Thomas--de--Villeneuve--Mark--colin--
Vincent--Ferrier--Rainfon--Peter--de--Alcantara--Ferdin-
and. The Spanish king is never crowned, but in-

augurated by the delivery of a sword. His signature
is, *I the King*. His eldest son is styled prince of Castile,
and his younger children of both sexes are called
infants or infanta's, by way of distinction.

The arms of the kings of Spain consist of a shield,
divided into four quarters, the uppermost of which on
the right hand, and the lowermost on the left, contain
a castle, Or, with three towers, for Castile; and in the
uppermost on the left, and the lowermost on the right,
are three lions, gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the
centre for Anjou. The armorial bearings are loaded
with the arms of all the kingdoms.

The higher nobility here consist of counts, marquises,
and dukes. The grandees, who have precedence of all
others, next the king and princes of the blood, are
named out of these. Like those of Portugal; they
have the privilege of being covered in the king's
presence, who styles them in his letters, Illustrious;
and, in speaking to them, or of them, their Eminences:
but there are others, besides the grandees, who are
covered in the king's presence, as cardinals, nuncios,
archbishops, the grand prior of Castile, and the
grand prior of Malta, the generals of the orders of
St. Dominic and St. Francis, ambassadors of crowned
heads, the knights of the golden fleece, and of the
three military orders of St. James, Calatrava, and
Alcantara, when the king assists at their respective
chapters, in quality of grand master. No grandee can
be apprehended for any crime, but by the express order
of the king, and they have many other privileges
besides these. The inferior nobility style themselves
cavalleros and hidalgos. The latter of these is ap-
plied to those who are unmixed with the Moorish
blood.

There are seven orders of knighthood in Spain; viz.

1. The order of the Golden Fleece, instituted in
1430, by Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, and is
common now to the kings of Spain and the house of
Austria: it is generally conferred on princes and sove-
reign dukes; but the Spanish branch of it hath many
French and Italian nobility: there are no commanderies
or revenues annexed to it.

2. The order of St. James, or St. Jago de Compo-
stella, which is the richest of all the orders of Spain:
it was instituted in 1175, by Ferdinand II. king of
Leon. The badge is a cross of gold enamelled crim-
son, edged with gold, and worn round the neck, pen-
dent to a broad ribband; it is charged on the centre
with an escallop-shell white: it is only conferred on
persons of noble families.

3. The order of Calatrava, founded by Sancho III.
of Castile. Their badge is, a cross fleuri, red, worn
at the breast, pendent to a broad ribband, the whole
differing only in colour from the badge of Alcantara:
the ceremonial mantle is of white silk, tied with a
curdon and tassels, like those of the Garter, and on the
left arm a cross fleuri embroidered, gules.

4. The order of Alcantara owes its institution to
Ferdinand

Ferdinand II. king of Leon. The badge is a gold cross, fleur-de-lis, enamelled green, and worn pendent to a broad ribband on the breast. This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons of ancient and illustrious families. On days of ceremony, they wear a mantle of red silk, on the left side of which is embroidered, in silver, a star of five points.

5. The order of the Lady of Mercy, said to have been instituted about the year 1218. Women are also included in this order: the badge, which is common to both, is a shield per fess, red and gold; in chief, a cross pattée, white; in base, four pallets red, for Aragon, and the shield crowned with a ducal coronet.

6. The order of Montesa, instituted at Valencia, at the close of the 13th century, in the place of the Templars, whose possessions they enjoyed. The badge is a plain red cross, enamelled on gold, worn pendent to a broad red ribband, sash-wise, and a plain red cross embroidered on the left breast of the outer garment.

7. The order of Charles III. instituted by the present king in 1771, in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is a star of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin Mary, vestment white and blue. On the reverse, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti & Merito*, "To Virtue and Merit." The order is composed of four classes, variously distinguished. This order is conferred on none but persons of noble descent.

The history of Spain will be introduced at the end of our ensuing account of Portugal, as the events relative to both these kingdoms are so intimately blended and connected together, as not easily to admit of a separation with propriety. Charles III. the late king of Spain, was born in 1716, and succeeded to the throne in 1759. He died Dec. 1788, in the 73d year of his age, and 30th of his reign. He was the second son of Philip V. by the princess of Parma, and grandson of Louis XIV. of France. He left issue by his late queen, 1. Maria-Josepha, born in 1744. 2. Maria Louisa, born in 1745, married in 1765, to the archduke Leopold of Austria, great duke of Tuscany, and brother to the late emperor of Germany. 3. Philip-Anthony, duke of Calabria, born in 1747, but incapacitated from succeeding to the throne by a defect of understanding. 4. Charles-Anthony, prince of Austria, born in 1748, married in 1765, to Louisa-Maria-Theresa, princess of Parma. 5. Ferdinand-Antony, king of Naples, born in 1751, married in 1768, to the archduchess Mary Cardine-Louisa, sister to the then empress of Germany. 6. Gabriel-Antony, born in 1752, grand prior of the kingdom of Spain. 7. Anthony-Pascal, born in 1755. 8. Francis-Xavier, born in 1757. Don Lewis, the king's brother, is a cardinal and archbishop of Toledo. Charles IV. succeeded his father Charles III. in Dec. 1788. He married, Sept. 4, 1765, princess Louisa of Parma. Their sur-

living issue are, Ferdinand Antony, present king of Naples, and Antony Paschal, born Dec. 31 1755. Spain, as well as Portugal, acceding to the grand confederacy of the other European powers against the French republic, joined their naval strength to that of England in that war.

C H A P. XXVI.

P O R T U G A L.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Produce, Mountains, Rivers, Population, Inhabitants, Religion, Language, Learning, Cities and Towns, Curiosities, Commerce and Manufactures, Constitution and Government, Revenue, History, &c.

THIS kingdom is situated between the 7th and 10th degrees of west long. and between the 37th and 42d degrees of north lat. being about 300 miles in length and 100 in breadth. It is the most Western kingdom on the continent of Europe, being bounded on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean, and on the north and east by Spain. This is the Lusitania of the Romans; but the etymology of its present name is uncertain.

The kingdom of Portugal is usually divided into three parts, viz. the northern, middle, and southern provinces.

THE NORTH DIVISION CONTAINS

Entre Mino, chief town Braga; Douro, ch. towns Oporto and Viana; Tra los Montes, ch. towns Braganza, Miranda, and Villa-Real: containing 6814 square miles.

THE MIDDLE DIVISION CONTAINS

Beira, chief towns Coimbra, Guarda; Estremadura, ch. towns Lisbon, Ubes, and Leira: containing 12,640 square miles.

THE SOUTH DIVISION CONTAINS

Entre Tajo, chief town Eborá, or Evora; Guadiana, ch. towns Portalegre, Elvas, and Bira; Alentejo, ch. town Lagos; Algarva, ch. towns Faro, Tavira, and Silves: containing 8397 square miles.

The air in Portugal, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so searching as that of Spain, being refreshed by breezes from the sea. The soil is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which they import from other countries. Some places produce good pasture, but in general it is very coarse.

The fruits here are the same as in Spain, but not so highly flavoured. Herbs and flowers are very plentiful, from the odoriferous kinds of which great quantities of perfumed waters are distilled. They are particularly

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ticularly attentive to the culture of their vineyards,
which yield excellent grapes. The cattle in the northern
parts are large and fine, but in the southern they are
small and lean, and are in general, as well as their
poultry, but indifferent eating. Their horses are brisk
and lively, but extremely slight. The fish on the coast
are very fine, and the birds resemble those of Spain.
Vast quantities of delicious honey are produced in this
country. Here are mines, but they are not worked;
also variety of gems, marbles, and mill-stones, and a
fine mine of salt-petre, near Lisbon.

The principal mountains in Portugal are those which
divide Algarva from Alentejo; those in Tralos Montes,
and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tajo:
but they are for the most part barren.

The chief rivers of Portugal have been mentioned in
the account of Spain. The others are, the Mondego,
the Limia, Sadao, Vanga, Leca, Ave, Cavado, Ze-
zere, Alba, Goa, Laura, Canha, and Casa. The Tagus,
or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden sand. There
are also several remarkable lakes and springs in this
kingdom; some of them will absorb even the lightest
substances, as feathers, cork, &c. some are medicinal
and fanative, particularly one about 45 miles from Lis-
bon, and some hot baths are found in the province of
Algarva.

The number of inhabitants in Portugal, according to
the best calculation, amount to about two millions.
In 1732, the kingdom contained 3344 parishes,
1,742,230 lay persons, and about 300,000 ecclesiastics
of both sexes. The Portuguese are neither so tall,
nor so well made as the Spaniards. The ladies are of
an olive complexion, but, while young, exceedingly
handsome; and their eyes, which are black and spark-
ling, retain their brilliancy long after their other charms
are upon the decline. In their manners they are ex-
ceeding lively and witty, but at the same time possess
the nicest sense of female virtue and honour.

The Portuguese are generally accused of being
haughty, treacherous, and crafty in their dealings;
malicious, cruel, and vindictive in their tempers;
much given to avarice and usury, and the meaner sort
extremely addicted to thieving. This character, though
bad, may in a great measure be just, but charity obliges
us to suppose that it is not general, and that, among
such a number of inhabitants, many may be found,
whose sentiments and manners are an honour to their
country; for it is certain that no people whatever are
less beholden to the reports of historians and travellers
than the Portuguese. We will, however, hope that some
alteration will be made in their character by the ex-
pulsion of the Jesuits, and the diminution of the papal
influence among them. In their manner of living,
customs, and diversions, they nearly resemble the
Spaniards, but they are, if possible, more superstitious,
and affect greater state. They keep an incredible
number of domestics, for they never discharge any who
survive after serving their ancestors; but they exact a

eneration from them which falls little short of the
most abject slavery; and the ladies, in particular, are
treated by them with the same homage as is paid to
persons of the blood royal in other countries. The
houses, particularly those of the grandes, are furnished
in the richest and most superb taste; but the poorer
sort have scarcely any furniture at all, and sit always
cross-legged on the ground, like the Moors. Their
dresses, like that of the Spaniards, never used to vary
till very lately, particularly among the men; but now
both sexes conform greatly to the modes of France.
The ladies wear exceeding rich clothes, and when they
walk out, put on long veils over their heads, but
leave their faces uncovered. Both men and women
make great use of spectacles, and that often not so
much to assist their sight, as to give them an appear-
ance of wisdom and gravity.

The established religion in Portugal, and the only
one tolerated there, is Popery. Jews, however, are
found there in vast numbers, but they sometimes escape
the scrutiny of the inquisition with great difficulty, and
if they are unhappy enough to fall under its censure,
are treated with the utmost cruelty. The English Pro-
testants are permitted the exercise of their religion;
but they must be careful not to ridicule that of the
country, nor endeavour to make proselytes. The
power of his holiness, as well as that of the inquisition
in Portugal, have been very much contracted of late.

The only difference between the ecclesiastical go-
vernment of Spain and Portugal is, that about 20
years ago there was erected a patriarchate at Lisbon. The
patriarch is always a cardinal, and of the royal family.
The archbishoprics are those of Lisbon, Braga, and
Evora. The first of these has ten suffragan bishops,
including those of the Portuguese settlements abroad;
the second has ten; and the last two.

The Portuguese language does not differ materially
from that of Spain, only the pronunciation is harsher
to the ear. It is spoken on all the coasts of Africa
and Asia, as far as China, but mixed with the lan-
guages of the several nations in those distant regions.

The ancestors of the present Portuguese were cer-
tainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard
to astronomy, geography, and navigation, about the
middle of the 16th century, and for some time after-
wards, than any other nation in the universe; but bi-
gotry has plunged them into a deplorable state of igno-
rance, from whence some weak efforts have of late
been made to extricate them: for it is universally al-
lowed, that this defect is not owing so much to the
want of genius as a proper education. It is, however,
to be feared, that while the papal power, and that of
the ecclesiastics continue at such a height, though greatly
inferior to what it was, real learning will make but a
small progress, notwithstanding the laudable endeavours
of a few enlightened minds.

The universities are those of Lisbon, Coimbra, and
Evora. The first of these is much inferior to the second,
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which was founded in the year 1291, by king Dennis, and consists of a rector, rector, or governor, a chancellor, with fifty professors, and other officers. The number of students are about 4000; and the buildings of the university are very magnificent. The university at Evora was founded in the year 1559, and is well endowed. There is also at Lisbon a college, where the young nobility are educated in the sciences, and every branch of polite learning.

The Portuguese antiquities chiefly consist in the remains of some Moorish castles, the Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra, and the walls of Santarin, which are likewise supposed to have been built by the Romans. The principal natural curiosities are the lakes and fountains already described; to which we may add, the diamond the king is possessed of, which is perhaps the largest in the world, and was found at Brasil. The artificial curiosities are, the church and monastery near Lisbon where the kings of Portugal are buried, which are inexorably magnificent; and several monasteries in Portugal, dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is thought to be one of the finest and richest in the world: the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colours, as to astonish the beholders.

The capital city of Portugal is Lisbon: it stands on seven hills, on the north side of the mouth of the river Tagus; it is the residence of its monarchs, the seat of the chief tribunals and offices of the metropolitan, the receptacle of the richest merchandize both of the East and West-Indies, and esteemed the greatest port in Europe, next to London and Amsterdam. Here is one of the finest harbours in the world, having water enough for the largest ships, and room sufficient to admit ten thousand sail, without being crowded.

The greatest part of Lisbon, and the chief of the palaces and public buildings, were destroyed by a dreadful earthquake, on November 1, 1755. All that part of the city which was demolished, is planned out in the most regular and commodious form. Some large squares and many streets are already built. The streets form right angles, and are broad and spacious. The houses are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white stone, make a beautiful appearance. The inhabitants of this city, before the earthquake, did not exceed 150,000. Here are still remaining some noble edifices and fine churches; among the latter, the most magnificent is the chapel-royal, the splendor of which is amazing. The cathedral is a vast Gothic structure, heavy and clumsy; it contains, however, great riches, and is finely adorned within. The king's principal palace is spacious and convenient, and stands on the river Tagus. The castle is large and ancient, has always a garrison of four regiments of foot, and, from its situation, commands the whole city, being in the centre of it upon one of the highest hills. Here is a noble university, and a large square, called Rosio, surrounded with magnificent buildings.

The city and sea-port of Oporto is, next to Lisbon, a place of the greatest opulence and trade in the kingdom. It is surrounded with walls and towers, and the streets are narrow and irregular, but well paved, the natural rock making part of the pavement in some places, and in others even the walls of the houses. The buildings, which are gracefully antique, are all of stone; and the churches, particularly the cathedral, are stately and magnificent. The harbour, which is much frequented by English vessels, is very commodious, but the entrance to it is rendered dangerous by rocks and sand-banks, called the Bar. From this place is carried on an extensive trade, particularly in wine, to England, from thence denominated Port; and the inhabitants of half the shops in the city are coopers.

The commerce of Portugal is very considerable, but particularly with England, from whence they have most of the woollen manufactures, with which they furnish their subjects in Asia, Africa, and America; and in return for which the English take the wines, salt, and fruit of Portugal. By several treaties the British merchants in that kingdom enjoy considerable privileges, which of late years have been greatly infringed by the creation of new companies, and other oppressive regulations; and, notwithstanding repeated complaints have been made from our court to that of Portugal, there has never been the least redress granted, or concession made.

Portugal, it is said, draws more profit from her Brasils, than Spain from both Mexico and Peru. The articles from thence are gold, diamonds, pearls, indigo, copper, tobacco, sugar, cocoa nuts, ginger, cotton, hides, gums, drugs, and dyeing woods. The king's fifth of the gold brought from Brasil, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade, is said to amount, one year with another, to about 300,000l. sterling; and the whole annual produce of that metal in Brasil is computed at near 2,000,000l.

The Portuguese have also very extensive plantations on the east and west coast of Africa, from whence they draw gold, ivory, ebony, and slaves sufficient to cultivate their sugar and tobacco plantations in Brasil.

The Azores, or Western Isles, the Madeiras, and the Cape de Verd islands, likewise all belong to Portugal. Goa is their chief settlement in the East-Indies, their other possessions there are Macao, Daman, Diu, &c.

The manufactures in Portugal consist chiefly of wool and silk, both which are inferior in beauty and goodness to those of Spain. They also make a little linen, a variety of straw work, and preserve and candy fruits to admiration.

The king of Portugal is absolute, though the appearance of liberty is still preserved in the meeting of the cortes, or states, already mentioned in Spain: but they have long since sold their parts in the legislature to the crown, and now only serve to record such acts of state as the court resolves upon; to declare the next heir to the crown, when the king is pleased to nominate

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nate him; or to ratify treaties with such foreign princes as may still deem their consent of any weight. The succession in Portugal may devolve to the female branch; and the late monarch, having no male issue, obtained a dispensation from the pope, and married his daughter to his brother Don Pedro.

The council of state, in this kingdom, is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state, and they dispose of all great preferments, both spiritual and temporal. A council of war regulates all military affairs; and the treasury courts, the finances.

The laws of Portugal are all contained in three small volumes, and are founded on the civil law and their particular customs. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals; and the Casa da Supplicação is a tribunal from which no appeals can be brought. The Inquisition is established here, as well as in Spain. They have also one of these tribunals at Goa, but none at the Brasils; the power of the Portuguese inquisitions has, however, been of late greatly circumscribed.

The revenues of Portugal since the discovery of the Brasils, have been very considerable, and it is computed that they amount to three millions and a half annually. A considerable part of this arises from the customs and duties on goods exported and imported, which are usually farmed out by the crown, and are immensely high. Foreign merchandize pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland twenty-five per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pay twenty-seven per cent. and the tax upon land and cattle which are sold, is ten per cent. The duty upon snuff alone amounts to fifty thousand crowns; and the king draws a considerable revenue from the several orders of knighthood, of which he is always grand-master. The pope also, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of this kingdom, gives the king the money arising from indulgences and licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c.

The nobility of Portugal are not taxed but upon extraordinary emergencies, and then not very high. By the suppression of the Jesuits, and other useless religious orders and institutions, the king's revenue is greatly increased.

The king's titles are, " King of Portugal and the Algarves, on this side and the other side the sea of Africa; lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conquests, and commerce, in Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, India, &c." The king's eldest son is styled prince of Brasil." In the year 1749, pope Benedict XIV. dignified the king with the title of his Most Faithful Majesty.

The arms of Portugal are Argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many bezants as the first, placed saltier-wise and pointed, sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers. Or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The supporters are two winged dragons, and the crest a dragon, Or, under the two flanches, and

the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the first fleur-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the second patée, gules, for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it frequently consists of these words *Pro Rege et Grege.* " For the King and the People.

His Most Faithful Majesty, Peter III. late king of Portugal, died in July 1786, of an apoplexy, in the 69th year of his age. He was succeeded in the throne by his consort Maria Frances Isabella.

There are several orders of knighthood here, viz. 1. The order of Christ, founded in 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, the badge of which is a red cross within a white one, and the number of the commanderies 454. 2. The order of St. James, instituted in 1310; by the last-mentioned prince, the badge of which is a red sword, in the shape of a cross. A great number of towns and commanderies belong to this order. 3. The order of Aviz, or Aviez, instituted by Alphonso Henriquez king of Portugal, in 1417, as a military and religious order, whose badge is a green cross, in form of a lily, and the number of its commanderies 49. Though these three orders are religious, yet the knights are at liberty to marry. 4. The order of St. John, which has also several commanderies.

THE HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

SPAIN, together with Portugal, anciently formed but one kingdom, supposed to have been first peopled from Gaul, to which it is contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow streight of Gibraltar. The Phoenicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. These in their turn were invaded by the Saracens, who about the end of the 7th century had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they crossed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and established themselves in the southerly provinces of that kingdom.

The first Spanish prince, mentioned in the history of this country, was Don Pelago, who distinguished himself against these infidels (afterwards known by the name of Moors); and, about the year 720, took upon himself the title of king of Asturias. His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean time every adventurer was entitled to the conquests he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at last divided into twelve kingdoms; and about the year 1095 Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of

of Leon, court of Portugal; but his son Alphonso threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A succession of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the Spanish kingdoms, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand king of Arragon, and Isabella the heiress and afterwards queen of Castile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of 170,000 families, out of Spain. This expulsion greatly depopulated the country of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America (which happened a few years after) not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the Popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moor and Jews.

Ferdinand was succeeded by his grandson Charles V. of the house of Austria, afterwards emperor of Germany. The extensive possessions of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and above all, America, from whence he drew immense treasures, began to alarm the jealousy of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of Charles; he was almost constantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his Protestant subjects in Germany, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the Catholic church. At length, after a long and turbulent reign, he resolved to withdraw himself entirely from any concern in worldly affairs, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude. In consequence of this resolution he resigned Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria with two branches. Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the New World, also 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, but possessed few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cause of Popery. He married Mary, queen of England, an unfeeling bigot like himself; and after her death he paid his addresses to her sister Elizabeth, but without success. His resentment on this occasion produced very disadvantageous wars with that princess, which occasioned the revolt and loss of the United Provinces. But in Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors in Africa; and soon after Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal pretended to

a prior right. By this acquisition Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still retains.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that in the year 1640 the nobility of that nation, by a well concerted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza on the throne by the title of John IV. almost without bloodshed; and the foreign settlements also acknowledged him as their sovereign. A fierce war subsisted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to re-unite them proved vain, so that a treaty was concluded in February 1668; by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent, and has ever since been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip, duke of Anjou, second son to the dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted the throne, by virtue of his predecessor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701; and after a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity at the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht in the year 1713. And Lewis XIV. through a masterly train of politics, accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the East-Indies, from the house of Austria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which proved fatal to the commerce of Great-Britain; especially in the American seas, where a glaring partiality has been shewn to the French nation ever since, and renders the English being possessed of a port in the South-Seas of equal importance to that of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, which serves as a curb on the united strength of France and Spain in Europe.

Philip, after a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuses, and was desirous of promoting the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom; but he died in 1759 without issue, through grief for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother Charles III. the late reigning monarch of Spain.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretensions to that kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was their king of Portugal. He had the misfortune

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tune to disagree with his wife and his brother Peter, and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor, and father to his late Portuguese majesty. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much service in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, they had almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the great battle of Almanza in 1707.

John died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, who, in 1700, was attacked by some assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life. From this conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the Jesuits (who were supposed to have been deeply concerned in it) from all parts of the Portuguese dominions: Joseph having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown falling into a foreign family; and the next year 1761, she was brought to bed of a son, called the prince of Beira.

When the war broke out between England and Spain in 1762, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force Joseph into their alliance, and to garrison his sea-towns against the English with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this proposal, and declared war against the Spaniards, who, without resistance, entered Portugal with a considerable army, while a whole body of French threatened it from another quarter. But by the assistance of the English, an effectual stop was put to the invasion; and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau in 1763.

Joseph died on the 24th of February 1777, and was succeeded by his niece Maria Frances Isabella, one of whose first acts was, the removing from power the marquis de Pombal, an event which excited universal joy throughout the kingdom, since his arbitrary and oppressive administration had rendered him odious to the people; though it has been alleged in his favour, that several of the public measures he had adopted were calculated to promote the real interests of the country.

Maria Frances Isabella, queen of Portugal, was born in 1734, and married her uncle Don Pedro in 1760; the king was born in 1717, and, with the queen, was joint sovereign of the Portuguese dominions; till his death, which happened in June 1786, aged 69. The prince of Brazil, heir apparent to the crown of Portugal, was born in 1761, and married in 1777 to his aunt Mary-Francisca Benedicte, born in 1746. The rest of the issue of the late king are, John Maria Joseph, born in 1767; Maria-Anna-Victoria, born in 1768; and Maria Clementina, born in 1774.

Charles III. of Spain was so warmly attached to the family compact concluded with the house of Bourbon, that two years after his accession he even hazarded his

American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish plate fleets. Notwithstanding the success of the English, their ministry thought proper hastily to conclude a peace, in consequence of which; Havannah was restored to Spain.

In 1775 an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half from the city of Algiers; but were disgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take shelter on board their ships, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded, besides 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the place; but after spending much ammunition, and losing many lives, were forced to retire without effecting their purpose.

After the late unhappy war between Great-Britain and her colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had engaged to assist the latter, the court of Spain was also prevailed on to commence hostilities against Great-Britain. The great object of the Spaniards was, the regaining Gibraltar, as it had always been a great mortification to them, that this important fortress should be possessed by the English: they accordingly closely besieged it both by sea and land.

For an account of the destruction of this formidable armada, and the Spanish gun-boats, by the garrison under general Elliot, the reader is referred to page 699.

CHAP. XXVII.

I T A L Y.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Produce, Mountains, Seas, Springs, Population, Inhabitants, Religion, Government under the Pope, Curiosities, Italian States, History, &c.

THIS country is situated between the 7th and 10th deg. of east long. and 37 and 46th deg. of north lat. being about 600 miles in length, and in some places near 400 broad; but its form is so irregular, that in some parts the breadth does not exceed 25 miles. On the north, it is bounded by France, Switzerland, and Germany; on the east, by the gulf of Venice, or Adriatic sea; and on the south and west by the Mediterranean.



— An —
ACCURATE MAP
 of
ITALY.



The following TABLE contains the whole of the Italian Dominions, including Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian, and other Islands; with the Length, Breadth, Number of square Miles, and chief City in each.

COUNTRIES NAMES.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	PRINCIPAL CITIES.	
PAPISTS.					
Piedmont.....	140	98	6619	Tunis.	
Savoy.....	87	6	3572	Chambery.	
Subject to the king of Sardinia.	Monterrat.....	40	22	446	Cassal.
Alessandrine.....	27	20	204	Alexandria,	
Oneglia.....	24	7	132	Oneglia	
Sardinia Island.....	135	57	6600	Cagliari.	
To the king of Naples.	Naples.....	275	200	22,000	Naples.
Sicily Island.....	180	92	9409	Palermo.	
Milan.....	155	70	5431	Milan.	
Emperor.....	Mantua.....	47	27	700	Mantua.
Mirandola.....	19	10	120	Mirandola.	
Pope's territories ..	235	143	14,348	ROME, N. lat. 41-54. E. long. 12-45.	
Tuscany.....	115	94	6640	Florence.	
Subject to their respective princes....	Maffa.....	16	11	82	Maffa.
Parma.....	48	37	1125	Parma.	
Modena.....	65	89	1560	Modena.	
Piombino.....	22	18	100	Piombino.	
Monaco.....	12	4	24	Monaco.	
Lucca.....	28	15	286	Lucca.	
Republics....	St. Marino.....		8	St. Marino.	
Genoa.....	160	25	2400	Genoa.	
To France....	Corsica Island.....	90	38	2520	Bastia.
Venice.....	175	95	8434	Venice.	
Republic of Ve- nice.....	Istria, P.....	6	32	1245	Cabo d'Istria.
Dalmatia, P.....	135	20	1400	Zara.	
Isles of Dalmatia ..			1364		
Cephalonia.....	40	18	428	Cephalonia:	
Corfu, or Corcyra ..	31	10	194	Corfu.	
Zant, or Zacynthus ..	23	12	120	Zant.	
St. Maura.....	12	7	56	St. Maura.	
Little Cephalonia } olim Ithaca }	7	3	14		
Total			97,572		

SUBDIVISIONS OF ITALY.

Piedmont, Savoy, Montserrat, the island of Sardinia, part of the Milanese, and of Genoa, subject to the king of Sardinia.

Piedmont proper, ch. towns Turin, Pignerol; Cavignan; Verceil, lordship, ch. town Verceil; Masseran, principality, ch. town Masseran; Ivrea, marq. ch. town Ivrea; Asti, county, ch. town Asti; Susa, marq. ch. town Susa; Saluzzo, marq. ch. towns Saluzzo, Cuni; Vaudois, Vallies, ch. town Proglas, or Cluson; Nice, territory, ch. town Nice; Tende, co. ch. town Tende; Aouste, county, ch. town Aouste.

Savoy, duchy, ch. town Savoy; Geneva, county, ch. town Annacy; Chablais, county, ch. town Tonor, or Thonon; Tarantaise, ch. town Montriers; Maurienne, valley, ch. town St. John de Maurienne; Fofigny, ch. town Bonneville.

Montserrat, duchy, ch. towns Casal, Alby, Aquis. Milanese—Tortone, ch. town Tortona; Alessandrine, ch. town Alexandria; Laumelin, ch. town Laumello.

Oneglia, territory, ch. town Oneglia.

DOMINIONS OF THE KING OF NAPLES.

Lavora, ch. towns Naples, Capua, Gaeta; Ultra, principality,

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principality, ch. town Benevento; Citra, principality, ch. town Salerno; Molic, ch. town Bojano; Basilicata, ch. town Cerenza; Citra Calabria, ch. town Cosenza; Ultra Calabria, ch. town Reggio; Ultra Abruzzo, ch. town Aquila; Citra Abruzzo, ch. town Chieti; Capitate, or Apulia, ch. towns Manfredonia, Lucca; Bari, ch. town Bari; Otranto, ch. towns Otranto, Brundisi, Tarenta.

SICILIAN ISLANDS.

Val de Mazara, ch. town Palermo; Val de Demona, ch. town Messina; Val de Noto, ch. towns Catania, Syracuse, Noto.

LIPARI ISLANDS, N. OF SICILY.

Lipari, Strombolo, Rotte, Panaria, Elicusa.

ISLANDS ON THE W. COAST OF ITALY.

Capri, Ischia, Penza, Giglio; Elbasits, ch. town Porto Longone, subject to Sicily; Piamosa, ch. town Porto Ferraro, subject to Tuscany; Capraria, Gorgona.

THE MILANESE, MANTUA, AND TUSCANY, POSSESSED BY THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

Milanese—Milanese proper, ch. town Milan; Pavese, ch. town Pavia; Navarese, ch. town Navara; Comasco, ch. town Como; Lodese, ch. town Lodi; Cremonese, ch. town Cremona.

Tuscany—Florentina, ch. town Florence; Siennese, ch. town Sienna; Pifa, ch. towns Pifa, Leghorn, Piombino.

Mantua proper, ch. town Mantua.

Note.—The republic of Lucca is in Tuscany, and the principality of Massa Carara, subject to its own prince; also the coast del Presidii, subject to the king of Naples, the capital of which is Orbitello.

The duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastella, are subject to the duke of Parma, their chief towns are of the same name.

The Genoese territories contain the following:

Genoa proper, ch. town Genoa; Savona, territory, ch. town Savona; Vado, ter. ch. town Vado; Noli, territory, ch. town Noli; Final, territory, ch. town Final; Albenga, territory, ch. town Albenga; Oneglia (to Sardinia) ch. town Oneglia; St. Remo, territory, ch. town St. Remo; Ventimiglia, territory, ch. town Ventimiglia; Monaco, principality, ch. town Monaco; Rapallo, territory, ch. town Rapallo; Lavigna, ch. town Lavigna; Spezia, ch. town Spezia.

MODENA, DUCHY, SUBJECT TO ITS OWN DUKE.

Modena, ch. town Modena; Mirandola, ch. town Mirandola; Rhegio, ch. towns Rhegio, Borfello, Carpi.

THE REPUBLIC OF VENICE.

Venice, D. ch. town Venice; Paduan, ch. town

Padua; Veronese, ch. town Verona; Bresciano, ch. town Brescia; Cremasco, ch. town Crema; Bergamasco, ch. town Bergamo; Vincentino, ch. town Vicenza; Rovigno, ch. town Rovigno; Trevegiano, ch. town Treviso; Bellunese, ch. town Belluno; Friuli, ch. town Aquileia; Udinese, ch. town Udina; Itria, ch. town Cabo de Itria.

THE POPE'S TERRITORIES, OR THE PATRIARCHATE.

Campania di Roma, ch. towns Rome, Tivoli, Fregati, Ostia, Albano.

St. Peter's Patrimony, ch. towns Viterbo, Civita Vecchia, Bracciano, Castro, Orvietto, Aquapendente.

Ombria, or Spoleto, ch. towns Spoleto, Narni, Terni, Perugia.

Ancona, marquitate, ch. towns Ancona, Loreto, Urbino, Pesaro, Semigalia.

Romania, ch. towns Ravenna, Rimini; Bolognese, ch. town Bologna; Ferrarese, ch. towns Ferrara, Comacchia.

Republic of St. Marino, ch. town St. Marino.

The island of Corfica is subject to the French, ch. towns Bastia and Bonifacio.

The island of Malta or Melita, is subject to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem; its chief town is Malta, or Valetta.

The air of Italy is very different; according to the different situations of the several countries contained in it. In those on the north of the Apennines it is more temperate, but in those on the south generally very warm. The air of the Campania of Rome, and of the Ferrarese, is unhealthy, which is owing to the lands not being duly cultivated, nor the marshes drained. That of the other parts is generally pure, dry, and healthy. In summer the heat is very great in the kingdom of Naples, and would be almost intolerable, if it was not somewhat alleviated by the sea-breezes.

The soil of Italy in general is very fertile, being watered by a great number of rivers. It produces a variety of vines, and the best oil in Europe; excellent silk in abundance, corn of all sorts, but not in such plenty as in some other countries; oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, almonds, raisins, sugar, mulberry-trees without number, figs, peaches, nectarines, apricots, pears, apples, filberts, chestnuts, &c. Most of these fruits were at first imported by the Romans from Asia Minor, Greece, Africa, and Syria, and were not the natural products of the soil. The tender plants are covered in winter on the north-side of the Apennines, but on the south-side they have no need of it.

This country also yields good pasture, and abounds with cattle, sheep, goats, buffaloes, wild boars, mules, and horses. The forests are well stored with game, and the mountains yield not only mines of iron, lead, alum, sulphur, marble of all sorts, alabaster, jasper, porphyry, &c. but also gold and silver, with a great variety of aromatic herbs, trees, shrubs, and evergreens.

greens, as thyme, lavender, laurel, and bays, wild olive-trees, tamarinds, juniper, oaks, pines, &c. In fine, Italy well merits the appellation which it has obtained, viz. the Garden of Europe.

The chief mountains of Italy are the Apennines and the Alps; the former run the whole length of the country from north-west to south-east; the latter extend from the river Var near Nice, to the Adriatic. The principal river is, the Po, which rises in Piedmont, and disembogues itself into the Adriatic.

The seas of Italy are, the gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic sea; the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio, Quiace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Itria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Accona; and the Straight of Messina, between Italy and Sicily. The gulfs and bays in the Italian islands are those of Fiorenzo, Bastia, Tolada, Porto Novo, Cape Corsica, Bonifacio, and Ferro in Corsica; and the Straight of Bonifacio between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardinia, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazaro, Syracuse, and Catania; Cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Pafaro, and Alessia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Ferraro, and Porto Longone, in the island of Elba. We have thought it necessary to give a particular account of the various seas, gulfs, and bays, in Italy, because, without a competent knowledge of these, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the history nor geography of the respective countries, can be well understood.

Mineral Springs abound in many parts of Italy; some of them are hot, some warm, and many of sulphurous, chalybeate, and medicinal qualities, of use in many distempers. Several of the mountains contain mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones; beautiful marble is also found all over the kingdom. The ridgy parts of Sardinia yield a great quantity of metals and minerals, as gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum; curious crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Near Tivoli in Naples, a mill is erected for forging and fabricating iron and copper.

With respect to the population of Italy, the number of inhabitants, in the time of Pliny, was computed at 24,000,000; but as the modern Italians are in a great measure free from the unintermitting wars, and colonizations, which, till about two centuries ago, had almost depopulated their country, it may therefore not be thought extravagant, if we estimate them at 20,000,000; towards which, the king of Sardinia's subjects are reckoned at 2,300,000; the city of Milan, by the best computation, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous; and population has no doubt been greatly promoted by the encouragement

which has been for some time given to agriculture and manufactures of all kinds. In their persons, the Italians are generally of a middling size, well proportioned, with black hair, thin faces, and expressive countenances. Their women are well shaped, and very amorous; inasmuch that the marriage ties, especially of the better sort are said to be very little regarded in Italy. Every wife has been represented to have her cicisbeo, or gallant, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence is taken on either side: but this practice prevails chiefly at Venice, where parents, to prevent their sons marrying unsuitably, or contract diseases by promiscuous amours, hire mistresses for them for a month, or a year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenced trade: the Italian courtizans, or bona roba's, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all their cities; so little do they reflect on the impropriety of this and many other customs, that are considered as criminal in other countries professing Christianity: they are however affable, courteous, ingenious, sober, and ready-witted: but rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout.

The Italians are fond of greens, fruit, and vegetables of all kinds, which contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a small expence, the people being in general temperate both in eating and drinking. Boiled snails, served up with oil and pepper, or fried in oil, and the hinder parts of frogs, are esteemed delicate eating. Kites, jack-claws, hawks, and magpies, are eaten here, even by the better sort of people; the Italian cooks, however, and the uncleanly manner of serving up victuals, which is for the most part of a very bad quality, are said to be very disgusting to an Englishman. In their dress, they conform to the fashions of the countries on which they border, or to which they are subject; but in general they affect a medium between the French volubility, and the solemnity of the Spaniards. They neither hunt, walk, ride, play at bowls, or take any other manly exercise, so much have they degenerated from those heroes whose descendants they without shame boast themselves to be, and on that very account look upon the rest of mankind with contempt. Masquerades, operas, and other musical entertainments, gaming, horse-races without riders, assemblies, and pompous religious exhibitions, are their only amusements.

We must not, however, omit a description of the Cocagna, which is a diversion relished by people of the first rank in the polished city of Naples, where they pretend to tell us that the very vagrants in the streets are instructed in history, and the human mind is refined by poetry, softened by music, and elevated by religion. The Cocagna is an entertainment given to the people four succeeding Sundays during the carnival. Opposite to the palace a kind of wooden amphitheatre is erected.

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This being covered with branches of trees, bushes, and various plants, real and artificial, has the appearance of a green hill. On this hill are little buildings, ornamented with pillars of loaves of bread, with joints of meat, and dried fish, varnished and curiously arranged by way of capitals. Among the trees and bushes are some oxen, a considerable number of calves, sheep, hogs, and lambs, all alive and tied to posts. There are, besides, a great number of living turkies, geese, hens, pigeons, and other fowls, nailed by the wings to the scaffolding. Certain heathen deities appear also occasionally upon this hill, but not with a design to protect it. The guards are drawn up in three ranks, to keep off the populace. The royal family, with all the nobility of the court, crowd the windows and balconies of the palace, to enjoy this magnificent sight. When his majesty waves his handkerchief, the guards open to the right and left; the rabble pour in from all quarters, and the entertainment commences. You may easily conceive what a delightful sight it must be to see several thousand hungry beggars rush in like a torrent, destroy the whole fabric of loaves, fishes, and joints of meat, overturn the heathen deities for the honour of Christianity, pluck the fowls, at the expence of their wings, from the posts to which they were nailed; and in the fury of their struggling and fighting for their prey, often tearing the miserable animals to pieces, and sometimes stabbing one another. It must be observed, that of late years the larger cattle have been previously killed.

The day here is reckoned from sun-set to sun-set, and their clocks are made to strike the 24 hours. The houses in Italy are far inferior to those in England for convenience, the accommodations at the inns very coarse and slovenly, and, which is the greatest evil of all, travellers are infested day and night with infinite numbers of gnats, fleas, bugs, and lice.

The Roman-Catholic religion is the only one established in Italy; but all sects, though not tolerated, are found there, provided they do not scoff at or insult the worship of the country.

The most solid foundations for the temporal power of the Papacy were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. who, before his accession in 1073, was well known by the name of Hildebrand. The ignorance of the laity, and other causes, operated to the aggrandisement of the popes, and the extension of their authority, previous to the reformation. Ever since that era, the state of Europe has been such, that the Roman pontiffs have had more than one great weight in its public affairs, chiefly thro' the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes, who seem now to be recovering from their religious delusions; and the papal influence has received a considerable check from the wise conduct and moderation of the emperor of Germany.

The chief part of the religion of the Italians consists in an external observance and practice of ecclesiastical rites, ceremonies, and injunctions. An Italian, not enlightened by reflection and experience, will sooner commit adultery than eat any flesh meat on a Friday; but a foreigner, who wishes to pass for a Roman-Catholic, need only to affix to his window an attestation, by a physician, that his state of health requires a flesh meat diet; and he may, without any risk, eat flesh meat in Lent: such attestations may be purchased in coffee-houses in Florence. The ecclesiastical government of the Papists is centered in the popes and cardinals; the latter should be 70 in number, but it is seldom complete. They are always appointed by his holiness, who takes care to have a majority of Italians among them, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. When foreign prelates are to be promoted to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess the tenets of the church of Rome. His chief minister is styled the cardinal patron, and is generally a nephew, or some other near relation. In the consistory, which is a meeting of the pope and cardinals, the latter pretend to control the former in matters both spiritual and temporal, and they have even been known to prevail; but this rarely happens. The conclave is an assembly of the cardinals upon urgent occasions, particularly at the election of a pope; when it has been known, particularly in 1721, that animosities and disputes have run so high, that, forgetting they were to attend to divine inspiration in their proceedings, they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink-stands at each other, thus transmuting the conclave, for a time, into a boxing-stage. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election.

The pope, on his elevation to the chair, gives in his creed, which, respecting the inferior articles, is in substance as follows: That he firmly admits the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and the constitutions of the church of Rome,—admits the Holy Scriptures in the same sense that holy mother church doth,—believes in seven sacraments, as instituted by Jesus Christ, and necessary to salvation, namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage,—embraces all the determinations of the council of Trent, respecting original sin and justification,—professes, that in the mass there is offered to God a propitiatory sacrifice for quick and dead; that the bread and wine are transubstantiated into the very body and blood of Christ,—and that the cup is to be denied to the lay people,—that there is a purgatory,—that departed saints are to be worshipped and prayed to,—that they offer to God the prayers of the faithful, and their relics are to be revered,—that the images of Christ, the Virgin Mary, and other saints, are to be honoured and had in veneration,—that Christ left the power of indulgences, for

the benefit of Christian people,—that the holy, catholic, and apostolic Roman church, is the mother and mistress of all churches, and that true obedience is to be paid to the bishop of Rome, as the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and the vicar of Jesus Christ, believe all that the councils, canons, and holy synod of Trent, enjoin, and condemn and reject all other things contrary thereto. The whole of the confession of faith, from which the above articles are extracted, was delivered to the conclave by pope Pius IV. in 1560, previous to his election.

We shall conclude this head with an account of an English traveller, who, speaking of a religious procession some years ago at Florence, in Italy, describes it in the following manner: "I had occasion, says he, to see a procession, where all the noblesse of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniversary of a charitable institution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About 200 of these virgins walked in procession, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in sackcloth, with lighted tapers, and monks with crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies; but the greatest object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, standing within a gilt frame, dressed in a gold stuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of false jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the fashion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cross; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the shoulders of three or four lusty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt."

The Inquisition in Italy is little more than a sound. The papal power, as we have already hinted, is now evidently at low ebb. The order of Jesuits, who are not improperly called its Janissaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but just tolerated in other Popish countries. The pope himself is treated by Roman-Catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reasonable to believe, will terminate in a total separation from the holy see of all its foreign emoluments; which ever, since the beginning of the present century, were immense, and to the reducing his holiness to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions as first bishop of Christendom.

John Angelo Braschi, born in 1717, was elected to the papal dignity in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

With respect to the character of the ecclesiastical state, it may be proper to offer these general observations: a Christian, a philosopher, and a patriot, will be equally scandalized by the temporal kingdom of the clergy; and the local majesty of Rome, the remembrance of her consuls and triumphs may seem to im- bitter the sense, and aggravate the shame of her

slavery. If we calmly weigh the merits and defects of the ecclesiastical government, it may be praised, in its present state, as a mild, decent, and tranquil system, exempt from the dangers of a minority; exempt from the follies of youth, the expences of luxury, and the calamities of war. But these advantages are over- balanced by a frequent, perhaps a septennial election of a sovereign, who is seldom a native of the country: the reign of a young statesman of threescore, in the decline of his life and abilities, without hope to accomplish, and without children to inherit, the labours of his transitory reign. The successful candidate is drawn from the church, and even the convent; from the mode of education and life the most adverse to reason, humanity, and freedom. In the trammels of servile faith, he has learned to believe, because it is absurd; to revere all that is contemptible; and to despise whatever might deserve the esteem of a rational being; to punish error as a crime; to reward mortification and celibacy, as the first of virtues; to place the saints of the calendar above the most renowned characters of Rome or Athens; and to consider the missal, or the crucifix, as more valuable than the Bible, or more useful instruments than the plough or the loom. In the office of nuncio, or the ranks of cardinal, he may acquire some knowledge of the world; but the primitive stain will adhere to his mind and manners: from study and experience he may suspect the mystery of his profession; but the sacerdotal art will imbibe some portion of the bigotry which he inculcates.

In Italy, there are thirty-eight archbishoprics, but the number of suffragans, though very great, cannot be ascertained, as the creation or suppression of them depends entirely on the pleasure of the pope.

The Italian language, which in the present age is so much admired for its softness, and spoken by the accomplished in most parts of Europe, is originally the old Latin, blended and corrupted with the jargons of the northern nations that over-ran this country after the declension of the Roman empire; but polished, refined, and improved so, as to render it soft, smooth, harmonious, and the best adapted to poetry and music of any in the world. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect: the Tuscan style and dialect is most in request at present. The affinity between the Italian and the ancient Latin, will appear by the following specimen of their Lord's prayer: "Padre nostro, che sei nel cielo, sia sanctificato ill tuo nome; ill tuo regno venga; la tua volonta sia fatta sic come in cielo cosi anche in terra; daeci oggi ill nostro pane cotidian; e rimettici i nostri debita, sic come noi ancora rimettiamo a' nostri debitori; e non induci in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perchioè tuo è il regno, è la potenza, è la gloria in sempiterno. Amen."

With respect to learning and learned men, no country has produced better historians and poets, both ancient

and modern. Cicero is the first of the Roman learning; of the Greeks, Plato and Aristotle; of the Italians, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Machiavelli, and Galileo. The moderns have produced a great number of excellent authors in all the sciences, and particularly in the history, poetry, and mathematics. The most celebrated Italian names are those of Galileo, Galvani, Volta, and the Marquis de Laplace.

The present state of Italy is very deplorable. It is divided into many small states, and is the theatre of perpetual wars and dissensions. The Italian nation is generally ignorant and superstitious.

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and modern, than Italy. Among the former of these, are Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Livy, Tacitus, and Lucan. After the reduction of the Roman empire, learning suffered a total eclipse; but since the revival of it, some Italians have succeeded in controversial learning, though they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own persuasion. Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several others, have shone in the mathematics and natural philosophy. Strada, Fra. Paoli, Guicciardin, Bentivoglio, Davila, and Machiavel, have all been celebrated as excellent historians; and the latter yields the palm to few of his successors, either as a political or comic writer. Boccace has been esteemed as one of the most pure and correct writers with respect to style: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but wrote in too licentious a spirit. Metastasio has acquired great reputation by his dramatic pieces set to music. Sannazaro, Pincallorus, Bembo, Vida, and some others, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry; as Tasso and Ariosto have for their Italian.

The painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians of Italy, have never yet been equalled by those of any other nation. Raphael, Titian, Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and many more, remain unrivalled in the first of these arts, as Michael Angelo does in all three. Bramante, Bernini, with several more of their countrymen, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing degree of perfection. Their professors of music, at the head of which stands Corelli, are almost innumerable, and most of them inimitable.

The universities in Italy are those at Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia. Pisa hath forty-six professors.

The natural and artificial curiosities of Italy, both in ancient and modern times, are alike stupendous, great, and beautiful. Mount Vesuvius, five miles distant from Naples, is remarkable for its eruptions of fire from the top. Its height has been computed to be 3900 feet above the surface of the sea. The younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote, has given a striking description of its ravages in the year 79. In 1631 it broke out with great fury, and spread desolation for several miles around. There was a still greater eruption in 1694, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with so much force, that some of it extended thirty miles, and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it. In 1707 another eruption happened, when such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. A violent eruption in 1767, when the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or other coverings, to guard themselves from hurt. The

tops of the houses, and the balconies, were covered with these cinders; and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were also covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. This is reckoned to be the twenty seventh eruption from that which destroyed Her. Museum in the time of Titus. In 1766, an eruption also happened, and another in 1779. The declivity of this mountain, towards the sea, is everywhere planted with vines and fruit-trees; and it has been observed, that the sulphureous and nitrous manure, which proceeds from this raging volcano, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contribute not a little to the uncommon fertility of the circumjacent country, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every-where covered.

The other remarkable burning mountain is that of *Ætna*, in Sicily, of a circular form, and terminates in a cone; it is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be sixty miles in compass. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it celebrated in history: in one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. An earthquake, very destructive in its effects, commonly precedes the eruption from this mountain. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished. The lower parts of the mountain are very fruitful in corn and sugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Mount *Ætna* is by the Italians called *Monte Gibello*, or *Mongibello*: it is so high, that it harbours many wild beasts.

The valley of *Soltafara*, between the lakes *Agnano* and *Puzzeli*, is remarkable for the vast quantities of sulphur that are continually forced out of the cliffs by subterraneous fires. The grotto del *Cani* is also noted for its poisonous steams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are said to be very numerous in *Apulia*. To the natural curiosities of Italy, we may likewise add those vast bodies of snow and ice called glaciers and ice-vallies. Of these there are five, which reach almost to the plain of the vale of *Chomouny*, and are separated by wild forests, corn fields, and rich meadows; the whole affording a very romantic and striking appearance. These several vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of *Mount Blanc*; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world; its height, above the level of the sea, being 2391 $\frac{1}{2}$ French toises, or 15,303 English feet.

A great variety of artificial curiosities, and monuments of antiquity, are to be found in the city of Rome only; among which are, the aqueducts and fountains; the Vatican, and the other palaces; the *Campidolio*, where the Roman senate resides; the *Pila Militaria*, of fine marble; the equestrian brass statue of

Marcus

Marcus Aurelius Antoninus; the marble monument of the emperor Alexander Severus; marble busts of the emperors and their consorts; three brick arches of the temple of Peace, built by the emperor Vespasian, and that of Concord; the Coliseum, or amphitheatre, built by the emperor Vespasian, in the construction of which 12,000 Jewish captives were employed; it is said to have contained 87,000 spectators seated, and 20,000 standing; the triumphal arch of Septimus Severus, of Titus, of Galienus, and the temple of Antoninus; some parts of the cloaca, maxima; the columna Antonina, representing the principal actions of Marcus Aurelius; the columna Trajani, or Trajan's Pillar; some fragments of the Basilica, or palace of Antoninus Pius, now the custom-house, and of Narva's forum; the mausoleum of Augustus, in the Strada Pontifici; the remains of the emperor Severus's tomb without St. John's Gate; the pyramid of Caius Cestus near St. Paul's Gate; the porphyry coffin of St. Helen, and the original statue of Constantine the Great, in the church of St. John of Lauran; a font of oriental granite, in the chapel of St. Giovanni in fonte, said to have been erected by Constantine the Great; an Egyptian obelisk near the church of St. Maria Maggiore; the stately remains of Dioclesian's baths; the celebrated pantheon; the obelisks of Sesostris and Augustus by the Clementine college; the church of St. Paulo fuori della Mura, said to have been built by Constantine the Great; the mausoleum of Adrian; Marcellus's theatre; the Farnese Hercules, of white marble, of a Colossean size and exquisite workmanship, in a court of the Farnese palace, and an admirable groupe cut out of one block of marble, in another court of the same place. Indeed it must be allowed, that no city in the universe equals Rome for the multiplicity of fine fountains, noble edifices, antiquities, curiosities, paintings, statues, sculptures, &c. The cloaca or catacombs, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples, were places where the Christians who never burned their dead, and such of the Pagan Romans as could not afford the expence of burning, were buried; they are long narrow alleys, scarcely broad enough for two persons to go abreast, but sufficiently high for the tallest man to stand upright. They extend a prodigious way under ground. On each side are three holes or cavities, each of which will contain the coffin of a full-grown person. The cave of Paulilippo is a broad, straight, subterraneous road, hewn through a mountain. Two holes on each side admit air and light. This cave is, at the entrance, 100 feet high, but diminishes; and the whole, which is paved with broad stones, is about half a mile long.

An inexhaustible mine of curiosities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which, in the reign of Nero, was almost totally destroyed by an earthquake; and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus Vespasian, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Ve-

svivius. The streets and houses, in some places, were filled up with the melted lava to the height of sixty feet above the tops of the latter, and in others 110 feet. This lava, which is now of a very hard consistency, is composed of bituminous particles mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified sandy substances, which form a close and heavy mass. In 1713, upon digging into these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the people of Italy being for the most part indifferent about objects of antiquity, the search was discontinued till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then discovered, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great door of entrance. In the theatre, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. Multitudes of statues, bustoes, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, were likewise found among the ruins of this city. The streets appear to have been quite straight and regular, the houses well built and uniform; some of the rooms were paved with mosaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks three feet long and six inches thick. The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum; but the ruins were not discovered till near forty years after those of Herculaneum.

Each city and town of Italy contains many rarities in architecture, painting, and sculpture. St. Peter's church at Rome is thought to be the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric in the universe. The height, from the pavement of the church to the top of the cross, is 593 palmi, or 405 French, and 433 English feet. In this church is a superb white marble monument of the countess Matilda. The house and chapel of Loreto is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance which composes its history. The name Loreto is derived from Laurita, the lady in whose field the santa casa was pitched before the reformation; the number of pilgrims, who visited the holy house in a year, is said to have amounted to 200,000; but now they seldom exceed 40, or 50,000.

Every Italian state having a distinct form of government, trade, and interest, that the reader may be the better enabled to form an idea of the whole, we shall take a distinct view of each.

The king of **SARDINIA**, as duke of Savoy and prince of Piedmont, has always been considered as a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. Turin, his capital city,

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city, is strongly fortified, and ornamented with many elegant structures; it contains about 60,000 inhabitants; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives, who are esteemed a simple, but very honest people, are forced to seek their bread all over the world. The king's ordinary revenue, besides his own family provinces, amounts to 500,000l. sterling at least, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace; but, during a war, when assisted by foreign subsidies, he can bring 40,000 men into the field. This prince has long been an ally of Great-Britain, for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, and to that circumstance, in which also his natural interest consists, he principally owes his aggrandizement. The king being absolute, can levy what monies he pleases upon his subjects.

We have been favoured with the following biographical anecdotes of the prince royal of Sardinia:

"Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, heir to the throne of Sardinia, was born on the 24th of May 1751. He was educated under cardinal Gerdil, a most accomplished ecclesiastic, who inspired him with a sincere piety, and at the same time inculcated a love for letters into his youthful mind. It was he too, who banished from his bosom that hereditary attachment to military men, which has been so prejudicial to his family.

"The prince of Piedmont evinces the most dutiful respect for his father, and a sincere affection for his wife, his brothers, and his sisters. He is of a religious disposition, but there is nothing gloomy, sanguinary, or hypocritical in his devotion.

"His filial duty often forces him to conceal his aversion to the grandees who surround and often disgrace the throne; and he refuses to assist at the cabinet councils, as he has been taught by experience, that he possesses but little influence there.

"His majesty, one day finding himself embarrassed by the blunders of his ministers, communicated his chagrin to the heir apparent. — 'Sire, (replied the prince, at the same time producing his watch) behold this little piece of mechanism: it always goes well; and the reason is, because I always regulate it with my own hands.—The king was not insensible to the true meaning of this reply.

"It is always with great regret that his highness sees his father giving up the whole of his attention to the war department. When the Savoyards exclaim against the tyranny of their governors, it is the prince of Piedmont alone who prevents their cottages from being reduced to ashes; if it were not for this prince, Granet would be instantly dismissed from office; and this great minister, who is the friend of justice and of humanity, would be obliged to make way for some ignorant pretender.

"This prince, always occupied in doing good, shares but little in the pleasures of the court of Turin; the nobles, by way of ridicule, call him *Ilypocombice*; but is he not better entitled to the appellation of the *amiable*?"

Victor-Amadens-Maria, king of Sardinia and duke of Savoy, was born June 26, 1726; married April 12, 1750, to Maria-Antonietta-Ferdinanda, infanta of Spain; ascended the throne on the death of his father, February 20, 1773. Their issue are, 1. Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, prince of Piedmont, born May 24, 1751.—2. Maria-Josepha-Louisa, born Sept. 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence.—3. Maria-Theresa, born Jan. 31, 1756; married to the count d'Artois.—4. Anna-Maria-Carolina, born Dec. 17, 1757.—5. Victor-Emanuel-Cajetan, duc d'Aoste, born July 24, 1759.—6. Maurica-Joseph-Maria, duc de Montserrat, born Sept. 12, 1762.—7. Maria-Charlotta, born Jan. 17, 1764.—8. Charles-Joseph, duc de Gènesois, born April 6, 1765.—9. Joseph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born Oct. 5, 1766.

The MILANESE, in the possession of the house of Austria, is a very formidable state; and formerly, when governed by its own dukes, gave law to Italy. Milan, its capital, is fortified with a wall and rampart; and has a citadel, in which is a foundery for cannon, and an arsenal furnished with arms for 12,000 men. The environs are very pleasant, being adorned with beautiful seats, gardens, orchards, &c. Here is a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies, where they converse almost on all subjects; their number is computed at about 250,000. The annual revenue of the duchy is above 300,000l. by which an army of 30,000 men is maintained. There are but few exports from hence; so that its revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The beggars here ask alms by holding out a dish in which is placed a human skull. The duchy of Mantua being now incorporated with the Milanese, the name of Austrian Lombardy is given to the whole province.

GENOA was once a very powerful republic, but is now greatly degenerated both in strength and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among all ranks. The capital, of the same name, is a most superb city, and contains some very magnificent palaces, particularly those of John Doria, the beneficent founder of the republic, and Durazzo. The chief safety of this republic consists in the jealousy of other European powers, because it would be a most valuable acquisition to any one of them. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six gallees. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the soil of its territory. Some parts near the sea are tolerably well cultivated. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants, among whom are many rich trading individuals. The government of this country is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility: the chief person is called the

doge, or duke, to which dignity no one can be promoted till he is fifty years of age. The doge gives audience to ambassadors; all orders of government are issued in his name, and he is allowed a body guard of 200 Germans. Every two years a new doge is elected, and the former is deemed incapable of holding the same post again till after five years. The empire of the sea was for many years disputed between this state and that of Venice.

We shall here introduce an affecting and accurate description of the galley-slaves of Italy: "Five sorts of wretches, says our author, are fattened indiscriminately to the chains; malefactors, smugglers, deserters, Turks taken by the corsairs, and *voluntary galley-slaves*. These latter are poor men, whom government get hold of, between hunger and death. They watch and wait for them in a narrow passage. These wretched beings, dazzled with a little money, do not perceive the galleys, and are enlisted into the servitude. Poverty and guilt are bound in the same chain; the citizen who serves the republic, suffers the same punishment with him who has betrayed it!

"The Genoese carry their barbarity still further: when the term of their inlitting is near expiring, they propose to lend a little money to these miserable creatures. Unhappy men are eager for enjoyment; the present moment alone exists for them; they accept; but at a week's end nothing remains to them but regret and slavery; inasmuch that, at the expiration of that time, they are compelled to inlitt again, to discharge their debt, and sell eight years more of their existence: thus do the greatest part of them consume, from inlittments to loans, and from loans to inlittments, their whole lives at the galleys, in the last degree of wretchedness and infamy: there they expire!

"We saw among them a Frenchman, a young man. In relating to us his misfortune, he shed tears. We made him a trifling present, and his tears flowed still more abundantly.—Let us escape from these sorrowful abodes, where we are unable to alleviate the miseries we lament. What abodes must those be where pity is of no avail!

"But what is that kind of prison in the corner?" said I to the man who conducted me. How low, damp, and dark it is! It consists nevertheless of two stories. What are those animals stretched out on the ground, and on the upper floor? They can scarcely crawl.—Those hideous heads, which peep out from beneath the blankets, are covered with long hair; their looks are stupid and ferocious. Do they eat nothing but this hard black bread?—Certainly not. Do they always continue lying?—Yes.—How long have they been here?—Twenty years.—How old are they?—Seventy.—What do you call them?—Turks.

"These miserable Turks are totally degraded from humanity. They are strangers to every thing but bodily

wants. They have worn out, in this sort of tomb, the small number of ideas and recollections they brought with them from nature and their country.

"The other Turks, who are not sixty years old, are chained under little niches opened at the distance of every six feet in a long wall, where they can scarcely sit or lie. There they respire the little air that is allowed them, or rather that they can steal.

"The Genoese, however, have given an example of toleration but little to be expected from them; they allow these Turks a mosque; the Protestants in France have no temples!

"Let us add one trait more to this picture of the galleys. I saw the wretches falling from bench to bench: covering, disputing, stealing even the fragments of aliments which the dogs in the streets had refused.

"Genoa, thy palaces are not sufficiently lofty, spacious, numerous, and brilliant!—we still perceive thy galleys!"

The republic of VENICE is one of the most celebrated in the world, on account of its constitution and the power it once possessed. It contains several fine provinces, on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The constitution was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and continued thus for 150 years; but, after various changes, a body of hereditary legislative nobility was formed, and a complete aristocracy at length established. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, at 25 years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. These elect a doge, or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner, by ballot. The doge is invested with great state, and with the emblems of supreme authority. He annually, on Ascension-day, espouses the Adriatic sea, by dropping into it a ring from his bucentaur, or state-berge, attended by those of all the nobility. But notwithstanding the insignia of royalty with which the doge is invested, he enjoys very little power, and is shut up in the city as a prisoner, while the government and laws are managed by different councils and nobles. The college, or signory, is the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic: its power is very extensive. The council of ten takes cognizance of state crimes. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is in the highest degree arbitrary in its method of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, not excepting even the doge himself: they may seize suspected persons, and try and execute those whom they think worthy of punishment, when they think proper. Having keys to every apartment of the palace, they have liberty to penetrate

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into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his ca-
binet, and examine his papers; and, of course, may
command access to the house of every individual in the
state. They continue in office only one year, but are
not afterwards responsible for their conduct while in
authority.

The city of Venice is situated on 72 islands at the
bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is
separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five
Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to
navigate, which forms its chief strength. This city
preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is
in every respect degenerated, except in the passion which
its inhabitants still retain for music and mummery dur-
ing their carnivals. They have had, however, lately,
some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and
seem disposed to throw off their obedience to its head.
The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly
the public places, the treasury, and the arsenal, are be-
yond expression. Over the several canals of Venice
are laid near 500 bridges, most of which are stone.
All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black
gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their
hands.

With respect to their persons, the Venetians are in
general tall and well-made, and many fine manly coun-
tenances are seen in the streets of Venice; they are
also a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of
public amusements, with an uncommon relish for
humour. The women are of a fine style of counte-
nance, with expressive features, and are of an easy ad-
dress. The common people are remarkably sober,
obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse
with each other. The diversions of the Venetians are chiefly
masquerading, especially during the carnivals, and other
festivals, when debauchery, riot, and licentiousness are
said to be carried to their greatest height; but this opin-
ion seems to exceed the truth: they have also ridottos,
operas, and plays, which are commonly wretched per-
formances. There are eight or nine theatres here, in-
cluding the opera houses. Great numbers of strangers
visit Venice during the time of the carnival. The
grand scene of all the shews and follies during the
festivals, is the square of St. Mark, in which bulls are
sometimes baited, and where, at such times, 15,000
people, it is said, often assemble. The inhabitants,
who are computed at 200,000, walk on foot, except
the principal ladies of fashion, who are carried in chairs,
the streets being too narrow, steep, and crooked, to admit
of wheel carriages.

The Venetians have still some manufactures in scar-
let cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and, above all, fine
looking glasses, all which bring in a considerable re-
venue to the owners; that of the last annually is said
to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each val-
ued at 20d. of our money: out of this are defrayed
the expences of the state, and the pay of the army,
which, in time of peace, consists of 26,000 regular

troops, under the command of a foreign general, and
19,000 militia. Their fleet, which is but small, prin-
cipally consists of galleys, for curbing the insolencies
of the piratical states of Barbary. The Venetians are,
however, still reckoned the greatest naval power in Italy.

Here are two patriarchs, which preside over eccle-
siastical matters; the authority of one reaches over all
the provinces, but neither of them have much power;
and both of them are chosen by the senate: every reli-
gious sect, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting
Protestants, are tolerated here in the free exercise of
their religion. The inquisition is under great restric-
tions here.

The Venetian dominions consist of a considerable
part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of
the islands of Corfu, Pachsu, Anipachsu, Santa Mau-
ra, Curzolari, Valli Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante.
Their territories in Italy contain, besides the du-
chy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Ro-
vigo, the Veronese, the territories of Vicenza and
Brescia, the districts of Bergamo, Cremasco, and the
Marca Trurgiana, with part of the country of Friuli.
The subjects of the Venetian republic are not op-
pressed; the senate being sensible, that mild and gen-
tle treatment conduce more effectually than severity to
the welfare of the state and the happiness of individuals.
One of the smallest pieces of money at Venice is
called gazetta; and the first news-papers, published
there, on a single leaf, having been sold for that apiece,
news-papers were from thence styled gazettes.

The grand duchy of TUSCANY is now possessed by a
younger branch of the house of Austria, under the
title of grand duke of Tuscany. Its annual revenues
are, at present, computed at 550,000l. sterling; and it
is thought that the duchy of Tuscany can bring 30,000
men into the field. The inhabitants affect great state,
but do not esteem trade as beneath the first nobleman.
Accordingly, it is not uncommon for the gentry, and
even some of the nobility, to sell wine by retail from
their cellars. But the principal trade of this duchy is
carried on at Leghorn, a handsome town, and a free-
port, situated in the territories of Pisa, about thirty-
five miles south-west of Florence. The number of
inhabitants in Leghorn are said to be about 40,000,
among whom are reckoned 20,000 Jews, who live in a
particular quarter of the city, have a handsome syna-
gogue, and, though subject to very heavy taxes, are in
a thriving condition, the greatest part of the com-
merce of this city being carried on by these people.

Florence, the capital of Tuscany, is situated on the
river Arno, over which are four stone bridges, and de-
fended by a good citadel. The streets, in general, are
very narrow and crooked, are paved with a greyish
stone, and are tolerably clean. There are a great num-
ber of palaces, churches, convents, and hospitals: the
cathedral is a very noble edifice, the outside is entirely
built with polished marble, and enriched with exquisite
architecture

architecture and sculpture; and from the ball over the cupola, there is a delightful prospect of all the palaces, churches, monasteries, &c. within the walls, and of near two thousand villas without. By the church stands the much celebrated Campanile, or square steeple, which is one hundred and eighty feet high, all of fine marble, of several colours, and curiously wrought. The baptistery, or font, where all the children of the city are baptized, is well worthy attention. The rest of the churches in general are very beautiful, and contain many fine paintings and other pieces of art. This city was long possessed by the illustrious house of Medicis, who made it the repository of all that was valuable, rich, and masterly in architecture, literature, and arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. The celebrated Venus of Medicis, which has long been considered as the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal, in a group of other ancient statues, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. It is of white marble, and appears, from an inscription on the base of the statue, to have been the performance of Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. The duke has also several noble country seats, enriched and adorned in the same magnificent manner. The arsenal is a stately building, and well furnished with all sorts of weapons of war. Florence is adorned with seven fountains, six columns, two pyramids, and about an hundred and sixty public statues. The great piazza, or square, is very spacious and magnificent, with a noble fountain in the centre of it. The city is thought to contain 70,000 inhabitants. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Crusca: several other academies are now established in Florence. Since the accession of the archduke Leopold, brother of the present emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. The other principal towns of Tuscany are Pisa, and Sienna, which are now much decayed.

LUCCA is a small republic, under the protection of the emperor, and situated on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain. It is not above thirty Italian miles in circumference, but exceeding fruitful and populous. The inhabitants, who are said to amount to upwards of 120,000, are remarkable for their industry and love of liberty: being in full possession of freedom, they appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be met with among their neighbours. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that the annual revenue of the state amounts to 80,000l. sterling. They are under the protection of the house of Austria. Their capital, Lucca, is an ancient city

about three Italian miles in circumference. The houses, in general, are well built, the streets broad and well paved, but irregular, and the number of inhabitants about 40,000. Several manufactures, especially those of silk, are carried on here; and the finest oil of any in Italy is made in this republic.

ST. MARINO may be considered as a geographical curiosity, consisting only of a single mountain, and a few hillocks scattered round the bottom of it. The founder of this republic was a Dalmatian mason, called Marino, who, about the year 460, turned hermit, and chose this mountain for the place of his abode. His devotion and austerity soon gained him a great reputation for sanctity, and the princes of that country made him a present of the mountain. Many, out of veneration for the saint, settled there, and laid the foundation of a republic which still subsists, and bears the name of the saint. The town is situated on the summit of the mountain, and can be approached by one path only. It is under the protection of the pope, and the number of inhabitants are computed at 5000. The manners of this people are very inoffensive, and the government is in the hands of a council, composed of half nobles and half plebeians.

PARMA, PLACENTIA, and GUASTALLA, form at present one of the most flourishing states in Italy, for its extent. The present duke is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. The soil is remarkably fertile, produces the finest fruits and richest pasturage, and the country contains considerable manufactures of silk. The annual revenues are computed at 100,000l. sterling. Parma is supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants, and Placentia about 28,000. Here is a bishop's see and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings: but his Catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, carried away with him many of the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy. This country was for some years past the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, is now much decayed. Its government is annexed to that of the Milanese. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who claim Virgil as their countryman. By an order of the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now to be called Austrian Lombardy. It formerly brought to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year.

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solate within his own dominions; but a vassal of the empire, and under the protection of the house of Austria. The capital, also called Modena, is a large and populous, but not a handsome city. The ducal palace is a noble edifice, in which, among other fine pictures, the birth of Christ by Correggio, called la Notte de Felice, is greatly admired. Correggio was a native of Modena. Here is a college founded by St. Carlo Borromeo, in which between 70 and 80 young noblemen are maintained and instructed in the sciences and genteel exercises. This duchy was greatly wasted by the late belligerent powers of Europe, but is very improvable.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, of which Rome is the capital, lies in the centre of Italy. Under the ancient Romans this spot was a terrestrial paradise. Here most of the beautiful villas of antiquity were situated, and every part of it cultivated with the most assiduous care; but Popish superstition, bigotry, and oppression, have rendered it thin of people, and ill cultivated: so that many of the luxuriant tracts are now become marshes and quagmires, whose putrid effluvia render the capital itself very unhealthy at some seasons of the year. Several of the popes have endeavoured to improve their country, and revive that spirit of industry which was so prevalent in former times, but their labours have proved abortive. Indeed the discouragement of industry and agriculture, seems to be interwoven in the very constitution of the papal government, which is vested in proud lazy ecclesiastics. This beautiful country is now a mere desert, and the wretched inhabitants must perish with want, did not the amazing fertility of the soil spontaneously afford them a scanty subsistence.

Though the pope is truly despotic, and possesses one of the most fertile countries in the world, the revenues of his territorial possessions do not amount to more than a million sterling annually. His accidental income indeed formerly far exceeded that sum; but this is now greatly diminished by the separation of the Protestant powers, and the measures lately taken by those that still profess the Romish religion, to prevent the great remittances of money to Rome; add to this, the almost total suppression of the order of Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies; so that the taxes upon provisions and lodgings furnished to foreigners, who annually spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form, at present, the greater part of the pope's accidental revenues. From what has happened within these 30 years past, there is reason to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houses of Austria and France shall please to prescribe.

The pope has his guards, or Sbirri, like other princes, and these, under proper magistrates, take care of the peace of the capital. The Campagna di Roma, in which the capital is situated, is under the im-

mediate inspection of his holiness; but the other provinces are governed by legates and vice-legates. He monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops to keep the provinces in awe. Few manufactures are carried on in the Ecclesiastical State, consequently its exports are of little value. Formerly all the Christian powers of Europe trembled at the nod of the pope, but affairs have now taken a very different turn; and his power, which, as a temporal prince, has been for some years contemptible, will probably be still more abridged, by the ambitious projects of the house of Austria and other states. The present pope, who has taken the name of Clement XIV. very wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing the forces of the adjacent princes, with any other arms but those of prayers and supplications. The pope's ecclesiastical government has been already mentioned.

Rome, the capital of the Ecclesiastical State, is situated on the Tyber, ten miles from the Tuscan sea. In the magnificence of its buildings, the number of its monuments, curiosities, and antiquities, together with the singularity and importance of its historical events, it far surpasses any city in the world. It is the centre and repository as it were of all that is exquisite in painting, sculpture, and architecture. From an account taken in the year 1714, the number of its inhabitants was found to amount to 145,000. The Tyber runs through the city from north to south, forming an island.

In external splendor, and the magnificence of its temples and palaces, modern Rome is, at least, equal to, if it does not excel, the ancient. The number of the churches are computed at about three hundred, the noblest and most elegantly beautiful is St. Peter's, which for the harmony of its architecture, fineness and great variety of carved and gilt works, paintings, statues, &c. cannot be viewed without a pleasing astonishment. Before it is a spacious and magnificent piazza, in the middle of which is an obelisk of granite or black marble, brought from Egypt, and reared at a prodigious expence. It is eighty feet high, and the pedestal on which it stands is thirty; on the top of it is a brass gilt cross. The annual revenue belonging to this church is upwards of 20,000l.—The Pantheon, commonly called the Rotunda, though it has lost much of its pristine grandeur, is still one of the most entire structures of the ancients in Italy. The citizens of Rome are more polite than in any other place in Europe; and are said to be entirely free from that spirit of bigotry and persecution which prevails in other Roman-Catholic countries. Here is plenty of all sorts of provisions, and a great variety of excellent wines; but in Rome they are drunk very moderately, and generally mixed with water.

Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the second city in the Ecclesiastical State. The number of its inhabitants is computed at upwards of eighty thousand.

The fortifications are very inconsiderable, being only defended by a strong, high brick wall, adorned with a great number of towers, at certain distances. There are many fine palaces, convents, and churches in Bologna, adorned with a prodigious variety of fine paintings, statues, &c. The palace where the governor resides, and the courts of justice are held, stands in the great market-place, and is 208 common paces in length. Here is an university, and a museum. The inns at Bologna are the best in Italy, and all kinds of provisions are very plentiful. The inhabitants of Bologna are more industrious than in other parts of Italy, and remarkably polite to strangers; the women enjoy a great share of liberty; and the nuns are particularly ingenious in making artificial flowers, and imitating all kinds of fruits.

Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino, Ancona, and many other cities, illustrious in former times, now exhibit a melancholy scene of ruin and devastation.

Loretto, never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, the prodigious resort of pilgrims, and other devotees, to pay their devotions; it having been industriously reported by the Romish clergy, that the Santa Casa, or Holy House, in which the Virgin Mary dwelt at Nazareth, was carried hither through the air by angels, towards the end of the thirteenth century, attended with many miraculous circumstances. The votive pieces and jewels in this holy house and treasury, are of immense value, being the offerings of princes, princesses, and other great personages: the riches contained in the treasury are valued at nine millions of six-dollars. Seventeen golden lamps are continually burning before the Virgin, and thirty-seven silver ones in the other parts of the house. The gold chains, rings, jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith the image of the Holy Mother is, or was loaded, are of inestimable value; and the angels of solid gold, placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman-Catholic princes, Loretto is chiefly indebted for this mass of treasure. The pavement of this house is of square pieces of red and white marble, and the whole is cased on the outside with the finest marble, adorned with statues, sculptures, and pillars of the Corinthian order; and over all is a fine spacious church, to preserve it from the injuries of the weather. One hundred and twenty-three masses are daily said in this church, and the Santa Casa.

NAPLES and SICILY, or the Two Sicilies, comprehending the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna-Grecia, and the island of Sicily, form the largest kingdom in Italy, containing about 32,000 square miles. This country is bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and Adriatic, except on the north-west, where it terminates on the Ecclesiastical State.

The soil is very fruitful, and much better cultivated than in the Ecclesiastical State; and the annual revenues amount to about 750,000l. sterling. The clergy are very numerous; but their influence and revenues have been lately abridged.

The capital is Naples, said to be the first city for strength and neatness in Italy. It is most advantageously situated, having a delightful country on one side, and a noble bay of the Mediterranean on the other; with a spacious harbour, which is kept in good repair, and fortified with a mole, extending above a quarter of a mile into the sea, and having at the extremity a high lantern to direct ships safely into the harbour during the night. The bay is one of the finest in the world, being almost of a semicircular figure, about thirty miles in diameter, and three parts of it sheltered by a circuit of woods and mountains. The circumference of the city, including the suburbs, is not less than 18 Italian miles, and the number of inhabitants about 300,000. The streets are well paved, but they are not lighted at night, and in many places are disfigured by stalls, on which provisions are exposed to sale. The houses are of stone, flat-roofed, and generally lofty and uniform; but many of them have balconies, with lattice windows. Naples abounds with fine churches, convents, fountains, and palaces of the nobility, many of whom constantly reside here. The magnificence of many of the churches exceeds all imagination; the cathedral, though of the Gothic order, is a very grand, splendid edifice. The palace belonging to the king is very magnificent, and in the best style of architecture. Here is an university and two academies of wits, one of which is called Gli Ardente, and the other Gli Osi. The arsenal is thought to contain arms for fifty thousand men. There are five piazzas, or squares, in the city, appropriated to the nobility, viz. Capuana, Nido, Montagna, Porto, and Porta Nova. The inhabitants frequently walk on the tops of their houses in the evening, to breathe the cool air, after a hot sultry day; and from some of the religious houses, there are several delightful prospects. The climate is so mild and warm in winter, that plenty of green-pease, artichokes, asparagus, and other vegetables, may be had all the winter: the city is supplied with water by means of an aqueduct from the foot of Mount Vesuvius. The people use great quantities of snow instead of ice for cooling their liquors; and certain persons who farm the monopoly of it from the government, supply the city all the year round from a mountain about eighteen miles distant.

The kingdom of Naples is a fief of the Ecclesiastical State, and his Neapolitan majesty annually presents the pope with a palfrey as an acknowledgement of his vassalage; but notwithstanding this customary homage, his holiness has no civil power in this kingdom, nor is the inquisition established in Naples. The king's present revenues amount to above 750,000l. sterling per annum, but it is more than probable that, by the new-

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established regulations pursued by the national con-
vention of France, of diminishing the influence and re-
venues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majesty's annual
income will considerably exceed a million sterling.
The exports of the kingdom are pulse, hemp, aniseed,
wool, oil, wine, chevic, fish, honey, wax, manna,
saffron, gums, capers, macaroni, salt, pot-ash, flax,
cotton, silk, and divers manufactures. The king has
a numerous, but generally poor nobility, consisting of
princes, dukes, marquises, and other pompous titles;
and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy,
contains, at least, 350,000 inhabitants; amongst which
are about 30,000 lazaroni, or blackguards, the greatest
part of whom, having no dwelling-houses, sleep in sum-
mer-nights under porticoes, piazzas, or wherever they
can find shelter; and in the winter season, which is
generally of several weeks continuance, and attended
with very heavy rains, they resort to the caves under
Capodi Monte, where they sleep promiscuously like
sheep in a fold: such as have wives and children, live
in the suburbs of Naples, near Pausilippo, in huts, or
in caves or holes dug out of that mountain. Some
of these wretched beings gain a livelihood by fishing,
others by carrying burthens to and from the shipping,
and many ply in the streets in order to be employed on
errands, or perform any labour they are capable of for
a very small recompence; but as they do not always
meet with employment, and what they gain not being
sufficient for their support, they are in some degree
relieved at the doors of the convents, by the soup and
bread distributed there.

Notwithstanding the lower class of people are so ex-
tremely indigent, there is a great appearance of wealth
amongst some of the great, many of whom are excel-
sively fond of splendor and shew, brilliant equipages,
numerous attendants, rich dresses, high-sounding titles.
A late traveller into these parts has made it appear that
luxury has within these few years advanced with gigan-
tic strides in Naples: "Forty years ago, says he, the
Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their
heads as the Spanish women do to this day, and not
twenty of them were possessed of a cap: but hair plain-
ly dressed is a mode now confined to the lowest order of
inhabitants; and all distinction of dress between the wife
of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid
aside. Expence and extravagance are here in the ex-
treme. The great families are oppressed with a load of
debt; the working part of the community always
spend the price of their labour before they receive it:
and the citizen is reduced to great parsimony, and al-
most penury, in his house-keeping, in order to answer
these demands of external shew: short commons at
home whet his appetite when invited out to dinner;
and it is scarcely credible what quantities of victuals
he will devour. The nobility in general are well
served, and live comfortably, but it is not their custom
to admit strangers to their table; and the number of poor
dependents who dine with them, and cannot properly

be introduced into company, prevents the great families
from inviting foreigners; another reason may be, their
sleeping after dinner in so regular a manner as to un-
dress and go to bed; no ladies or gentlemen finish their
toilette till the afternoon, on which account they dine
at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of state,
and ministers, live in a different manner, and keep
sumptuous tables, to which strangers and others have
frequent invitations."

The banditti of Naples are very numerous, and en-
joy the protection of the people of quality, have a great
number of asylums or places of refuge, and are punc-
tually paid for every murder they commit. But this
reward is but a trifle; and often the price fixed upon a
man's life, is only a couple of zechins (about 18s.)
I myself have seen such an act of horror. One night,
when the opera being ended, the avenues to the theatre
were full of people; two persons, one of them an of-
ficer, were the destined victims; they were suffered
very quietly to get into their carriage, and before the
coachman could drive off, on account of the great
crowds of people, two banditti approached at once the
doors of the carriage, aimed and thrust their daggers
into the breast of two found, unsuspecting persons,
and made them in a moment two dead corpses. The
day following a report was circulated all over the city,
that the profligate and ruthless son of a great minister
was the author of this more than savage assassination;
yet the deed had no further consequences.

It would be a mistake to consider these banditti as
monsters. Although they are so in our idea, yet they
themselves, justified by education, laws, and religious
notions, do not regard their *honest* profession in so black
a light. That they sin in committing murder, they
are perfectly sensible of, but it is only a sin of which
the next confession-seat will clear them. Thus they
have nothing to mind but their penitential acts, which
the father confessors order them to perform; and to
calculate the proportion between these, which mostly
consist in prayers and the blood-money they have
earned. As the greatest part of these crimes remain
unpunished, and such as are punished consist only in
sentencing the murderer to row the galleys for two or
three years, I do not know what should impress the
ignorant banditto with a proper sense of his infamous,
detestable profession. It being a more lucrative than
honest employ, and the reward being gained by idle-
ness, a circumstance so much attended to in this cli-
mate, they follow quietly their business, and continue
murdering with the greatest unconcern. But they
never forget to put their rosary in the same place which
hides the dagger, in order to atone immediately, by
muttering some Ave Marias for the most heinous
crimes they have committed. Having done this, the
banditti clear themselves of all sins, and only wait
for fresh opportunities of imbruing their guilty hands
with innocent blood.

The great number of those accidents made the people
of

of Naples so indifferent about them, that strangers are shocked at it. They speak here of a man that has been murdered, nearly in the same tone as we do of a person who accidentally falls down in our streets. If the murderer is not one of the banditti, but another person, who commits the deed for the sake of his own private interest, he may surely rely on the pity of the surrounding people, who will do every thing to facilitate his escape. From all sides re-echoes the word, *poverello*, (poor fellow) not to pity the person assassinated, but his assassin. What an immense contrast with England! where the life of the meanest plebeian is an object of general attention, where neither rank nor riches can save the murderer, and where even people of quality will hinder him from making his escape.

The banditti confess very often, go diligently to hear mass, observe most scrupulously their fasts, and invoke daily St. Januarius. Thus they suppose to fulfil every duty of religion, and to go with piety into salvation. A few years ago, a banditto, who had committed many murders, was brought to justice: he confessed his crimes without being asked, and added several other acts of horror, which had been concealed to that very moment. But upon being asked among other things, whether he had observed his fasts, he found himself affronted: he thought this question such an outrage, that he asked the judges with bitterness, "whether they did not look upon him as a Christian!"

One of the insects almost peculiar to the kingdom of Naples is the tarantula, or a kind of spider, with which it abounds. The persons bit by this insect are called by the Italians tarantolati. Few of such unhappy persons can bear the sight of black or blue; but seem delighted with red and green objects. They are also seized with an aversion to eating fruit or vegetables. A melancholy silence, and a fixed eye, are the first symptoms by which the bite of the tarantula discovers itself; and the music is immediately called in to rouse the patient to a violent motion, and by that means to promote perspiration and a copious sweat. The instruments chiefly used are the guitar, hautboy, trumpet, violin, and Sicilian kettle drum. The country people, who are more or less skilled in all these instruments, enforce the operation of their music by grimaces and odd gesticulations. The tarantolati, on their side, vigorously exert themselves, regulating their motions according to the music, till the venom is quite expelled. This exercise and cure sometimes takes up five or six days; not that they are kept continually dancing all that time, but when nature seems to be exhausted, the music is suspended, and the patient put to bed, well covered, and a sudorific cordial administered. It is remarkable, that the patient, on recovery, remembers nothing of what passed during the prevalence of the disorder; and that if the cure be not perfectly effected, and the poison entirely expelled, the same symptoms return the succeeding year, especially during

the summer heats; and some have laboured under this terrible disorder, at intervals, for ten, twenty, or thirty years.

In this kingdom there are still traces of the memorable town of Canne, as altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, &c. the scene of action also between Hannibal and the Romans, in which the latter were overthrown with the loss of 40,000 men, is still pointed out to travellers by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, or the field of blood.

TARANTO, a city that was once the rival of Rome, and inhabited by the Spartans, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries.

The city, SORENTO is placed on the brink of steep rocks that overhang the bay, and enjoys a more delightful climate than any other place in the kingdom.

NOLA, fourteen miles from Naples, was once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, but retains at present but few marks of its ancient splendor.

BRUNDISIUM, now BRINDISI, which anciently furnished a supply of oysters for the Roman tables, hath still a commodious harbour, but the buildings are poor and ruinous: it was reduced to a state of inactivity and poverty on the subjection of the Grecian empire to the Turks, and continues to be a very inconsiderable place.

BENEVENTO can boast of many remains of ancient sculpture: the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent vestiges of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation here.

REGGIO is only remarkable for its Gothic cathedral. This city was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marston war, and was rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and suffered greatly by the earthquake in 1783; but only 126 persons lost their lives out of 16,000 that were in the place.

OPPIDO, an ancient city, was entirely ruined by the earthquake on Feb. 5, 1783, the greatest force of which seems to have been directed to that spot, Casal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. Most of the towns and villages, from Tropea to Squillace, were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins: this dreadful earthquake extended its ravages to the space of seventy-two miles, but the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined by it, and the spots where the greatest mortality has happened, were within twenty-two miles of this city.

C H A P. XXVIII.

I T A L I A N I S L A N D S.

SICILY, which forms a part of his Neapolitan majesty's dominions, was once considered as the granary of Italy for corn, and still produces considerable quantities;

laboured under this ten, twenty, or thirty

traces of the memorials, gates, walls, also between Hannibal's camp were overthrown. His fl. pointed out to *di Jangue*, or the

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quantities; but agriculture is now much neglected, and, in consequence, its fertility greatly diminished. This island is divided from Italy by a narrow channel, called the Streight or Faro of Messina. It contains about 500,000 inhabitants, who carry on a very considerable trade, particularly in silk, both raw and manufactured. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this island are remarkable for the beauty of its female inhabitants. Its capital is Palermo, a large, rich, and well-built city, situated at the bottom of a gulf of the same name. It is decorated with a great number of public structures, finely adorned, and is said to contain near 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets, and which cross each other, are very fine. This town carries on a considerable trade, and is said to be the only one in all Italy which is lighted at the public expence.

Messina is situated at the bottom of a spacious harbour, on the streight which separates Sicily from Calabria. The public structures are extremely grand, and the city was full of people till the year 1783, when near two thirds of the inhabitants were swept away by a dreadful pestilence. The ancient capital of Sicily was Syracuse, which was near twenty-two miles in circumference. It exhibited some few remains of its former grandeur, was a large well-built city, and contained many churches and convents, in general elegant structures, and carried on a considerable trade, till the earthquake in 1783. By that earthquake, as the account transmitted from thence informs us, a great part of the lower district of the city and of the fort was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the Palazzato, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Messina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the supposed number of inhabitants in the city, only 700 are said to have perished. The greatest mortality fell upon those towns and countries situated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, 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; at Rocina and Palmi about 3000 each; Terra Nuova, about 1400; Seminari, still more. The sum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the secretary of state's office at Naples, is 32,367; but it is believed, that including strangers, the number of lives lost must have been 40,000 at least.

SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, is situated in the Mediterranean sea, about 150 miles west of Leghorn, and has seven cities or towns. It is about 160 miles in length from north to south, and 80 in breadth from east to west. The soil, where it is properly cultivated, is very fruitful, producing corn,

wine, and oil in great plenty, together with very fine fruits of various kinds; but it is in general so badly cultivated, that the revenues do not exceed 5000l. sterling a year. Its capital is Cagliari, the seat of a viceroy, an archbishop, and an university. The cathedral is very magnificent, but the other buildings have little to boast, nor is the trade considerable, though the harbour is spacious. This island was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain; at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and ceded to the house of Savoy in 1719.

CORSICA is situated a little to the north of Sardinia, from which it is separated by the streight of Bonifacio, about twenty miles in breadth. It is a very mountainous country, and partly overgrown with wood; but the low lands in some of the vallies yield plenty of corn, wine, figs, almonds, olives, oranges, citrons, and other fruits. The strenuous efforts which the natives of this island, for a number of years, made for the recovery of their liberty, have rendered them famous, but they were obliged at last to submit to the French. Many of the malecontents, however, are not yet reconciled to the government of their new masters. The number of inhabitants is about 120,000; but the trade of the island is inconsiderable. It has a good breed of cattle and horses, and the woods and forests abound with game; it is also plentifully supplied, both by sea and rivers, with fish. Bastia is the capital of the island, but has nothing remarkable.

The LIBONI, and other small islands on the coast of Italy, are now famous only for the ruins of antiquity with which they abound. Many of them are fruitful in corn and wine; and two of them, Hiera and Stromboli, have volcanoes.

CAPRI, or CAPREA, is much taken notice of for the noble ruins on it, the most considerable of which are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory. It is about four miles long, and one broad, and is situated at the entrance of the gulf of Naples, about three miles from the continent. This isle was the residence of the emperor Augustus, for some time; and afterwards of Tiberius, for many years. What chiefly recommended this island to Tiberius was its temperate healthful air, being warm in winter, and cool in summer; and the nature of its coast, which is so very steep, that a small number of men may defend it against a great army. The surface of the island was then cut into easy ascents, adorned with the emperor's and other palaces, and planted with a variety of groves and gardens. The rocks also underneath were cut into highways, grottoes, galleries, bagnios, and subterraneous retirements, which suited the brutal pleasures of that emperor;

XXVIII.

ISLANDS.

part of his Neapolitan marine considered as the greatest till produces considerable quantities;

peror; and were afterwards defaced or demolished by the Romans, in detestation of the lascivious unnatural scenes which had been acted there by Tiberius. It contains about 1500 inhabitants, who are exempt from all taxes: and belongs to the province of Lovoro, in the kingdom of Naples. There are several springs of fresh water in it; and in a delightful valley between the mountains, at the two extremities, stands a city of the same name with the island, which is the see of a bishop, whose revenue arises chiefly from the prodigious flights of quails that come thither at certain seasons, particularly in March, when vast quantities of them are sent to Naples, and sold for four-pence and five-pence per dozen. On this account, the bishopric is sometimes jocosely styled the bishopric of Quails.

ISCHIA, a small but pleasant ar- tile island, lies on the Neapolitan coast, about two miles from the Cape of Melissa, and 25 from Naples. Most of it is surrounded with high, craggy, and inaccessible rocks, which shelter it from winds, and defend it from invaders. Some parts of it are rich and delightful, yielding all manner of delicious fruits, and excellent wines; but others are as dismal and barren. It was anciently called Inarime; and was much subject to earthquakes, and the poets tell us, Jupiter laid the vanquished Titan or Typhon under it, and that the earthquakes are occasioned by his efforts to throw off the load. There are several hot baths and medicinal waters in it, with a number of pleasant towns and villages.

ELBA hath been from time immemorial celebrated for its mines. Virgil and Aristotle mention it. The fruits and wine of the island are very good; and the tannery, fishery, and salt produce a good revenue. Its situation about 10 miles south-west from Tuscany, is 80 miles in circumference, and contains 7000 inhabitants; it is divided between the king of Naples (to whom Porto Longone belongs) the great duke of Tuscany (who is master of Porto Ferrajo) and the prince of Piombino.

MALTA, though not properly one of the Italian islands, is generally comprehended, by geographers, in descriptions of them. It lies about sixty miles south of Cape Pallaro, the southern point of Sicily. It was called Melita by the ancients, and is of an oval figure, twenty miles long, and twelve broad. The air is clear and healthful, but excessive hot, when not cooled by the sea-breezes. The whole island is composed of a white soft rock, covered with a good vegetable earth, about a foot deep. It is exceedingly fertile, producing great quantities of cotton, indigo, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, and other fruits, and affords plenty of honey, wax, good pastures, pulse, roots, herbs, and garden-stuff; but not a sufficient quantity of corn, wine, or wood, to supply the consumption of the inhabitants, who are computed at sixty thousand. This island was

given by Charles V. to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, on their being driven out of Rhodes by the Turks, which happened in the year 1530. Soon after their settlement in this island, they took the name of knights of Malta. The knights consist of eight nations, the chief of which are France, Italy, Spain, England, and Germany. They have commanderies, or estates, in most of the Roman-Catholic countries, and are said to amount to about three thousand. They carry on a perpetual war against the Turks, and are under vows of celibacy and chastity, but observe only the former. They are considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks, on that side; nor have they ever degenerated from the military glory of their ancestors. They are governed by a grand master, who is elected for life: on his death, they suffer no vessel to go out of the island till another is chosen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election: he is chosen out of the 16 great crosses, and his title is, The most illustrious and most reverent prince, the lord friar A. B. great master of the hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, prince of Malta and Gaza. They wear crosses of a particular form, and the grand master has a large golden key of the holy sepulchre pendent at his side. They are generally of noble families, and ranked according to their nation.

The capital of the island is called Valetta, or Malta: it is a handsome city, strongly fortified, and has an excellent harbour. The palace of the grand master, and the cathedral, dedicated to St. John, are spacious and elegant structures. The whole island, or rather rock, is so strongly fortified, that it is considered as impregnable by all the forces the Infidels can bring against it; and they have accordingly laid aside all thoughts of making themselves masters of the island. On the 8th of September there is an annual procession at Malta, in memory of the Turks raising the siege on that day (1653) after four months assault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind them.

THE HISTORY OF ITALY.

ITALY has been, from the earliest ages of historical narration, either the seat of empire, or the theatre of war. When Romulus, the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, settled here, and laid the foundation of Rome, 753 years before the Christian era, Italy was in the same situation as at present, divided into little kingdoms and states, all living in distrust, at least, if not in open war with one another. The Roman commonwealth changed the face of things, by reducing them all, and making herself the head and mistress of Italy. Her empire was extended over the greater part of the known world; but at last luxury and effeminacy effected what force had attempted in vain; the Goths, the Vandals, and other barbarous nations of the north broke in, and hastened her destruction.

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Italy was again divided into small principalities, and continued in the same state till the time of Charlemagne. The successors of that celebrated prince claimed, and for some time possessed, the sovereignty of Italy; but, engaged in wars abroad, and civil commotions at home, the governors of these principalities either assumed or purchased the sovereignty of the respective states over which they presided.

After various revolutions and changes of government, Savoy and Piedmont fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the ancestors of the prince who now enjoys the crown of Sardinia, which he obtained by virtue of the quadruple alliance, concluded in 1718.

Genoa, as part of the ancient Liguria, continued under the dominion of the Romans, till the ruin of that empire by the Goths, and other northern people; after which it made a part of the kingdom of Lombardy, then of the German empire, and at length became a sovereign state. But it owes its present form of government entirely to the virtue of Andrew Doria; who, preferring the advantage of his country to his own, refused the sovereignty offered him, and rendered it a free state. There are few instances in history more surprising than the efforts made by the Genoese for the recovery of their liberty, when they drove the Austrian troops out of their capital in the year 1747.

Tuscany, anciently known by the names of Ombrina, Tyrrhenia, and Etruria, was subdued by the Romans about 455 years before the Christian era. It was possessed by the Ostrogoths in the fifth century, and afterwards by the Lombards, who were expelled by Charlemagne in the year 800. From that period it became subject to the German emperors till the year 1240, when the inhabitants were divided into two powerful parties, distinguished by the names of the Guelphs and Gibellines; the former supported the interest of the pope, and the latter that of the emperor. The violence of these parties occasioned a long civil war both in Tuscany and Germany. At last the Florentines, weary with a state of anarchy, formed themselves into a free state: but, about the middle of the fifteenth century, Cosmo de Medicis, who obtained the glorious title of The Father of his Country, assumed the supreme power; and his son Alexander de Medicis was created duke of Florence by the emperor Charles V. in the year 1531. He was succeeded by his cousin Cosmo II. the great patron of the arts, on whom pope Pius V. conferred the title of Grand duke of Tuscany, in the year 1570. This prince, under whose auspices the arts were revived in Italy, enriched his capital with the most beautiful works of ancient artists. Cosmo III. obtained from the emperor the title of royal highness; and, after a long and happy reign, died on the 31st of October 1723. He was succeeded in his dominions by his son John Gaston de Medicis, who dying without issue in 1737, was the last male heir of that family: Don Carlos, the present king of Spain, was therefore declared his successor;

and, by the consent of the grand duke, assumed the title of hereditary grand prince of Tuscany. But on the conclusion of the war, by which he acquired the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, it was stipulated by the treaty of Vienna, that the grand duchy of Tuscany should be given to Francis duke of Lorraine, in exchange for his hereditary dominions, which were ceded to France. Thus Tuscany was transferred from the Medici family to that of Lorraine. Leopold, brother to the emperor Joseph, was grand duke, under whose auspices commerce again flourished, and improvements in agriculture, and other useful arts, have been lately made in that country. All the princes of the house of Medici were merchants. Cosmo I. shared with the Venetians the immense profits of the Indian trade, before the Portuguese discovered a passage to Indostan, by the Cape of Good Hope. Convinced that commerce is not at all incompatible with nobility, his descendants cultivated it with the most assiduous care; and being always remarkable for their prudent œconomy, they were, beyond comparison, the richest princes in Italy. At the same time they were patrons of industry and arts, very attentive to what might promote the happiness of their subjects, and omitted nothing that had a tendency to engage foreigners of merit to settle among them.

We have already taken occasion to speak of the rise and decline of the papal authority; and therefore, to avoid repetition, shall only remark here, that ignorance, the parent of bigotry and superstition, joined with other causes, amazingly increased the power and tyranny of the Roman pontiffs; and ecclesiastical pride was carried to its greatest height. The pope claimed a divine power, which raised him as much above other princes, as those princes are above their people. This claim, together with the title of Holiness, founded on a long prescription, could not fail of exciting the highest veneration in the minds of an ignorant and bigotted people, who believed them real. Leo X. by encouraging learning, undermined the foundation of papal authority; and the reformation shook the structure. At present the temporal princes, who still profess the Roman-Catholic religion, seem to be shaking off the galling yoke their predecessors were subject to, and to be recovering from those pious delusions, which had for many centuries hoodwinked the greatest part of Christendom. The pope has sent a vehement memorial to most European courts against the conduct of the French convention in resuming Avignon, and the comtat of Venaisin; but the pontiff's memorials are now as little regarded as his bulls; and the papal power is falling with increasing velocity.

NAPLES was probably first peopled from Greece, and thence called Magna Græcia. In this state it continued till subdued by the Romans; and on the decline of that power, in the fifth century, the Eastern em-
peror

peror possessed himself of one part of the kingdom of Naples, and the Goths of the other. The Lombards dispossessed the Goths of their part, and continued masters of it, till they were driven out by Charlemagne, about the year 800. In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Saracens subdued part of Naples; but were expelled by the Normans under Tancred, who, with the assistance of the Greeks already settled there, established a most respectable monarchy, flourishing in arts and arms, while the rest of Europe was covered with the veil of monkish ignorance, and religious bigotry. The heirs of Tancred enjoyed the kingdom till the year 1166; when, by the intrigues of the Roman pontiff, the crown was transferred to the French, and the earl of Anjou placed upon the throne.

The posterity of the last-mentioned prince continued in possession of the crown till the year 1504, when they were driven out by the Spaniards, whose government was so oppressive, that the people revolted, and being headed by Masaniello, a young fisherman, their success was so alarming, that the haughty Spaniards were obliged to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the people in their former liberties. This revolt being terminated, the Spaniards continued in possession of Naples till the year 1707, when they were driven out by the Imperialists, and the kingdom of Naples was confirmed to the emperor Charles VI. by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. But in the year 1734, the French, Spaniards, and Sardinians, joining in a war against the emperor, Naples was subdued, and Don Carlos, son to the king of Spain, placed on the throne; and a peace being concluded in 1736, that prince was acknowledged king of the Two Sicilies, by the emperor. In the year 1759, Don Carlos ascended the throne of Spain, and it being found that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son Ferdinand. This prince, now Ferdinand IV. was born in 1751, and married in 1765 to Maria-Carolina-Louisa, archduchess of Austria, sister to the emperor of Germany, by whom he hath issue, 1. Maria-Theresa-Caroline, born June 6, 1772; 2. Louisa-Maria-Amelia, born July 28, 1773; 3. Mary-Anne-Josepha, born 1775; 4. Francis Janvier, born 1777; and, 5. Mary-Christina, born in 1779.

With respect to the Milanese, that delightful country experienced various changes: the Viscontis were succeeded by the Guleozos and the Sforzas; but it fell into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. That crown kept possession of it till 1706, when the French were driven out of Italy by the Imperialists. In 1743 they were dispossessed of it; but when the emperor ceded Naples and Sicily to the late king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, whose viceroy now governs it.

Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Aus-

tria, in whose possession it now is, the last duke dying without male issue; but in 1748 Guastalla was separated from it, and made part of the duchy of Parma, whose first duke was natural son to pope Paul II. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see by pope Julius II. in 1545. The descendants of the Farnese family terminated in the late queen-dowager of Spain, whose son, his late Catholic majesty, obtained that duchy, which, together with Placentia, are now held by his nephew.

When the Goths, and other northern nations, invaded Italy in the fifth century, the inhabitants of Padua, and other cities on the continent, fled for safety to the neighbouring isles, and laid the foundation of the Venetian republic. Secluded by their situation from the continent, they turned their thoughts to trade and navigation, and soon became a very formidable power at sea. Their conquests were amazing; and being principally possessed of the lucrative commerce of the Indies, soon became the richest people of Europe. Envious of their success, and desirous of sharing in the treasures of the East, several leagues were formed against them by foreign powers, by which they were more than once reduced to the brink of ruin, but were always saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. The Turks, by degrees, deprived them of their most valuable possessions on the continent; and so late as the year 1715, they lost the Morea. Since the peace of Passarowitz, concluded in 1718, the Venetians have wisely refrained from embarking in any of the contests that have drenched the fields of Europe with blood.

The principal armorial bearings and orders of knighthood in Italy are as follows:

The pope, as sovereign prince of the Ecclesiastical State, bears for his escutcheon, gules, consisting of a long head-cape, Or, surmounted with a cross, pearly and garnished with three royal crowns, and also St. Peter's two keys, placed in saltier.—Arms of Tuscany, Or, five roundels, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three fleur-de-lis, Or.—The arms of Venice, azure,—a lion winged, sejant, Or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent.—Those of Genoa, argent, a cross, gules, with a crown closed for the island of Corsica; and for supporters, two griffins, Or.—Of Naples, azure, semée of fleur-de-lis, Or, with a label of five points, gules.—In Sardinia, there is an order of knighthood, called the Annunciade, or order of Annunciation, instituted in 1355 by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes against the infidels. The motto of this order is FERT, being the four initial letters of *Fortitudo ejus Rhodum tenuit*, "His bravery preserved Rhodes." The collar of the order is composed of golden roses, enamelled red and white, with lover's knots of the same. To the

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end of the middle is pendent the badge, which consists of three chains of gold encircling an oval, and disposed in knots: on the oval is represented the salutation of the Virgin Mary. The order of the Holy Ghost was founded by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand-master, and profess obedience, chastity, and poverty. Their revenue is estimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain strangers, relieve the poor, train up deserted children, &c. Their ensign is, a white patriarchal cross with twelve points sewed on their breast on the left side of a black mantle.—The order of St. George was instituted about the year 1460, by Frederic III. emperor of Germany, who dedicated it to St. George, tutelary saint and patron of Germany. The doge is perpetual grand-master. The badge, a plain cross enamelled, gules, pendent to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The cross is also embroidered on their cloaks. The order of St. Mark is usually conferred by the doge of Venice on eminent persons, or such as have done some signal service to the republic; the pension annexed to it is 1000 ducats per annum. The badge is a medal of gold, pendent to a gold chain: on one side is the emblem of St. Mark, a winged lion sejant with elevated wings, holding in his sinister paw a drawn sword erect, and in his right an open book with the words, *Pax tibi, Marce Evangelista meus*, "Peace be with thee, my Evangelist Mark." On the reverse is the portrait of the reigning doge, with the image of St. Mark delivering a standard to him.—The order of St. Stephen was instituted in the year 1561, by Cosmo of Medicis, first grand-duke of Tuscany, in memory of a victory which secured to him the sovereignty of that province: he and his successors were to be grand-masters. The knights wear a red cross with right angles, orled, Or, on the left side of their habit, and on their mantle. It is a religious and military order; the knights are allowed to marry, and must make proof of their nobility of four descents.—The order of St. Lazarus was instituted in the year 1572, by Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, who revived and united the obsolete order of St. Maurice to it; which was confirmed by the pope, on condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks. The badge of the order is a cross pometté, white, upon a cross of eight points, green, and is worn pendent to a green ribband.—The order of St. Januarius was instituted in July 1738, by the late king of Spain when king of Naples. The badge of the order is a cross of eight points enamelled, white, edged with gold, and in the centre is a bishop, holding in his left hand a book and crozier, and below his waist is this motto, *In sanguine scdus*, "The covenant is in blood:" on the reverse is a book, on which are two red pillars, surmounted with palms, enamelled in their proper colours. The knights wear a badge of the order, pendent to a broad red ribband worn scarf-wise, and a gold star of eight points with fleur-de-lis at the angles embroidered on their centre garment. They

must prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries: their number is limited to 30. St. Januarius is the patron.

The gold coins in Italy are, the sequin or chequin of Venice, worth 9s. 7d. The old Italian pistole, worth 16s. 7d. The double ducat of Genoa, Venice, and Florence, worth 18s. 7d.; and the single ducat of the same places, worth 9s. 3d. The silver coins are, the ducat of Venice and Naples, worth 3s. 4d. The new ducat of Venice, worth 1s. 8d. The ducat of Florence or Leghorn, worth 5s. 4d. The teston of Rome, worth 1s. 6d. The tarin, worth 8d. and the curlin, worth 4d.

CHAP. XXIX.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Produce, Mountains, Mines, Rivers and Lakes, Antiquities and Curiosities, Cities and Chief Towns, Islands belonging to it, &c.

THE European part of Turkey is situated between the 17th and 40th deg. of east long. and between the 36th and 49th of north lat. being about 1000 miles in length, and 730 in breadth. It is bounded by Russia, Poland, and Slavonia, on the north; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the east; by the Mediterranean on the south; and by the same sea, together with the Venetian and Austrian territories, on the west. Its divisions, subdivisions, and chief towns, are as follow:

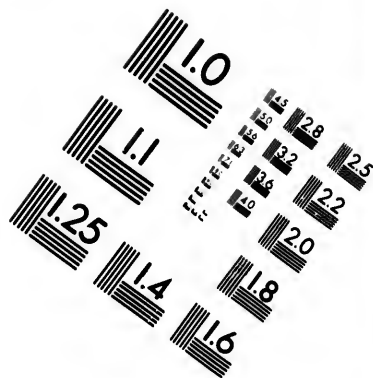
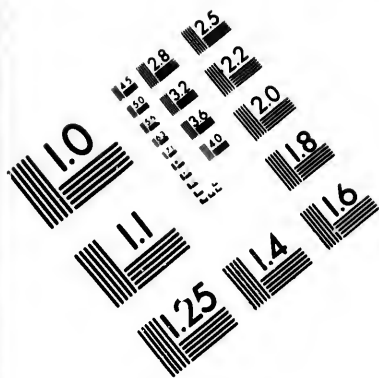
On the north coast of the Black Sea, are the provinces of Crim and Little Tartary, the ancient Taurica Chersonese, ch. towns Precop, Brachiferia, Kassa; Budziac Tartary, ch. town Oczakow; containing 38,200 sq. miles.

North of the Danube are the provinces of Bessarabia, ch. towns Bender, Belgorod, containing 8000 sq. miles; Moldavia, anciently Dacia, ch. towns Jazy, Choczim, Falczin, containing 26,000 sq. miles; Wallachia, another part of the ancient Dacia, ch. town Tergovisc, containing 10,500 sq. miles.

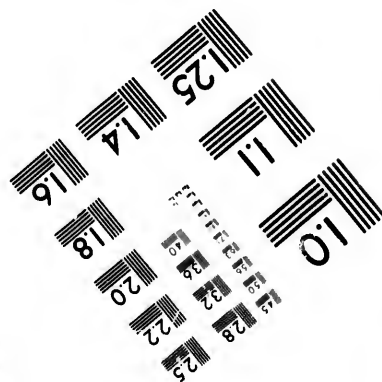
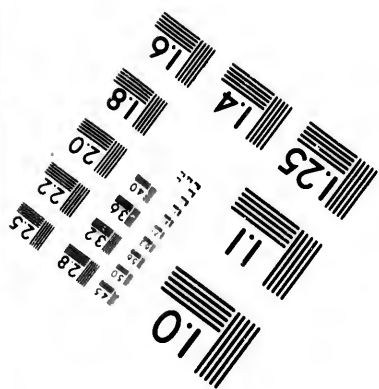
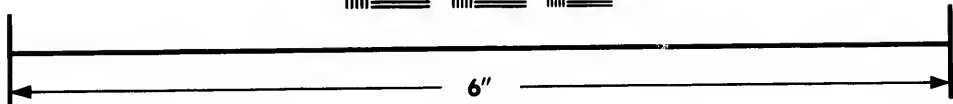
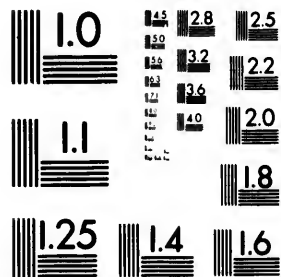
South of the Danube are Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mysia, ch. towns Widin, Nicopoli, Siliftria, Scopia, containing 17,000 sq. miles; Servia, the west part of Mysia, ch. towns Belgrade, Semendria, Nissa, containing 22,570 sq. miles; Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum, ch. town Seraio, containing 8,640 sq. miles.

On the Bosphorus and Hellespont, Romania, anciently Thrace, ch. towns Constantinople, Adrianople, Philippopoli, containing 21,200 sq. miles.





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South of mount Rhodope, or Argentum, the north part of ancient Greece, Macedonia, ch. towns Strymon, Contella, containing 18,980 sq. miles; Thessaly, now Janna, ch. town Salon, ch. containing 4650 sq. miles; Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia, ch. towns Athens, Thebes, Lepanto, containing 3426 square miles.

On the Adriatic sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum, Epirus, ch. town Chimæra, containing 7955 sq. miles; Albania, ch. towns Burtinto, Durazzo, Dulcigno, containing 6375 sq. miles; Dalmatia, ch. town Zara, containing 4560 sq. miles; Ragusa republic, ch. towns Narenza, Ragusa, containing 430 sq. miles.

In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are Corinthia, Argos, Sparta, Olympia, where the Games were held, Arcadia, and Elis, ch. towns Corinth, Argos, Napoli de Romania, Lacedæmon, now Mistra, on the river Eurotus, Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus, Modon, Coron, Partas, Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus, containing 7220 sq. miles.

The air in this part of Turkey is naturally healthy, but the plague is frequently brought hither from Egypt, and commits terrible devastation among the inhabitants; this calamity is partly ascribed to the noxious vapours from the neighbouring countries, and partly from the indolence and uncleanness of the Turks, who, insatuated with the belief of predestination, take no measures to guard against its approach. The soil is beyond expression fertile, even in places where it has never been cultivated; and is adapted to both the purposes of agriculture and grassery. The seasons here are regular and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest antiquity.

Thessaly, in Turkey, is famous for a fine breed of horses, which are equally remarkable for their service and their beauty. The black cattle, especially in Greece, are extremely large; but the goats are the most useful animals to the inhabitants, who make great use both of their milk and flesh. The neighbourhood of Babadagi abounds in large eagles, the tails of which furnish the Turkish and Tartarian archers with the finest feathers for their arrows; and they are accordingly purchased at a prodigious price. In most of the districts of Greece, there are great numbers of partridges; and every part of Turkey in Europe produces plenty of tame fowl, and most species of game; but the Turkish Mahometans seldom eat much animal food. Most of the rivers likewise abound in fish. The natural luxuriance of the soil, with very little assistance from art, produces corn and other grain, excellent grass, coffee, pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, fine figs, olives, almonds, cotton, and various kinds of drugs, particularly rhubarb; all these productions are excellent in their kind.

The mountains in European Turkey have long been celebrated, but the principal part of them are now known by modern appellations. The mountains Olympus and Pindus, the latter of which is now called Mezzo Novo, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, famed for being consecrated to the Muses, still retains its original appellation. Mount Athos, now called Monte Santo; extends the whole length of a peninsula, which is seven Turkish miles, and stretches a considerable distance into the sea. There are twenty-two convents on this lofty mountain, besides a great number of cells and grottoes, with the habitations of no less than 6000 monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottoes, are not above twenty; the other monks are anchorites, or such as live in cells. Those Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are so far from being a slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &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 salts are many, and chiefly kept, which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common on this spot, that many of them live above 100 years. This mountain is so exceeding high, that on the top, as the ancients tell us, the sun-rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast. Besides these, there are the mountains Saha, Witofka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Those situated near the sea are pleasant and fertile, while the more inland are cold and barren. This country contains mines of gold, silver, iron, lead, &c. and quarries of the most beautiful marble.

The chief rivers in this country are, the Danube; the Save; the Niefer; the Nieper, or Boristhenes; and the Don, or Tanais. There are, besides these, a number of less considerable rivers. The strait of the Hellespont, which joins the sea of Marmora with the Archipelago; and the Bosphorus of Thrace, or passage into the Black Sea, are famous in history.

Lago di Scutari, in the province of Albania; Lago di Plavé, and Lago di Holti, both of which have a communication through the river Zem with Santari; the Stymphalis, in the province of Morea, was famous for its harpies, and ravenous birds, which frequented it; and the Peneus, for being the source of the river Styx, which the ancient poets termed the river of hell; are the most remarkable lakes. Medicinal waters and baths are very numerous in Turkey.

European Turkey, particularly Greece, may be considered as the storehouse of antiquities. The temple of Minerva at Athens, the temple of the eight Winds, and the lantern of Demosthenes, are still entire. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order. The

ruins

ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible on the Isthmus of Corinth; as are the ruins of the temple of Apollo at Castri. On the south side of Mount Parnassus, are some marble steps that descend to a running water, supposed to be the celebrated Castalian spring; and the niches in the rock, where statues were formerly placed, are still discernible. But among all the antique curiosities of this country, there are none exceeds the famous cave of Jupiter Trophonius, which is a square room, with a bench on each side of it, cut out of a rock, in Livadia, the ancient Bozotia. At the further end of this cavern is a round hole, scarcely big enough for a man to creep through, which is supposed to be the place from whence the oracles of this deity were delivered to his votaries.

The following are the most remarkable cities and towns in this country; viz.

CONSTANTINOPLE, situated in 41 deg. N. lat. and 21 E. long. is the capital of the whole Turkish empire, and the residence of the grand seigniors, it was built by the emperor Constantine the Great, who, in 330, made it the seat of the eastern part of the Roman empire. It continued in this state till 1453, when, after having sustained a siege of fifty-four years, it was taken by the Turks. It stands like old Rome on seven hills, commanding a beautiful and extensive prospect; and is most delightfully and advantageously situated, in form of a triangle, on a point of land washed by the sea of Marmora and the Hellespont on the south; by the Thracian Bosphorus, or strait of Constantinople on the east; and on the north is a very large and commodious harbour, formed by a canal from the Straights, extending inland towards the north-west; thus it has a communication by water with most parts of the empire. This city is uncommonly large, and when viewed at a distance has the appearance of an amphitheatre: but the streets are badly paved, narrow, dark, steep, and slippery. The houses are mean, being built of wood and mortar; they are however crowded with inhabitants, the number being computed at 8 or 900,000, three-fourths of whom are Greeks and Armenians. Here are twenty-two gates, six of which are towards the land, and the rest towards the sea; but the fortifications are antique and ruinous. The finest buildings are either without the city near the harbour, or in the most retired parts within the walls. At the point of the triangle, near the canal and harbour, stands the imperial palace or seraglio; which, together with the gardens, takes up a mile and a half in circuit; and may be styled rather a collection of several palaces and apartments joined together, according to the taste of the different emperors, than an uniform structure. The wall which surrounds the seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are nine gates belonging to it, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name

of the Porte, or the Sublime Porte, in all concerns of a public nature. The palaces of the present Turkish nobility have nothing remarkable on the outside, but within they are richly and elegantly decorated. The mosques, of which there are seven styled royal, are very handsome edifices. They stand singly, within a spacious enclosure, planted with lofty trees, and adorned with delightful fountains. Among these mosques the most magnificent is that of St. Sophia, once the metropolitan church of the Christians. It stands on an eminence opposite to the principal entrance of the imperial palace, and was built by the emperor Justinian, in the form of a Greek cross. This building is of such vast extent, that it is said an hundred thousand persons may, with ease, be contained in it at one time. It is two hundred and fifty-two feet long, and two hundred and twenty-eight broad. The dome, which covers almost the whole structure, rests externally on four prodigious towers, which have been added of late years to support it. The pavement, walls, and galleries, are all of marble, and it is likewise ornamented with a number of marble, porphyry, and Egyptian granite pillars; but there are no pictures or statues in either this or the other mosques. The annual revenue of St. Sophia is said to amount to thirty-two thousand pounds. The grand seignior repairs to it every Friday, but a Christian is scarce ever admitted. In this city are a great many Greek and Armenian churches, besides two or three for the Roman-Catholics, and one for the Lutherans, which was built by the Swedes.

There are some noble antiquities in and about Constantinople, particularly the ancient hippodrome, or place for horse-races. It is an oblong square, four hundred paces in length, and one hundred in width, adorned with three beautiful antique pillars, one of brass, and the other two of marble; one of the latter, which is of Theban marble, is of a quadrangular figure, terminating in a point, and filled with hieroglyphical inscriptions.

Security and good order reign in Constantinople in a very eminent degree; for upon a foreigner's taking a Janizary with him, he may view every part of the town unmolested. They likewise preserve the greatest decency in their mosques, no one presuming to hold discourse or shew the least mark of inattention. The circumference of this city, including the suburbs, is said to be twenty-four miles. The environs are extremely pleasant, especially along the Straights, being covered with towns, villages, seats, gardens, meadows, vineyards, and woods. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part is the Besestien, enclosed with walls, where the shops of merchants are excellently ranged. This city has frequently suffered by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets, and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In Aug. 1781, a fire broke out in the quarter near the harbour, which spreading into

other parts, about 10,000 houses were consumed, most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782.

While Constantinople continued in the possession of the Greek emperors, it had no equal; it was the only mart in Europe for the rich commodities of the East; it abounded in riches, in arts, in beautiful structures, and in manufactures. It is now little more than the shadow of its ancient greatness; though still, with regard to its situation, one of the finest cities in the world.

Scutaris stands opposite to the seraglio, on the Asian side, at the distance of about a mile and a half: it is adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasure-house of the grand seignior.

Adrianople, called by the Turks Edrene, is situated in a very fertile country on the river Maritz, by means of which, and other rivers, it carries on a very considerable traffic. The city is large, but the streets are remarkably dirty, the houses in general low, and built of wood and clay, a few indeed are of brick.

For the use of such of our readers as are acquainted with ancient history, we shall here describe the islands belonging to Turkey in Europe, being part of ancient Greece.

NEGROPONT, which was the ancient Eubœa, is situated on the eastern coast of Achaia, or Livadia, from which it is separated by a narrow channel, called the Euripus. It is about ninety miles in length, and twenty-five miles in breadth; and is supposed to have been formerly joined to the continent of Greece by an isthmus, as it is now by a bridge. This island produces corn, wine, oil, and fruit in great abundance, and some cattle. The principal places in it are Negropont, the capital, and Castell Rosso; the first has a very spacious harbour, where a fleet of galleys are generally kept in readiness to sail against the pirates and the Maltese. The tides on its coasts are very irregular, frequently flowing thirteen times in twenty-four hours, and ebbing as often.

STALIMENE, anciently Lemnos, is situated in the north part of the Ægean sea, opposite the strait of the Dardanelles, forming nearly a square of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. It yields an abundance of corn and wine; but its principal production is a mineral earth known by the appellation of Terra Lemnia, or Sigillata, from a seal the Turks put upon every piece that is sold to foreigners. Notwithstanding this drug is so positively asserted to be an earth, and dug in this island, it has been long known to be a vegetable production; and it has lately been discovered to be the pulp of the fruit of a tree called Baobab, growing near Senegal in Africa. The inhabitants sell this pulp, when thoroughly dry, to the Arabs, who distribute it into different parts of the Turkish empire, where it is made up in cakes, sealed, and exported to Europe, under the name of sealed earth, or earth of

Lemnos. The principal places in this island are Stalimene, the capital, and Cachino.

TENEDOS, about two leagues from the coast of the Lesser Phrygia, opposite to old Troy, is in general rocky and barren, but contains some fruitful vallies, and the Muscadine wines produced there are greatly esteemed. It has one large town of the same name with the island, and an harbour defended by two castles. This is the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security, as related by Virgil.

SCYRO, anciently Scyros, is situated about twenty-five miles from Negropont, is nearly sixty miles in circumference, and full of rugged barren rocks. It contains a small town of the same name, a safe harbour, several villages, and some quarries of marble.

LESBOS, or Mytilene, is a considerable island, situated to the south of Tenedos, opposite the coast of Lydia. It produces plenty of corn, wine, fruit, and figs; cattle also abound here. The capital is now called Castro, or Castri. It has an excellent harbour, defended by a strong castle, in which is kept a constant garrison. This island is famous for several remains of antiquity, and likewise for being the native place of a number of philosophers and poets, particularly the inimitable Sappho.

SCIO, formerly Chios, lies about eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about an hundred miles in circumference. This island is in general mountainous and stoney, but produces excellent wine, oil, silk, and a variety of gums, particularly that called mastich, greatly used by the Turks. The chief town is Scio, which has an harbour and citadel, wherein a garrison is kept; and there are about thirty villages besides the capital, all well peopled. The number of the inhabitants is near 113,000, of whom 100,000 are Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3000 Latins; who carry on manufactures of silk, velvet, and gold and silver stuffs. The women of this, and most of the other Greek islands, are remarkable for their beauty and symmetry, but not famous for chastity: even the Greek nuns are said to be sufficiently lavish of their favours. None the tragic poet, Theopompus the historian, and Theocritus the sophist, were all natives of this island. The inhabitants also contend with several other places for the honour of having Homer for their countryman; and they even shew strangers a little square house, at the foot of mount Epos, which they pretend was his school. The Greeks, residing on this island, pay a capitation-tax according to their rank.

SAMOS, almost opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad. It is exceedingly mountainous, a chain, consisting chiefly of white marble, running through the whole island; but they are covered with a staple of good earth, so that the country is very fertile, producing delicious Muscadine wine, silk, oil, fruits, honey, saffron, fine wool, an excellent sort of onions and garlic, various kinds of minerals and drugs, a fine red bole, emery,

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oker, and a black inspid earth of great use in dyeing. The principal place in the island is Samos, which has a good harbour. This place gave birth to Pythagoras, and is now inhabited by between 12 and 14,000 Greeks, but subject to the Turks.

PATMOS, south of Samos, is a small barren and dreary island, only remarkable for having a convenient haven, and for being the place where, we are told, St. John wrote his Apocalypse. There is a convent dedicated to that apostle, and, near it, is his grotto, the entrance to which is about seven feet high, with a square pillar in the centre. On the top there is a cleft in the solid rock, through which the monks pretend the Holy Ghost dictated the Revelation to St. John.

DELLOS, the chief of the Cyclades islands, about which the rest form a circle, is situated south of the islands Mycone and Trife, north of Paros, and nearly midway between the continents of Asia and Europe, being about eight miles in circuit. It is now almost deserted, but was formerly very populous, and much frequented by strangers, on account of its being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, who had both magnificent temples erected here, the ruins of which are still discernible.

PAROS is situated between the islands of Lucia and Melos, and is one of the smallest among the Cyclades. It is well cultivated, and produces wheat, barley, pulse, scamum, wine, cotton, cattle, and game. This island has always been celebrated for the beauty and inimitable whiteness of its marble; and in the walls of Parochia, its chief town; there are fine marble columns lying on the ground; besides which, there lie, in several parts of it, architraves, pedestals, and other exquisite pieces of carved marble, the remains of ancient Paros, on the ruins of which this town was built. It contains some good roads and harbours; and is famous for being the native place of Phidias and Praxiteles, two of the greatest statuaries the world ever produced.

CERIGO, anciently Cythera, lies between Candia and the Morea: it is about sixty miles in circumference, but being rocky and mountainous, produces little corn, wine, or oil. This island was formerly consecrated to Venus, and considered as her favourite residence.

SANTORIN, formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera, is one of the most southern islands in the Archipelago; it is in a manner covered with pumice-stones; notwithstanding which, through the industry of the inhabitants, it yields barley, wine, cotton, and some wheat. One third of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000 in number, are of the Latin church, and subject to a Popish bishop.

RHODES, situated between 28 deg. east lon. and 36 deg. 20 min. north lat. about 20 miles south-west of the continent of the Lesser Asia, is nearly 60 miles in length, and 25 in breadth: it abounds in fruits, excellent wines, and all manner of provisions, corn excepted, which the inhabitants are obliged to import from the adjacent country. The capital, of the same name, is still a handsome city, though much inferior

No. 43-

to what it was formerly: it enjoys a convenient port, dock, and arsenal, and a squadron of galleys is always kept there to cruise against the corsairs. Here stood the famous Colossus, justly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. It was erected at the entrance of the harbour, having a foot placed on each side of it, so that the ships sailed between its legs. This enormous image was one hundred and thirty-five feet high; the thumbs were so large, that two men could hardly embrace them; and the face represented the sun, to which it was dedicated. In one of the hands was placed a lantern, for the direction of mariners, during the night. Rhodes is even, at this time, the mart for all the merchandizes of the Mediterranean, particularly camblets, tapestry, cotton, silks, wine, wax, raisins, and soap. From the year 1301 to 1522, this island was subject to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem; but, under Solyman the Magnificent, it was then reduced by the Turks, who obliged the knights to retire to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, also called Hecatompolis, from its hundred cities, for which it was so renowned, is situated between 35 and 36 deg. of north lat. at nearly an equal distance from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and is about 200 miles long, and 60 broad. Many parts of it are mountainous, rocky, and barren, while others yield the most excellent wines, fruit, corn, honey, wax, silk, and wool. Mount Ida, so celebrated by the poets, stands in the centre of the island, and is covered a great part of the year with snow. Lethe, the river of oblivion, was likewise one of its rivers, but now nothing more than a torpid stream. Candia, the capital, possesses no remains of its former grandeur: however, it will always be famous for the siege it sustained from the Turks, who invested the town in 1645, but could not subdue it till 1669, and even then the garrison surrendered on the most honourable terms. During this siege the place had been stormed 56 times, in the course of which the Venetians lost upwards of 80,000 men, and the Turks, above 180,000. This island was formerly the seat of legislature to all Greece.

CYPRUS is situated in the Levant sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is about 150 miles in length, and 70 in breadth. The soil, where properly cultivated, is very fruitful in corn, wine, oil, cotton, silk, and a great variety of game. The Venetians possessed themselves of it in the year 1480; but were driven out by the Turks, about the middle of the sixteenth century, who have been masters of it ever since. Richard I, king of England, subdued it in revenge for the treachery of its king; after which the royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who are still in possession of that empty honour. The present inhabitants are an assemblage of Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Armenians, with some few Latins, Cophts, Maronites, and Nestorians, who all enjoy the free exercise of their religion. Cyprus, while in the hands of the Christians, was a rich and populous island, but,

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by the oppression of the Turks, it is depopulated and impoverished to such a degree, that the revenue arising from it does not exceed 1250*l.* per ann. Nicosia, the present capital, is a small but handsome town; and Famagusta, the ancient capital, has an exceeding good harbour. This island was formerly famous for the worship of Venus; and in the town of Paphos, then the seat of pleasure and corruption, though now dwindled into a little mean sea-port, are the remains of a magnificent temple, dedicated to that goddess. The present ladies of that island are not degenerated from their ancestors; they are still devotees to Venus.

The island of SAPIENZA, STRIVALI, CEPHALONIA, SANTA MAURA, ISOLA DEL COMPARE, the ancient ITHACA, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses, and several others of less note, are in the Ionian sea, belong to the Venetians, and are in general fruitful.

Zante and Corfu also belong to the Venetians; who are said to concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of them. The first has a populous capital of the same name, and carries on a considerable trade; and Corfu, the capital of the latter, is a place of great strength: all the rest of these islands are, in general, fruitful. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, mostly Greeks, and of a more hospitable disposition than those of Corfu, whose number is estimated at 50,000.

C H A P. XXX.

F R A N C E.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Rivers, Produce, Learning, Trade, Inhabitants, Cities, &c.

THIS extensive and powerful kingdom, being the nearest to England, claims our peculiar attention. Its name is taken from the Franks, a restless and enterprising German nation, who came from Franconia in the fifth century, conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to suppress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty. It is situated between the 5th deg. of west, and 8th deg. east long. and between the 49d and 51st deg. of north lat. being nearly 620 miles in length, and 510 in breadth. It is bounded by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, on the east; by the Bay of Biscay, on the west; by the English channel and the Netherlands, on the north; and by the Mediterranean and Pyrenean mountains which divide it from Spain, on the south.

The dimensions of the several parts of this kingdom, are distinctly specified in the following table of Mr. Templeman, who has thus divided it:

Ancient Division of FRANCE under the MONARCHY.

NAMES OF PROVINCES.		Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	PRINCIPAL CITIES.
France.....	Orleanois.....	230	180	22,950	Orleans.
	Guienne.....	216	120	12,800	Bordeaux.
	Gascoigne.....	125	90	8,800	Aux, or Augh.
	Languedoc.....	200	115	13,175	Thoulouse.
	Lyonnois.....	175	130	12,500	Lyons.
	Champagne.....	140	110	10,000	Rheims.
	Bretagne.....	170	105	9,100	Rennes.
	Normandy.....	155	85	8,200	Rouen.
	Provence.....	95	92	6,800	Aix.
	Burgundy.....	150	86	6,700	Dijon.
	Dauphiné.....	107	90	5,820	Grenoble.
	Isle of France.....	100	85	5,200	PARIS.
	Franche Comté.....	100	60	4,000	Besançon.
Netherlands...	Picardy.....	120	87	3,650	Amiens.
	Roussillon.....	50	44	1,400	Perpignan.
	Artois.....	63	32	990	Arras.
	Hainault.....	57	22	800	Valenciennes.
	Flanders.....	58	22	760	Lille.
Germany.....	Luxemburg.....	48	13	292	Thionville.
	Lorraine.....	—	—	2,500	Metz.
	Alsace.....	95	30	2,250	Straßburgh.
Total.....		138,687	

The island of Corsica is to be added to these; but the city of Avignon, with the Venaissin, was ceded to the Pope, in 1774.

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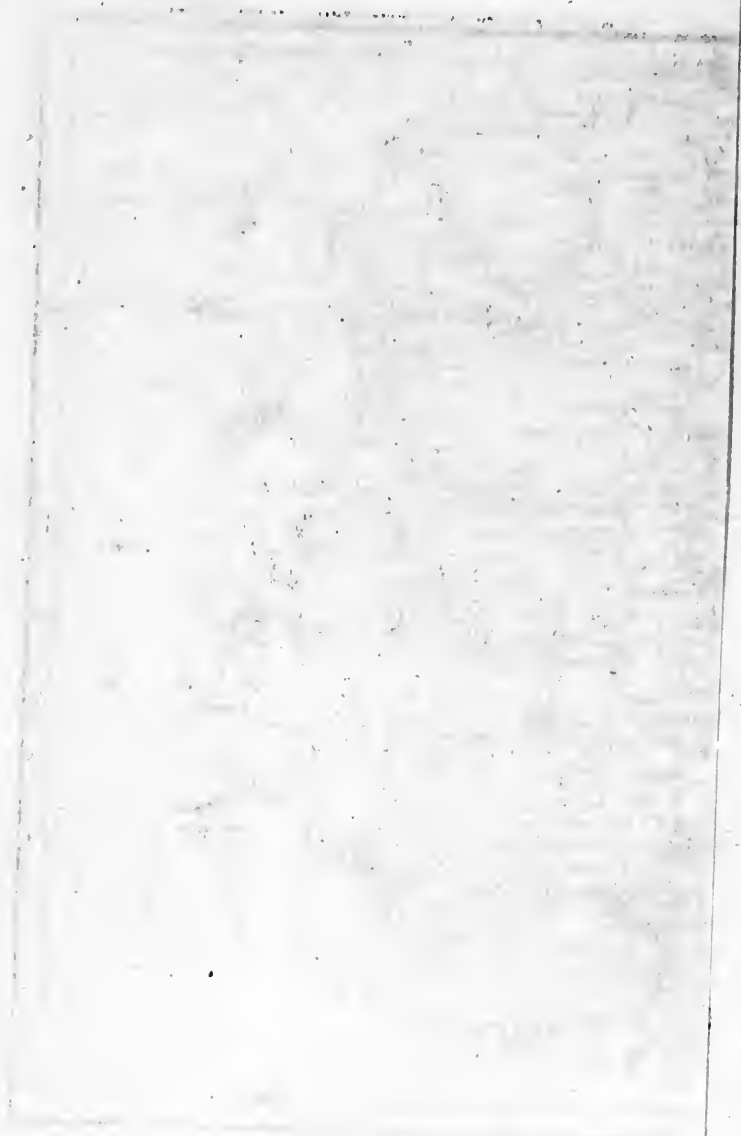
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FRANCE, which is nearly a Square, is now divided by the National Assembly, into 83 Departments, including Corsica. Every Department is subdivided into Districts, in all 547; and each District into Cantons. The following are the Chief Towns of each Department, and also the Districts. The new Department of Savoy, which should form the 84th, is not added, as being at present uncertain whether it will continue its Connection with this Kingdom. The whole are described in the following

T A B L E.

DEPARTMENTS.		CHIEF TOWNS.	INLAND DEPARTMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.		
Isle of France.	Paris	Pa. f N. L. 48° 50'	Lorraine..	Moselle	Mentz	
	Seine and Ouse	ris } E. L. 2° 25'		Vosges	Epiana	
	Seine and Marne	Verfailles		Meurte	Nanci	
	Oise	Melun		Meuse	Barleduc	
	Aisne	Beauvais		Alsace....	Lower Rhine	Straßburg
	Somme, Picardy,	Laon			Upper Rhine	Colmar
	Cal. Streights,	Amiens		Champagne.	Aube	Troyes
	Artois	Arras			Marne	Chaalons
	North Flanders	Lille			Upper Marne	Chaumont
	Normandy....	Lower Seine		Rouen	Ardennes	Mezieres
Calvados		Caen	Doubs	Besançon		
Orne		Alençon	Jura	Dole		
Eure		Evreux	Upper Soanne	Vesoul		
Channel		Coutance	Cote D'Or	Dijon		
Brittany	Isle and Vilaine	Rennes	Burgundy.	Soanne and Loir	Macon	
	Lower Loire	Nantes		Yonne	Auxerre	
	Finistère	Brest	Dauphiné.	Isere	Grenoble	
	North coast	St. Brieuc		Drome	Romans	
Morbihan	Vannes	Upper Alps		Gap		
Poitou.....	Vienne	Poitiers	Ardeche	Privas		
	Vendee	Fontenai-compté	Rhone and Loire	Lyons		
	Two Sevres	Niort	Puy de Dome	Clermont		
	Lower Charente	Santes	Cantal	St. Fleur		
	Gironde	Bourdeaux	Upper Loire, <i>Vl.</i>	Le Puy		
Guienne.....	Upper Vienne	Limoges	Coreze, <i>Limosin</i>	Tulle		
	Lot and Garonne	Agen	Creuse, <i>Marche</i>	Gueret		
	Avieron	Rodez	Charente, <i>Aug.</i>	Angoulême		
	Dordogne	Perigeux	Allier, <i>Bourbon</i>	Moulines		
	Lot	Cahors	Berry	Cher	Bourges	
Gascony	Auch	Tarbe		Ain	Bourg	
	Upper Pyrenes	Pau		Indre	Chateauroux.	
	Lower Pyrenes	Marfan	Indre & Loire, <i>To.</i>	Tours		
	Landis	Perpignan	Sarte	Le Mans		
Languedoc....	East Pyrenes	Toulouse	Mayenne	Laval		
	Upper Garonne	Nismes	Maire and Loire	Angers		
	Gard	Montpelier	Loiret	Orleans		
	Herault	Foix	Orleans...	Eure and Loire	Chartres	
	Arriege	Castres		Loir and Cher	Blois	
	Tarne	Carcassone		Nievre, <i>Nivernois</i>	Nevers	
Provence.....	Aude	Mende	Corsica island	Bastia.		
	Lozere	Aix	<i>Avignon and Venaischin are in this department.</i>			
	Mouths of Rhone	Toulon				
	Var	Digne				
	Lower Alps					



The air of France, particularly that of the interior parts, is in general mild and wholesome; but it has been lately represented, by some, as not nearly so salubrious as is pretended; and it must be acknowledged that the French have been but too successful in giving the inhabitants of Great-Britain false prepossessions in favour of their own country: it must indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and settled than that in England. In the northern provinces where the spring is chiefly of wood, the winters are intensely cold; but towards the south it is so mild, that many sickly and aged persons retire thither from England at that season, to avoid the rigour of our climate.

The quality of the soil varies greatly according to its situation. The upper part of Provence is adapted for the growth of corn; and the lower for high-flavoured fruits. The soil of Burgundy is so rich, that it has been called the mother of wine and corn; and Picardy, that of the national magazine for corn, flax, and fruit. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than those of England; but neither the pasturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure, and the soil barely produces as much rye and chestnuts as are sufficient for the subsistence of the miserable inhabitants.

No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniences of life. The French have of late endeavoured to supply the loss arising from their precarious title to their lands, by instituting academies of agriculture, and proposing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but these expedients, however successful they may be in particular instances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruits of his labour.

The principal mountains in France, or on its borders, are the Alps, which divide it from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain; Vauze, which divides Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Comté from Switzerland; and Mount Der, in the province of Auvergne. In Dauphiné there is that called the Inaccessible Mountain, being an inverted pyramid broader at the top than at the bottom; and Mount Bresier, situated near the Alps, often breaks out into flames.

The chief rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhône, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire rises in the Cevennes, and, running a course of north and north-west, falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Nantz. The Rhône rises in Switzerland, and flows in a south-west course to Lyons, after which it runs due south till it falls into the Mediterranean, being joined in its passage by the Saone, and other rivers of less note. The Rhône is always highest in summer, which is attributed to the melting of the snow upon the Alps. The Ga-

ronne has its source in the Pyrenees, and, after traversing a north-east course, falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bourdeaux. The Seine rises in Burgundy, and, running to the north-west, falls into the English-Channel between Havre-de-Grace and Harfleur, having in its way visited Troyes, Paris, and Rouen.—Among the smaller rivers are the Saone; the Charente, which rises near Havre-de-Grace, and discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay; the Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English-Channel below Abbeville; the Adour, which running from east to west through Gascoigne, falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne; and the Var, which has its source in the Alps, and, running south, divides France from Italy, after which it falls into the Mediterranean west of Nice.—See a further account in our description of the cities, towns, &c.

There are few considerable lakes in France: there is one at Illaire, in Auvergne; a second at La Bessie, which, if a stone is cast into it, makes a noise nearly as loud as thunder; and a third on the top of a hill near Alegre, which, according to vulgar report, is bottomless.

The number of navigable rivers with which France is watered, together with the noble canals by which these rivers are united, and the navigation extended, have been productive of advantages unknown in many other kingdoms, and reflect more honour on Louis XIV. than all his victories. The canal of Languedoc was begun in 1666, and completed in 1680; it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the public, and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial. The great use of these canals in Picardy will appear when it is observed, that the river Somme, which rises above St. Quentin, passes by that city, Ham, Peranne, Brai, Corbie, Amiens, Pequigny, Abbeville, and St. Valori, where it falls into the sea. The river Oise has its source in Thierache, passes by Guise, La Fere, Chauny, Noyon, Compeigne, Creil, Beaumont, Pontoise, and then discharges itself into the Seine above Conflans-Saint-Honore.

The most remarkable springs and mineral-waters are, 1. The fresh well near Vesaul in Burgundy, about 15 fathoms wide at the top, and 20 deep; but sometimes it is so agitated as to overflow instantaneously, and produce a rapid stream. 2. The burning spring at Sallenage. 3. A spring at the Roqueburne in Lan-

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Languedoc, on the waters of which swims a kind of oil,
of a very salutary nature, both in internal and external
applications. 4. A spring near Aigne in Auvergne,
which boils violently, and makes a noise resembling
that of water thrown on lime; it is insipid to the taste,
but of a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of
it die immediately. The waters of Sultzbach in Al-
sace are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the
stone. At Bagueis, not far from Bareges, are several
wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort
as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Ferges,
in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral-waters,
and those at St. Armand cure the gravel and obstruc-
tions.

France abounds in marble and free-stone; in Lan-
guedoc there are some veins of gold and silver, as well
as turquoise, the only gem this kingdom produces;
Alsace contains silver and copper; Brittany has mines
of iron, tin, lead, and copper; and in other parts are
found alabaster, jasper, coal, chalk, oker, &c. At
Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melt-
ing of metals, and for dyeing, particularly the best
drab cloths; in the province of Anjou are several
quarries of fine white stone; and at Laverdau, in Co-
minges, there is a mine of chalk.

The roots, herbs, and other vegetable productions of
France, are much finer than those of England, and con-
sequently their soups, salads, &c. are superior to ours.
The principal objects of cultivation among the French
are their vines, and the excellency of the wines they
produce is universally acknowledged, in particular the
wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony,
and those called Hermitage, Frontinac, and Pontacke,
are much admired, not only for their pleasant taste, but
salubrious qualities.

Elm, ash, and oak, are produced in France, but the
latter is not so good as that which grows in England,
and the interior provinces are now greatly in want of
wood for fuel. Hemp and flax also abound in this king-
dom. The province of Gostmois yields great quantities
of saffron. At Rhé, Rochfort, and their vicinity, great
quantities of salt are made. The herb called kali, which
grows in Languedoc, furnishes abundance of pot-ashes,
and prunes and capers are produced near Bourdeaux and
Toulon. The French were formerly famous for hor-
ticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the
English, both in the management and disposition of
their gardens. The oppressed farmer had very little en-
couragement in France to apply himself to the practice
of agriculture; so that, even in plentiful years, the
lands yield little more than is necessary for the sub-
sistence of the inhabitants; and a bad harvest, especially
in time of war, is attended with the most distressing
scarcity.

The horses, black cattle, and sheep of France, are
far inferior to those of England, and the wool is not
so fine, but the hair and skin of the shamois, or moun-
tain goat, are superior to ours. There are few other

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animals, either wild or tame, in France, but what
are common to England, wolves excepted; and these
ferocious creatures do a great deal of mischief, and are
much dreaded by those persons who reside near woods
or forests. It is here necessary to describe the wolf,
which is the largest and fiercest animal of the dog spe-
cies, and partakes somewhat of the nature of a dog.
He has a wild look, shining eyes, sharp teeth, short
neck, and a blackish colour. He bears hunger long,
has a howling voice, oblong blunt muzzle, short ears,
and a thick tail.

The marine productions of France and those of Eng-
land are alike; but the former are not so plentifully
supplied with salt-water fish, even on the sea-coasts.

The forests in France are very extensive, the chief of
which are, that of Orleans, which contains fourteen
thousand acres of wood, which are of various kinds,
such as oak, elm, ash, &c. The forest of Fontain-
bleau, nearly as large as that of Orleans; and one
near Morchismoir, wherein the trees are remarkably
tall and straight. The woods in this kingdom are also
very large and numerous, but are situated so far from
water carriage, that they are of very little utility,
which is of the utmost advantage to a nation where
wood forms the principal fuel; and, it is said, that the
internal parts of France begin to feel the want of firing
greatly.

Many calculations have been given by various writ-
ters, respecting the number of people in France: some
pretend they do not exceed thirteen millions; others
reckon them at fifteen millions; but they who com-
pute them at 20 millions, seem to be nearest the truth. It
has been supposed that France was much more populous
before the revocation of the edict of Nantes by
Lewis XIV. since which period great numbers of the
natives, particularly manufacturers, have left the king-
dom, and settled in foreign parts. This fatal step in
politics, together with the almost perpetual wars in
which that kingdom has been engaged, and the emi-
gration to her colonies, have drained France of great
numbers of her inhabitants.

The French, in their persons, are rather lower and
more slender than their neighbours; but they are well
proportioned, and very nimble and active. They are
of a fallow complexion; and the ladies more remark-
able for the sprightliness of their wit, than the charms
of their beauty.

"The genius and manners, says a late writer, of the
French, are well known, and have been the subject of
many able pens. A national vanity is their predomi-
nant character, and they are perhaps the only people
ever heard of who have derived great utility from a
national weakness. It supports them under misfor-
tunes, and impels them to actions to which true
courage inspires other nations. This character, how-
ever, is conspicuous only in the higher and middling
ranks, where it produces excellent officers; for the com-
mon soldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroism.

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Hence it hath been observed, with great justice, of the French and English, that the French officers will lead if their soldiers will follow, and the English soldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This same principle of vanity is of admirable use to the government, because the lower ranks, when they see their superiors elated, as in the time of a former war with England, under the most disgraceful losses, never think that they are unfortunate; thence proceeds the passive submission of the French under all their calamities. This national vanity is in nothing more discernible than in their writings, in which, when they mention the inhabitants of any other kingdom or state, they take care not to omit some compliment to their own superiority. They plume themselves upon their courtesy, and fancy that politeness is confined to the natives of their country only. They may be characterized as being well mannered, rather than well bred. They are indiscriminately complaisant and officious, but they seldom know how to adjust their behaviour to the situation and character of those they converse with. All is a repeated round of politeness, which for want of discernment becomes affected, often ridiculous, and always disgusting to sentimental people. The most abject flattery and dissimulation cost them nothing; they even value themselves upon them, as constituting the essence of politeness. Sincerity is therefore not to be expected in their plausible professions; nor is candour to be hoped for from their most solemn promises; though a very judicious and experienced writer has attempted to palliate this part of their character, with some appearance of reason: "The French, says he, have been censured for insincerity; but this is a fault which they possess in no greater degree than their neighbours; and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. In private life they have just as much virtue as other European nations, and have given as many proofs of generosity and disinterestedness; but this is far from being the character of their government, which has prepossessed the English against the whole nation; and when the French are no longer formidable, they will be no longer thought faithless."

No people bear the frowns of the world with a better grace; yet they cannot sustain prosperity with equal moderation; but upon the least elevation of fortune become intolerably vain, arbitrary, insolent, and imperious. In their lowest circumstances, they are capricious and litigious, and success increases and gives a keener edge to their captious temper. The women enjoy great freedoms, which are authorized by fashion; and even when they appear too licentious, the men are afraid to restrain them, lest their *politesse* should be called in question, and they should fall under the imputation of being narrow-minded. That modest deportment which is so much admired in other countries, is here deemed *rusticity*; and supposed to spring from the want of *knowing life*, or being early introduced into *genteel*

company. Hence the ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit, and degagé behaviour, than for their personal beauty. The peasantry, compared with those of England, may justly be deemed ugly and dirty; but, if they are not so handsome, they are livelier; and if they are not so neat, they are much merrier.

Many able writers have taken great pains in delineating the characters of the French; a very ingenious author of our own times, who wanted neither information nor abilities, has been very particular in describing the particularities observable among this people.

"The natural levity of the French, says this writer, is reinforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is, by some priest or monk, taught to read his mother tongue, and say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence, by the masters of these sciences. He becomes a complete connoisseur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hands and instructions of his barber and valet de chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the violin, he is altogether irrisoluble. But he piques himself with being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair-sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns, like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address which is there distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of, which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the fair-sex from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are over-looked by other men, whose time has been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bed-chamber while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coiffure, he insists upon adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissors, and his pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed friseur. He squares her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself necessary to her occasions. In short, of all the coxcombs upon the face of the earth, a French *petit-maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petit-maitres* from the marquis, who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the barber's boy,

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"I shall mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very furthest verge of folly and extravagance; that is, the manner in which the ladies are printed and painted. It is generally supposed, that part of the fair-sex in some other countries make use of fard and vermilion for very different purposes, namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not inquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shews at least a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the fashion in France prescribes to all ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator, who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the fard, or white, with which their shoulders and necks are plastered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown or fallow; but the rouge, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to their eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust or aversion. Without this horrible mask no married lady is admitted at court, or at any polite assembly, and it is a mark of distinction, which none of the lower classes dare assume."

The national vanity of the French induced them, till lately, to consider the English as barbarians; but late wars, and the unanimous suffrages of their best writers, have greatly contributed to obliterate this false idea, and they now consider the English in a very different light. It is, however, but justice to acknowledge that the French have given a polish to the ferocious manners, and even virtues, of other nations. It must also be observed, that the superior order of men among the French are of a very different way of thinking from those below them; they see with indignation the frivolous manners of both court and people, and heartily despise them. They think and act for themselves, are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. These men, during the war of 1756, saw the management of their armies, their finances, and fleets, with silent indignation, and their researches were favourable to the English. The conclusion of the peace of Fontenbleau, and the visits which they have since paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themselves have fallen in with it; and, what some years ago would have been thought incredible, people of fashion in France now study the English language, and imitate them in their customs, amusements, dress, and buildings. They also both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robert-

son, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, are sacred among the French of any education; and, to this truth, the writings of such men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raise the name of Great-Britain to that degree of esteem in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more universal, and even a necessary study among foreign nobility.

The continual fluctuation of the French fashions would render any peculiar description of their dress needless, and their perpetual caprices would make a minute detail impossible. It may, however, be said, that they have more invention in their dress than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures. "When a stranger first arrives at Paris, says a neighbouring writer, he finds it necessary to send for the taylor, perquier, hatter, shoemaker, and every other tradesman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He must even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the risk of his life, suit his clothes to the mode of the season. For example, though the weather should be ever so cold he must wear his *habit d'été* [summer suit] or *demi saison* [mid season] without presuming to put on a warm dress before the day which fashion has fixed for that purpose; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuse a man for wearing his hat upon his head either at home or abroad. Females are, if possible, still more subject to the caprices of fashion. All their sacks and negligés must be altered and new trimmed. They must have new caps, new laces, new shoes, and their hair new cut. They must have their taffeties for the summer, their flowered silks for the spring and autumn, and their satins and damasks for winter. The men too must provide themselves with a camblet suit trimmed with silver for spring and autumn, with silk clothes for summer, and cloth laced with gold or velvet for winter; and he must wear his bag-wig à la pigeon. This variety of dress is absolutely indispensable for all those who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar. All ranks from the king downwards use powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their superiors in the fripperies of fashion. The common people of the country, however, still retain, without any material deviation, the old fashioned modes of dress, the large hat and most enormous jack boots, with suitable spurs; and this contrast is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities the clergy, lawyers, physicians, and merchants, generally dress in black; and it has been observed that the French nation, in their modes of dress, are in some measure governed by commercial circumstances. A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous soppery has descended, as I said before, to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street has a tail of this kind

kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair en queue, though perhaps he has neither shirt nor breeches."

The diversions of the French are much the same as those of the English, but they carry their gallantry to a much greater excess. Persons in high rank accomplish themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in skill and gracefulness; and indeed few of the common people are without some knowledge of those embellishments. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb-bridle, in that exercise, and accommodate themselves to the English manner. The landlords were as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors.

The only religion established in France for many centuries past, was the Roman-Catholic, nor has any other been tolerated since the revocation of the edict of Nantes. In the southern parts of France, some of the clergy and magistrates have been as intolerant as ever; and the persecutions of the Protestants, or as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in those provinces, have been continued till very lately. The French, however, would never admit that infernal tribunal, the inquisition, to be established in their country: and in many respects the king, clergy, and laity, have been more free and independent of the pope of Rome, than in other Roman-Catholic countries. The Papists themselves were divided into several sects, among whom the Jansenists, the Quietists, and the Bourignons, were the principal. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to shake off the yoke of the popes, and made a very great progress in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the secret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jesuits, a set of dangerous ecclesiastics that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Upon the whole, the state of religion in France has long afforded a strong proof of the passive disposition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in compliance to the pope, have deprived the state, as we have already hinted, of many thousands of its most useful inhabitants.

By the laws of the new constitution, no man is to be molested for his opinions, nor interrupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial possessions of the Gallican church have been claimed as national property, and disposed of through the medium of a paper money called Assignats, for the creditors of the state; and the clergy made dependent upon pensionary establishments paid out of the national treasury; out of which are paid also the expences of worship, the religious, and the poor. All monastic establishments are suppressed; but the present friars and nuns are allowed to observe their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon pensions.

The clergy are elected by the people, and take an oath to observe the laws of the new constitution: but many of those, called refractory priests, have, from a conscientious refusal of this oath, been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made bishops. The conforming clergy notify to the bishop of Rome their union in doctrine; but do not pay him fees, nor acknowledge any subordination to his authority; and he has in consequence threatened France with excommunication. They are supplied with lodgings upon their livings, whereon they are obliged to reside, and perform the duties of their office. They vote as active citizens, and are eligible to some lay-offices in the districts, but to no principal offices.

As France is now divided into nine metropolitan circles, there is a metropolitan bishop with a synod to each. The metropolitan bishop is confirmed by the chief bishop in his circle. To these synods, appeals are made from the bishops.

To each of the eighty-three departments, which form so many dioceses, a bishop is appointed; which appointment is made by the electoral assembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan bishop, but must have held an ecclesiastical office fifteen years. The salaries are from 500*l.* to 840*l.* per annum. Each diocese has also a seminary, with three vicars, and a vicar-general to prepare students for holy orders, and these vicars constitute a council for the bishop.

The bishop chooses vicars of bishops from among such of the clergy of his diocese who have done duty ten years. The salaries are from 84*l.* to 250*l.* annually.

Those who are ministers of parishes, or curés in the districts, are confirmed by the bishop, and they must have been vicars to ministers five years. They have salaries from 50*l.* to 160*l.* per annum, and receive pensions when infirm.

The vicars of ministers are chosen by the minister from among the priests admitted in the diocese by the bishop, and receive annual salaries from 50*l.* to 100*l.* sterling.

There are in France more than two millions of Non-Catholics; and the Protestants, who are greatly increasing, are, in proportion to the Catholics, as one to twelve. There are already many regular congregations: such as German Lutherans, French and Swiss Calvinists, Bohemian Anabaptists, and Walloon or Flemish Dissidents, besides many chapels for the ambassadors. Many Jews also reside here.

The French language is formed out of that of the Gauls, Romans, and Franks, and is pretty generally understood throughout Europe, particularly by genteel people, whose education is deemed defective without it. It is not however so strong, expressive, and energetic, as the English, but seems best accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation. In speaking of the French and their language, the celebrated earl of Roscommon says,

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Dryden justly observes, that the French language has all the swiftness of a greyhound, but the English all the strength of a mastiff. A late traveller says, "there are two great difficulties which an impractised person is under here, the common speech; the one is from the rapid pronunciation of the natives, which always appears to be the case when the language is not familiar to us; the other from the idioms or forms peculiar to the language. There is no effectual cure for either, but frequent conversation with the French people of all classes on their own ground. Some of our countrymen go armed with a dictionary, and make their French as they want it; but such French is generally an awkward version of the English forms of speech, not intelligible to French people. An English gentleman of this class was at dinner in a public company, and his business requiring him to be gone as soon as decency would permit, he wanted to tell the French servant that "every body had done," with design that the things might be taken away: he consults his book, and finds that every body is *tout le monde*, and *done* is *fini*, which with his narrow English pronunciation was, *tout le monde est fini*. The waiter, who happened to be a lad of humour, took up the mistake, and cried out, *Misericorde! que ferons nous? Monsieur dit que tout le monde est fini*. "Mercy on us, what shall we do?—the gentleman says the world is at an end."

The Lord's prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre Père qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui nôtre pain quotidien. Pardonne-nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés. Et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi est le regne, la puissance, et la gloire, aux siècles des siècles. Amen.*

With respect to learning and learned men, we may remark, that after the destruction of the Greek and Roman empire, by the barbarous nations of the north, and the still more ferocious followers of Mahomet, France, like most other nations of Europe, lay immersed in barbarism for more than twelve centuries. The poetry of these times consisted wholly in a childish jingle of words; and the human genius, instead of being engaged in the study of objects worthy of its faculties, was devoted to frivolous questions with regard to abstract and metaphysical essences. At the same time the state of slavery in which the far greater part of Europe lay, together with the ravages of superstition, at once the child and parent of ignorance, greatly contributed to debase the faculties of the human mind, and render the revival of learning a task of almost insurmountable difficulty. At last the invention of printing, and the encouragement of Francis I. the friend of learning, gave a new turn to the studies of the French; and the finished works of the ancients were read with

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pleasure and admiration. Some progress was daily made in erudition, and the sparks of genius, which had long lain neglected, were kindled by the noble and manly flame of the ancients.

Many learned men appeared during this reign in France, and did honour to their country. The works of the two Stephens are universally known. Malherbe, trained up in the study of the excellent poets of antiquity, and taking nature for his guide, enriched the French poetry with new beauties and harmony. Balzac followed his example, and gave majesty to their prose. The society of Port Royal continued what Balzac had begun, and added purity and accuracy, which rendered the French language at once pleasing and nervous.

But the reign of Louis XIV. was the most splendid æra of literature in France. The encouragement he gave to learning, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, will render his name immortal. Encouragement is never bestowed on men of genius in vain. The number of learned men was prodigious, and formed a brilliant constellation in the sphere of literature. Corneille, for many years a slave to false taste, became free at last, and discovered the laws of the drama by the strength of his own genius, rather than by his reading. Racine struck into a new track, introduced into tragedy a passion of tenderness known only on the stage of the ancients, and unfolded the artifices of the human heart in a strain of truth and elegance joined with sublimity. Both these writers are distinguished for the justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere finely painted and ridiculed the follies of age, and greatly excelled the ancient comedy. La Fontaine, in his fables, rivalled Æsop; and Bossuet, Bourdelone, Flechier, and Massillon, carried the eloquence of the pulpit to a great degree of perfection.

The arts of eloquence are so connected with polite learning, that a turn for cultivating the one, leads to improve the other. While literature flourished in this manner, Poussin produced his paintings, and Puget his statues; Le Sueur painted the Chartreux, Le Brun the battles of Alexander, and Lulli invented a species of music adapted to the French language.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture, though now we bid fair to excel them in that art.

The universities in France are eighteen in number, viz. Paris, Orleans, Rheims, Poitiers, Bourdeaux, Angers, Nantz, Caen, Bourges, Montpellier, Cahors, Valence, Aix, Avignon, Dole, Perpignan, Pont à Mouson, and Orange. That of Paris is the principal, and is said to have been founded by Charlemagne: here all the arts and sciences are taught, particularly law, phy-

fic, and divinity: it consists of above forty colleges, of which the chief are those of the Sorbonne, Navarre, the faculty of physic, and of the four nations; lectures are read only in eleven of them. The head of this university is the rector, who is chosen every three months, but is sometimes continued four years. All the professors have settled salaries; and the whole income of the university is said to amount to about fifty thousand livres annually.

Besides these universities, there are colleges established in several parts of France; but all those literary institutions have suffered an irreparable loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who always made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them throughout that kingdom: but as the extinction of this body of men will probably lessen the influence of superstition in France, there is reason to believe that the interests of real learning will, upon the whole, be promoted by that event.

There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones, the French academy, that of inscriptions, and that of the sciences; one of painting and sculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horse, and other exercises of a military nature.

The progress of philosophy was much slower than that of polite learning in France. A bigotted clergy, convinced that it is their interest to keep mankind in ignorance, obstructed philosophy in its dawn, and almost prohibited men from thinking. Even the power of Louis XIV. and his noble establishments for the improvement of learning, were unable to remove the influence of the church. Some great men, however, broke through all restraint, and, like the sun through the mists of the morning, cast a pleasing light around them. Des Cartes had all the necessary qualifications for changing the face of philosophy. His discoveries in mathematics were of the greatest service, and now form the most solid and indisputable part of his glory; particularly his application of algebra to geometry, which will always prove a key to the deep researches of the higher geometry, and consequently to all the physico-mathematical sciences.

Pascal pursued the mathematical branches of philosophy with great success. His treatise on the cycloid discovers a prodigious force of genius; and that on the equilibrium of fluids, and the gravity of the air, has opened a new science to philosophers. Few men, either by their writings or lives, have done more service to religion, than this great man and the archbishop of Cambray.

Since the time of Louis XIV. several writers of eminence have appeared. At the head of these is justly placed the celebrated Montesquieu, who may be considered as the legislator of nations, and an honour to human nature. Buffon, in his Natural History, has followed the model of Plato and Lucretius; he has embellished his work with a majesty and sublimity of style suitable to the philosophical subjects he describes.

Maupepius has taught his countrymen to shake off the yoke of pedantry, and excels in the art of conveying the most abstracted ideas intelligibly. D'Alembert has united the talents of a fine writer with the precision of a geometer.

The writers on the Belles Lettres in France are exceedingly numerous, and their productions very agreeable. Voltaire and D'Argens are the most considerable. The former excels both in prose and verse; and no writer ever better understood the uncommon art of denoting every idea by the most proper and familiar term. He embellishes his works without ever mistaking the colouring; and has the happy talent never to rise above or sink below his subject.

The polite arts in general have not however made the same progress in France since the age of Louis XIV. as philosophy. The French have now no painter of note, except M. Greuse, who excels in portraits and conversation pieces; nor have their sculptors produced any piece equal to those that display the magnificence of Louis the Great. Music alone has made an amazing progress since that period. The enterprising and fruitful genius of M. Rameau, has erased the opprobrium thrown by foreigners on the French music. His distinguishing character is the having successfully studied the theory of music, discovered the principles of harmony and melody in the thorough bass, and by that means reduced to more certain and simple laws that which before was subject to arbitrary rules, or such only as blind experience dictates.

It would, perhaps, be thought unjust to the French, if we did not mention the prodigious work lately published at Paris, under the title of Encyclopédie, or a General Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, which is the most complete system of useful knowledge we are acquainted with. It is a noble collection of all the branches of human learning, and makes 28 volumes in folio. The plates belonging to this amazing work, with their explanations, make six volumes, and are executed in a very masterly manner. The different parts of the Encyclopédie were drawn up by the most able masters in each branch of literature, and the articles belonging to each are marked with particular letters, lists of which, with proper explanations, are prefixed to the work. But the whole was methodized and published by Mess. D'Alembert and Diderot.

The cities, towns, palaces, and sea-ports of France being too numerous to admit of particular descriptions of the whole, we shall therefore only particularize the most respectable, beginning with the capital.

PARIS, called in Latin Lutetia, Parisiorum, or Parisium, is situated in the isle of France (now called Oise) being both its metropolis, and also that of the whole kingdom. It lies in a spacious plain on the Seine. This is a very large, populous, and stately city, built of a circular form, and laid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The

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houses are built of stone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedness, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the town: the city (la cité) is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public magnificence than utility. Its palaces are more showy; and some of the streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, more superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues: but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life. The Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London: it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort: over it are many stone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them, except Pont Neuf, which has on it an equestrian statue of Henry IV.

The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives their capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers, are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week for the numerous foreigners who visit the city; and, in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive thither daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy over other nations is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the gobelins, or manufactures of tapestry, their libraries, and collections of paintings that are open to the public: the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, however, Paris will not bear a comparison with London in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanliness of their streets, elegance of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which is said to disagree with strangers.

In the houses of Paris, most of their floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. It is reckoned to contain 919 streets, great and small, and upwards of 20,000 houses, besides religious structures, colleges, and halls; has had 52 parishes, 56 monasteries, inhabited by friars, 78 by nuns, and 800,000 inhabitants. As almost every French nobleman had a palace, or hotel, as they called it, in this respect Paris might be said to surpass any thing of that kind to be met with in London.

The chief ornament of the city of Paris is the Louvre, which was built or repaired under the reign of Philip Augustus, in the year 1214. It was a castle that stood without the city. Near it, on the banks of the river Seine, they built a large tower, called the Tower of the Louvre. It defended the river, together with another tower, that stood over-against it, named the Tower of Nelle. In this tower were sometimes kept the treasures of the French kings. It was pulled down when the foundations of what is called the Old Louvre were laid, under Francis I. His son Henry II. employed the most eminent and celebrated architects of his time to render this building as regular and magnificent as could be. What is called the Old Louvre consists of two sets of buildings, that form an interior angle, the fronts of which are adorned with very fine pieces of architecture. The whole building is three stories high. The first is of the Corinthian order, the second of the Composite, and the third of the Attic. The fore or outward courts are adorned with chamfered columns, and the other with pilasters of the same order with those columns. What is chiefly admired is the proportion of the windows of the second story, the eaves of which are adorned with a pediment alternately triangular and circular. The third story, of the Attic order, has also its particular ornaments, consisting in trophies of arms, in basso-relievo fixed to the window eaves, with other ornaments in the entablatures. In the hall of the hundred Switzers is a kind of gallery supported by four gigantic figures. This hall was formerly used for great entertainments; and queen Catherine de Medicis caused plays and interludes to be acted here for the diversion of the court. On one of the gates of the Louvre is engraved the following ostentatious inscription, "*Dum tetum implet Orbem:*" implying,

May this fam'd fabric stand until the day

That o'er the world its owner gains the sway :

which sufficiently hints what the French kings have constantly aimed at, an universal monarchy. Henry IV. built a gallery along the river side, quite to the Tuilleries, which is very long, and esteemed the finest in Europe: under it is the royal printing-house, and the lodgings of many curious artists in painting. Louis XIII. finished the front to the well, and built a large pavilion, in the form of a dome, in the middle, over the gate, which is supported by two rows of very large pillars of the Ionic order, and also adorned the architrave of the front to the court with fine sculptures. Louis XIV. bestowed great costs upon the east front, in the middle whereof is the east gate of the palace: here are forty columns of the Corinthian order, which support a large terrace, that is raised with a stately balustrade. The court, which is in the middle of that large building, is very near twenty-three perches square; the four sides of it are composed of eight pavilions, and eight sets of buildings, which surround that great court:

count: there are yet but about three parts of it built. The architecture, after the manner it is begun, is to consist of three orders of columns, with their pedestals; the first of the Corinthian, and the two others of the Composite order.—Louis XIV. who declared himself the protector of the French academy, gave that illustrious body an apartment in the Louvre to hold their assemblies in; as also to the academy of medals and inscriptions, and to the academy of sciences. The academy of architecture and painting meet in the old Louvre. In the gallery of the Louvre is the royal printing-house, established by cardinal de Richlieu. They printed there the memoirs of the royal academies of the sciences, and the Belles Lettres, the king's orders, the decrees of the council, and such books as the king pleased to have printed at his own expence. There is here also a mint where they stamped the king's medals, and likewise those of all the corporations and trading companies in the kingdom, which have every one of them their own emblems and proper mottos. No medals were suffered to be struck any where else than at the Louvre.

There is in the wardrobe of this palace a prodigious quantity of rich tapettry-hangings, both ancient and modern, the finest of which have been made in the reign of Francis I. Amongst them there are the battles of Scipio, and the triumphs of the same general; the history of Joshua, made after the designs of the famous Raphael; the history of Psyche; the acts of the apostles; the history of St. Paul, &c. Louis XIV. caused several tapettries with gold and silver to be made, after the designs of Le Brun. There are also here, in several rooms, a large quantity of ancient arms; amongst which are those which Francis I. wore at the famous battle of Pavia; and on his cuirass are still to be seen the marks of the blows he received before he surrendered to the Spaniards.

Poor women and maidens are allowed to sojourn in the hospital dedicated to St. Catherine, and are entertained three days, being attended by the nuns of St. Augustine. In the grand chatelet the sessions are held by the inferior courts of justice. Fort L'Eveque contains a mint and a prison, and is close to the spot where Henry IV. was stabbed by Ravilliac. St. German l'Auxerrois is termed the parish church royal, because the Louvre and Thuilleries are situated in its parish.

The Thuilleries, or Tuilleries, stands in a place where formerly they made tiles, called Tuiles in French, from whence that palace has its name. It is joined to the Louvre by a gallery which contains 108 models of fortresses that are executed with great accuracy: it consists of one range of building, with a pavilion at each end, and a dome in the middle: in the front is an handsome large space divided into three courts; the whole adorned with columns, pilasters, and other ornaments. Behind this palace are gardens, adorned with fine walks, planted with ever-greens, and other trees, and fine par-

terres; where are to be seen, the year round, all the flowers that are in season. It has also three fine fountains, with their basons, and a large octagonal canal. Towards the river is a fine terrace planted with three rows of trees. From this terrace is a most beautiful prospect over part of the city, and over the adjacent country. A beautiful walk opens on the banks of the river beyond the Thuilleries, which is composed of four rows of fine elms, that form three avenues, being together 120 feet broad. In the centre is a ring with trees planted round it in a circular manner, and at each end are iron gates.

The Bastille was a kind of fortress, consisting of eight large round towers, joined together by other strong buildings. In the year 1631 it was surrounded with ditches and baillions. It was a prison for state criminals, and for such as were taken up by lettres-de-cacher, that is to say, by warrants signed by the king, and sealed. In it the king kept a governor, a lieutenant, and an independent company of soldiers. This building was totally demolished by the populace at the beginning of the French revolution in 1789, an account of which is given at large towards the end of the History of France.

The palace of Luxemburg, also called the palace of Orleans, was built by queen Mary de Medicis, on the ruins of the old hotel or house of Luxemburg, which name it kept. It was finished in five or six years time, under the direction of James de Brosse; and is one of the most perfect and regular pieces of architecture in France. In this palace is a gallery of paintings, done by the famous Rubens, who spent two whole years on that work. The whole history of Mary de Medicis' life is here represented allegorically, in 24 large pictures, nine feet broad, and ten feet high, placed in the piers between the windows. The quarter called the University stands in the south of the islands of the palace, and of our Lady. It was formerly enclosed by a wall, and surrounded with ditches; but under the reign of Louis XIV. the wall was pulled down, and the ditches filled, to make it contiguous to the neighbouring suburbs. That of St. Germain is the most considerable, and is alone larger than the whole quarter called the University; but it is not so populous, because of the many monasteries, hospitals, large houses or hotels, and gardens that take up a great part of it. Adjoining to this suburb are that of St. Michael, which is but small; that of St. James, which is pretty large; and that of St. Marceau, which is larger still: the last of all, which is the nearest to the river on the east, is that of St. Victor, which is very large, but not built all over. The university was founded by Charles the Great, and is appropriated to the cultivation of the arts, sciences, &c. in general, and physick, law, and divinity in particular.

A very humane and noble foundation for the poor of the female sex, is the general hospital, wherein great numbers of them are here provided for: those who are

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hospitall is appropriated to females only, the caftle of
Bicetre is a kind of counterpart, and appointed for the
relief of fimilar neceffities in the male fex; and like-
wife for another purpose, viz. the punishment of chil-
dren who lead difsolute lives, or are undutiful to their
parents.

In the year 1626, the royal phyfic-garden was first
founded, by order of Louis XIII. and finished in
1634. There were at first four professors of botany,
in the room of whom the king established, in 1671,
two demonstrators of the plants, one of whom is
obliged to make the analysis, or chemical demonstra-
tion of them. There is also a laboratory where they
read lectures of chemistry, and a particular hall for
anatomical demonstrations; and in the year 1712,
there was another demonstrator added, whose office is
to read lectures upon the *Materia Medica*. The king's
first physician was director of this garden till the year
1718, when Dr. Chirac obtained that place; and af-
ter his death it was given to the secretary of state for
the city and district of Paris.

The several following academies in Paris deserve to
be particularly mentioned, viz. 1. The Academie
Françoise, or French Academy, founded by cardinal
Richieu, for the improvement of the French lan-
guage, in such a degree as to reduce it to a determinate
standard. It consists of forty members, who meet at
stated times to superintend the institution, and promote
the same by every probable means. 2. The Royal Aca-
demy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, instituted for
the advancement of polite literature. In this academy
ancient monuments are explained, and the transactions
of the kingdom perpetuated by medals, inscriptions,
&c. 3. The Royal Academy of Sciences, instituted
in 1666, has its honorary members, pensioners, asso-
ciates, and students. These apply themselves to the
different branches of the mathematics and natural phi-
losophy. 4. The Royal Academy of Painting and
Sculpture, founded in 1643. The master-pieces of
the painters and sculptors admitted into this academy
are disposed in different halls, and marked with the
names of the several artists. 5. The Royal Academy
of Architecture was founded in 1671, but not autho-
rized by letters patent before the year 1717. It is di-
vided into two classes; the first is composed of 10 ar-
chitects, a professor, and a secretary; and the second
of 12 other architects. The professor, whose post,
as well as the secretary's, is for life, is obliged to
read public lectures on stated days in the hall of the
Louvre. All these establishments relate to arts and
sciences. There are others designed for the improve-
ment of virtue, and promoting religion; such as the
seminaries where young clerks and priests are taught the
ceremonies of the church, and the duties and functions

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of their calling. There are 10 of these seminaries at
Paris, among which is one for English, and another
for Irish priests; and most of the bishops have set up
such seminaries in their dioceses.

The Parisians, as well as the natives of France in
general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and
to be intoxicated with liquor, is considered as infamous.
Bread, and all manner of butchers' meat, and poultry,
are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the
wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Bur-
gundy. The common people, in the summer season,
live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine.
The Parisians scarcely know the use of tea, but they
have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is so well
attended to, that quarrels, accidental mischief, or fe-
lonies, seldom happen; and strangers, from all quar-
ters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so un-
common, meet with the most polite treatment. The
streets are patrolled night and day by horse and foot; so
judiciously stationed, that no offender can escape their
vigilance. They likewise visit the publicans, who are
not permitted to retain company, or sell liquor, after
12 at night. The public roads in France are under
the same excellent regulations, which prevent robberies
in that kingdom.

The neighbourhood of Paris is very pleasant, and
contains a great number of towns, villages, &c. and
some fine seats, some of them being situated on the
edge of mountains that rise from the Seine, are ex-
tremely delightful. Among the last in this govern-
ment are the royal palace of Meudon; that of the
duke of Bourbon at St. Maur des Boffes; of the arch-
bishop of Paris, near the conflux of the Seine and
Marne, called Conflans; of the prince of Condé at
Issy; of the count of Thoulouze at Rambouillet; and
those called Maisons and Colaguy, the latter of which
belongs to the duke of Maine.

Compeigne, on the Oise, 13 leagues north-west of
Paris, is the place where the Maid of Orleans was
taken prisoner by the English in 1430. Here is a pa-
lace, which was repaired by Louis XIV. and the gar-
dens finely laid out. The trade of this place princi-
pally consists of corn, wool, and wool. At Villers
Coteretz, a little town five leagues from Compeigne
to the south-east, at the side of the forest of Reiz, is a
fine palace formerly belonging to the duke of Orleans,
and an abbey.

Soissons (now the department of Aisne) is situated
seven leagues from Paris to the north-east, in a plea-
sant valley on the banks of the river Aisne, over which
there is a stone bridge. The town is pretty large and
well built, being the seat of a governor-general, and of
an office of the finances, a salt-office, several courts of
justice, and also of a bishop, who is suffragan to the
archbishop of Rheims, and had the right to anoint the
French kings during the vacancy of the archiepiscopal
see, or in the archbishop's absence. It drives a great
trade in corn, contains several abbeys, and other reli-
gions

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gious houses, with an old castle, and has an academy, whose object is the same as that of the French academy at Paris.

Verfailles is situated four leagues from Paris to the south-west; here Louis XIV. built a most magnificent palace, and adorned it with noble gardens: it stands on a rising ground in the middle of a valley surrounded with hills, having, on the side towards Paris, a fine avenue leading to it through the town, which it divides into the Old and New. The apartments of the palace abound with innumerable paintings, statues, antiques, &c. The chapel, built in 1699, is a most finished piece of architecture, sculpture, and painting. Every room in this noble palace has a particular name, taken from the chief subject painted on the ceiling.—As for instance, the hall or chamber of plenty, La Sale d'Abondance, because plenty and liberality are painted on the ceiling. Here are several pictures, as the Holy Virgin on a column of jasper, holding the infant Jesus in her arms, and surrounded below with several pilgrims, done by Poussin: the Virgin Mary and St. Joseph flying into Egypt, by Guido: the woman cured of a bloody-flux by our Saviour, done by Paul Veronese, &c. The hall of Venus has that goddess painted on the ceiling; she sits in a chariot drawn by doves; the gods and heroes, celebrated by the ancients, adorn her triumph. Here are the pictures of Nebuchadnezzar, who orders the forming of the gardens of Babylon; of Augustus, exhibiting a race of chariots in the Circus; of Alexander, marrying Roxana; and of Cyrus, reviewing his army. As the hall of war is dedicated to Bellona, the frieze is adorned with trophies, bucklers, and thunderbolts. Over the doors are trophies of gilt metal, under which are represented the four seasons, by proper figures and festoons, signifying that Louis XIV. has been a conqueror in all the seasons of the year. The ceiling of this hall is adorned with five pictures. The largest, which is in the middle, represents France holding a thunderbolt in one hand, and a buckler in the other. The four others are in the sides. In the first is Bellona in a violent passion. The second represents Germany doing her best but fruitless endeavours to defend the imperial crown. In the third, Spain seems to threaten France; but her soldiers are put to flight. The fourth shews Holland thrown back upon her lion. This room is also adorned with six heads of porphyry, representing as many Roman emperors; they are in bulls, with a drapery of gilt brass, and supported on pedestals of oriental alabaster.

The most sumptuous of all the rooms is the king's bed-chamber. The carvings are all gilt, on a white ground. The bed is placed in a kind of alcove, where are two figures of Fame, represented sitting: on the cupola, over the bolster, is France sitting, and seeming to watch for the preservation of the king. There are several other pictures in this chamber, and particularly one of Hagar in the desert, with her son, and an an-

gel. The furniture of the bed is of crimson velvet, embroidered with gold, and otherwise beautifully ornamented.

The gardens are not less magnificent than the palace. In descending from the terrace you meet with two basons, where there are several water-spouts; and in the middle of each a collection of fountains in the form of a wheat-sheaf, which rises 29 feet high. The borders of these basons are adorned each with eight groups of brazen figures, representing rivers and nymphs; and four others of the same metal, representing cupids, little nymphs, and genii. In two angles of the parterre are two other basons of marble. The water-spouts that come from them form two sheets of water exceedingly fine; and on the border of each of these basons are two groups of figures of animals, made of brass. From this parterre you see, in a kind of half-moon that is below it, the bason of Latona, round which are represented, in a group of three figures, Latona, Apollo, and Diana. Latona seems to complain to Jupiter of the cruelty of the peasants of Lycia, who are here represented metamorphosed into frogs, which throw a vast quantity of water upon the group. There are several other basons, with water-spouts, and other curious water-works, all adorned also with fine groups and statues of several kinds, which it would be too long to give a particular description of; we shall therefore confine ourselves to the famous canal. At one end of it is a bason of an octagonal figure, and 420 feet diameter; four of its sides are circular, three in straight lines, and the other joins with the canal; in two of the angles of this bason are two sea-horses, each of which carries a Triton on his back. The great canal is 32 fathoms broad, and 800 long, including the basons at each end. In the middle it is crossed by another canal, about 520 fathoms long. At the other end of the large canal is also a bason 200 fathoms long, and 100 broad. Upon this canal the court sometimes divert themselves in yachts and galleys. The orangery, or green-house, is a master-piece in its kind. It is exposed to the south, and contains first a large gallery, which is innermost, 408 feet long, and 32 feet broad, with 12 arched windows in the front; on each side of this gallery are two others, each 360 feet long. These galleries are adorned without with fine rows of columns; the innermost gallery has eight double columns of the Tuscan order, the two others have four columns each of four feet diameter. At the gate of the porch are two other columns of the same order, but much thinner. Before this green-house is a beautiful parterre, with a fine bason in the middle, where the water spouts out 40 feet high. It is adorned with four rows of columns, of the Tuscan order, groups of stone figures beautifully carved, vases, statues of white marble, &c. In the summer time this parterre seems to be a forest of orange and lemon trees, myrtles, laurels, &c.

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Here is a beautiful grove, which contains the laby-
rinth or maze, the several walks of which are so in-
terwoven with each other, that it is a difficult matter
to find the way out of it. At the entrance you meet
with two statues, the one of Æsop, and the other of
Cupid, holding a clue of thread in his hand. At
every turning of the avenues you meet with a beauti-
ful fountain, adorned with a basin of fine shell-work,
where they have represented, in the most natural man-
ner, one of Æsop's fables, the subject of which is ex-
pressed in four lines, engraved in gold letters on a thin
brass-plate with a black ground. In the garden are
statues, canals, groves, grottoes, fountains, and every
thing that can render it delightful and elegant. The
royal cabinet contains many fine medals, coins, paint-
ings, &c. In the park stands the beautiful palace of
Trianon, the outside of which consists wholly of variegated
marble, of exquisite workmanship. The garden-
s are large, and abound in statues and water-
works.

The late king's royal seat, called Marly, stands in a
park contiguous to Versailles, it has beautiful gardens
belonging to it. The engine here for raising water
from the Seine, to supply the reservoirs and water-
works; is equally grand and ingenious, and, with the
other water-works, cost immense sums; the water be-
ing conveyed over several hills to the great reservoir
here, and from thence to Versailles. St. Germain en
Laye, a town in the forest of Laye, is chiefly re-
markable for two castles, or royal palaces. The forest
and park, contiguous to the castles, are very beau-
tiful.

The town of Fontainebleau is situated in the mid-
dle of a forest of the same name, eleven leagues south
of Paris, and about one from the Seine. Its spaci-
ous royal castle or palace hath chiefly contributed to its
fame. Here are neat gardens, laid out with very good
taste; and besides the great fountain are many others,
which greatly adorn this charming seat. All the halls
or rooms of this palace are adorned with very fine
paintings and carvings. The greatest room of all is
that where plays are acted when the court is here.—
There is in that room a fine chimney, built by Henry
IV. in 1599; it is twenty-three feet high, and twenty
wide, and is adorned with four large Corinthian col-
umns of spotted marble, with basins and chapiters of
white marble: in the middle of the chimney is a table
of black marble, on which stands the Equestrian sta-
tue of Henry the Great: underneath are two baso-
relievos; the one representing the battle of Ivry, and
the other the surrender of the city of Metz. Two
marble statues placed on each side of this figure repre-
sent loyalty and peace: over-against the chimney is a
noble theatre for acting plays.

Fontainebleau was considerably increased under the
reigns of Henry IV. and Louis XIII. The latter
built the parochial church, which is adorned with fine
paintings: on each side of the great altar is a Corin-

thian column twenty feet high, and over it is a picture
of our Saviour curing the man sick of the palsy, ex-
quisitely done by Varin. This town is the seat of a
royal provostship, consisting of a provost, a commissary
of inquiries both in civil and criminal matters, a
king's attorney, and a recorder.

The districts of ARTOIS and PICARDY (now Som-
me) produce wine, grain, fruits, pasturage, and turf.
Picardy, the name of which is thought to be derived
from Picard, signifying a passionate wrangler, is
bounded on the east by Champagne; on the south by
the Isle of France; on the north by the Pais de Cal-
lais, Artois, and Hainault; and on the west by Nor-
mandy and the channel. Its rivers are the Somme,
which rises in the Vermandois, and falls into the chan-
nel; the Oise, in Latin Isara, which rises in Picardy,
and at Comblans falls into the Seine; and the Canche,
which rises in Artois, and falls into the sea at Sta-
ples. The other smaller rivers are the Lauthie, the
La Lis, the Aa, the Scarpe, and the Deule. This
province, in consequence of its flourishing manufact-
ures, its situation upon the sea, and its fisheries, is the
seat of a very extensive trade. Like most of the other
provinces, it had formerly its petty princes, dependent,
however, on the crown of France. For the administra-
tion of justice, here were many inferior courts subordi-
nate to the parliament of Paris.

Boulogne, on the mouth of the Lane, is only eight
leagues from the nearest coast of England. It is the
capital of a district called the Boulonnois, which en-
joys peculiar privileges of exemption from several
taxes; and has a governor independent of the gover-
nor-general of Picardy. The harbour cannot be en-
tered but at high-water, and is defended by a fort.—
The town is divided into Upper and Lower. The
bishop of Boulogne is suffragan to the archbishop of
Rheims. Here are a court of admiralty and other
courts, a strong citadel, and several convents. Near
this citadel is a mineral spring, called La Fontaine de
Fer, that is, the iron spring.

The town of Calais, is situated on the narrowest
part of the channel opposite to Dover, from which it
is distant about seven leagues, is the capital of the Pais
Reconquis, or Recovered County. It is pretty large,
and well fortified, but the harbour is of very difficult
and dangerous access. Here are a fine arsenal, and a ci-
tadel which commands the town, the harbour, and all
the adjacent country, several convents, and a fort,
whence all the country about the town may be laid un-
der water in twenty-four hours. By the Canal of Cal-
lais, the inhabitants have an easy communication with
Dunkirk, St. Omer, Gravelines, Ypres, &c. and in
time of peace a packet-boat passes regularly twice a
week between England and Calais. There are two
inconveniences which they who pass from Dover to
Calais would always wish to avoid: The first is, that
of losing the tide, and being obliged to take a French-
boat:

boat to get into the harbour; the other is that of landing so late as to be shut out of the town, and compelled to lodge in one of the houses that stand without it. The town of Calais makes a much handsomer appearance from the water than the town of Dover; its towers begin to become visible on reaching the middle of the straits. It has two piers of great length, which run parallel, and are both of timber.— One of them affords a very agreeable walk over a boarded floor, which, at several times of the day, but especially in a summer evening, is frequented by many genteel people of the place. On this pier a troop of servants from the several houses of accommodation, stand ready to receive the passengers at their landing, and conduct them, together with their baggage, according to their several destinations.

Artois, is one of the most fertile districts of the whole kingdom. It is 24 leagues long, and 12 broad, being bounded on the east by Hainault, on the north by Flanders, and on the west and south by Picardy. A considerable trade is carried on in the province in grain, flax, hops, wool, linen, &c. The states consist of the clergy, nobility, and commoners, who hold their seat at Arras.

CHAMPAGNE, or Upper Marne, (now in the department of the Ardennes) has Hainault and Liege on the north, Burgundy on the south, Luxemburg and Lorraine on the east, and the Isle of France and Picardy on the west. It is 160 miles long, in some places exceeds 140 in breadth, and is watered by the Seine, Maine, Aube, Aisne, and Maes. The air is pure, and the soil fertile. The few hills abound with mines, the vallies with mineral waters, and the forests with game. The province itself receives its name from its extensive plains. The trade consists in corn, wine, and iron; and the whole was under the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris; except the territory of Sedan, which belonged to the parliament of Metz.

BURGUNDY (in the department of Yonne, Saonne and Loir, has Champagne on the north, Lyonnois on the south, Franche Comté on the east, and Nivernois and Bourbonnois on the west. Its length, from north to south, is about 45 leagues; and its breadth, from east to west, about 30. It is very fertile in corn, wine, fruit, and tobacco; being watered by the Seine, the Dehume, which falls into the Soane, the Brebince, or Bourbince, the Armançon, the Ouche, and the Tille. There are some noted mineral springs in it, with subterraneous lakes, and plenty of ochre. For a long time it had dukes of its own, subordinate to the crown of France; but Louis XI. at last, upon the failure of heirs male, seized upon it, and annexed it to his crown.

DAUPHINE (now the department of Ardeche), called also the Upper Alps, is bounded on the south by Provence, on the north by Bressé and the Rhône, on the

east by the Alps and Savoy, and on the west by the Rhône, which separates it from the Lyonnois and Languedoc. It had long princes of its own, who were styled dauphins du Viennois. At last Dauphin Humbert, having no children, made it over to Philip VI. of France, on condition that the inhabitants should still retain their privileges, that the province should be for ever incorporated with the crown of France, and that the king's eldest son should enjoy it, with the arms and title of Dauphin. In the year 1349, this agreement was fully executed. Dauphiné has a governor and parliament. Near two-thirds of the department are very barren and mountainous; but the mountains contain a variety of minerals, and, in some places, are covered with larch trees, which are very valuable, as they not only yield a very durable wood, but also manna, benzoin, and agarie, the last of which is used in physic and dyeing scarlet. The more level and fruitful part of the department is called Lower Dauphiné.— On the mountains are also found several sorts of wild animals, as bears, marmots, chamois goats, and other species of goats, called by the French, bouquetons, or chevrels, together with white hares, partridges, eagles, hawks, &c.

Grenoble, situated on the conflux of the Isere and Drac, in a plain at the foot of the mountains. It received its name from the emperor Gratian, son of Valentinian I. from whence it is called, in Latin, Gratianopolis. It is, however, much more ancient, was before called Cularo, and belonged to the Allobroges. It has been a bishop's see ever since the 4th century. The Delphinal council, established here in 1340, by Humbert II. dauphin of Viennois, was erected into a parliament in 1453, by king Louis XI. The governor and lieutenant-general of the province reside here, and had formerly seats in the parliament above the first president. This city is well-peopled, and commanded by a fort called la Balille. The Isere divides the city into two unequal parts. Here are no fine buildings, except the bishop's palace, which owes its beauty to cardinal le Camus, bishop of Grenoble; and is adorned by excellent paintings, representing our Saviour's life and passion, and by the picture of the bishop. The town was fortified by the chevalier de Ville. The skins and gloves of Grenoble are very much esteemed; but the woollen stuffs are but coarse.

PROVENCE (in the department of the Lower Alps) derives its name from the Latin Provincia, and is bounded to the south by the Mediterranean, to the north by Dauphiné; to the west by the Rhône, which separates it from Languedoc; and to the east by the Alps and the Var, which separate it from the dominions of the king of Sardinia. It is divided into the Upper and Lower, its length being about 42 French leagues, and its breadth about 30. The air and soil differ widely in the two divisions; for in the former the air is temperate, but in the latter extremely hot.

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hot. The former yields good corn, apples, and pears, and abounds in cattle, but has little wine. On the contrary, the latter has plenty of wine, with orange, lemon, pomegranate, fig, palm, cypress, olive, mastic, medlar, and sea-cherry trees; but does not produce half the quantity of corn necessary for the inhabitants. This district yields also a kind of box, the fruit of which proceeds from the middle of the leaf, and continues all the year round. Of their wines, the Muscadel is the best. In the road and harbour of Toulon is caught a fish, enclosed in a stone, which must be broke before the fish can be come at; it is called a date, from its resemblance to that fruit. The taste of it is very agreeable; but, in general, the fish of the Mediterranean are inferior to those of the ocean. There is also a small bird in Provence, called becca-figo, that feeds only upon grapes and figs, and is delicate eating. Iron, black agate, copper, and lead, are found here. There are no considerable rivers in this district: the chief are the Durance, the Source, the Largens (so called from the transparency of its water), the Lare, the Verdon, and the Var; the last of which divides France from Italy. The woods are numerous, and afford a great deal of timber for ship-building and other uses. Almost the whole trade from France to Italy, the Levant, and the greater part of Spain, is carried on from this part of the country.

Lyons is one of the finest and most considerable cities in Europe. It stands at the conflux of the Rhône and Soane, and had the Latin name of Lugdunum, from a place of the Gauls that stood upon a hill hereabouts, and was called Lugdun, i. e. the Hill of Ravens. There are still some remains of the stately buildings with which the Romans adorned this city, now the second of France, having two squares; in one of which is an equestrian statue of brass of Louis XIV. a beautiful town-house, a noble stone bridge over the Rhône, with two of wood, and one of stone, over the Soane, a great number of convents and churches, besides the cathedral, four suburbs, six gates, an exchange, an observatory, a public library, three hospitals, a mint, an arsenal well furnished with military stores, and having three forts. It is noted for manufactures of gold and silver stuffs, gold and silver laces, and silks of all sorts.

Rheims situated on the river Vesle, twenty-five leagues north-east of Paris, is one of the largest and most celebrated cities in the whole kingdom, and the see of an archbishop. The gate and portico of the cathedral are the most stately in the nation. Here is an university, founded about the middle of the sixteenth century, by Charles, cardinal of Lorraine. There are still some remains of antiquity here, particularly two triumphal arches, some causeways, and three gates, together with a great number of churches and convents, two commanderies, several hospitals, and courts of judicature.

Lille, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most

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regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camblets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demolish, but is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers, and may now, by an article in a late treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French ministry may please. The road lies at the distance of two miles and a half from the town, about three from the new harbour of Mardyke, and is sheltered by the Brak, a sand-bank, extending parallel to the shore two leagues E. and W. The English forces, under the Duke of York, made an unsuccessful attempt to take this town in 1793. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns; which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Valenciennes, a strong, large, and well-built city of Hainault, in the French Netherlands, on the river Scheldt. It lies about five miles S. of Tournay, lat. 50—24 N. long. 3—23 E. It is defended by a citadel, and has also sluices that can lay the country under water. Here are considerable silk and linen manufactures, with an university. The French took it from the Spaniards in 1674. The Austrians besieged it in 1792, but were obliged to raise the siege; but it was since taken by the allied army of the Imperialists, and the British forces under the duke of York.

Rochelle, or La Rochelle, is situated on the sea-coast, two leagues from the isle of Rhé, and four from Oleron; it is a handsome town, with a fine port of a circular form, and strong fortifications. Here also are a mint, a chamber of commerce, an admiralty, and other courts, an academy of Belles Lettres, a sugar refinery, and a medical, botanical, and anatomical school. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to Bourdeaux. The salt marshes affect the air of this place greatly. This city, being the chief seat of the reformed in France, suffered very much during the civil wars, and was often valiantly defended, and long possessed by that party, till at length Louis XIII. after a long and famous siege, made himself master of it in the year 1628, chiefly by the means of an admirable rampart, or bank of earth, which cardinal de Richlieu caused to be raised against it on the side of the Ocean. After it was taken, the king caused the walls and fortifications to be demolished, except only two towers, which defend the port: but Louis XIV. caused new and strong fortifications to be raised about it.

Bourdeaux, the capital of the whole government, stands on the banks of the Garonne, and is one of the most ancient and beautiful towns in France. This city, which, with its harbour, is defended by three forts, carries on a considerable trade with most parts of Eu-

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rope; the tide rising so high in the river, that ships of great burden can come up to the quay. Here is an university, an academy of sciences and fine arts, a large Gothic cathedral, dedicated to St. Andrew, besides many other churches and convents, three seminaries, an exchange and mint, a parliament, an admiralty, various courts and offices, several public fountains, some remains of antiquity, and a manufacture of lace. Foreign Protestant merchants are indulged here in the private exercise of their religion.

Rochfort, a handsome new town, situated on the Charente, was built by Louis XIV. It is strongly fortified and furnished with all the necessary magazines, storehouses, &c. for shipping, together with a fine large dock, a victualling office, and hospital for sick and wounded seamen, a foundery, a manufactory of sail-cloth, and a marine academy. The harbour here is very convenient, and the river, which is well guarded with forts all the way to its mouth, is so broad and deep, that the largest ships may come up to the town without either danger or difficulty.

Brest is a small but strong town, situated on the north side of a large commodious bay and harbour, well defended by forts, and lined with fine quays, on which are built warehouses, filled with all sorts of naval stores and provisions for seventy sail of men of war; but the entrance to it is narrow and difficult, on account of the many rocks which lie under water. The road is large enough for five hundred men of war. Here is an arsenal, an academy for sea-officers, a court of admiralty, with a building for the slaves, and a strong garrison.

The city of Toulon, which is tolerably large, and the see of a bishop, is situated on the Mediterranean, and has a fine port. Both the town and harbour are strongly fortified; having on two sides of the former high hills, at a very small distance, of which that of St. Anne on the north east perfectly commands. The entrance of the port is so narrow, that two ships cannot go into it abreast. Here is an admiralty and other courts, a great many convents, an arsenal well furnished, a large rope-house with three arched walks, a cannon foundery, a general magazine, containing an immense quantity of stores, and a manufactory of coarse woollen cloth. In August 1793, Lord Hood, the British Admiral, obtained possession of the harbour, ships, and fortresses of Toulon, on certain conditions agreed on between the King of Great-Britain and the Royalists; but on December 20 following, he evacuated the same, after destroying ten of the enemy's ships of the line in the arsenal, with the mull-house, great store-house, hemp-house, and other buildings: the admiral also took possession of the Commerce de Marseilles, Puissant, and Pompée of the line; with the Pearl, Arethusa, and Topaze frigates, besides several large corvettes.

The city of Marseilles is situated on the coast of the Mediterranean sea, and is divided into the Old and

New; the former of which is but meanly built, but the latter is large, handsome, rich, and populous, with a safe and spacious harbour, which runs up far into the city, and is well secured and fortified. It is the see of a bishop; and all the trade which is carried on from the south of France, in a great measure, centres in this place. Here the galleys of France are laid up; and here likewise is a dock for building them. The principal public buildings of this place are a noble arsenal, a mint, an observatory, an academy of fine arts, several churches, and two abbeys.

Avignon, a large and beautiful city, and the see of an archbishop, is situated at the conflux of the Rhône and Sorgue, seven miles from Arles to the north, and fifteen from Aix to the north-west. Here is a papal palace, in which the vice-legate, or governor, resided; a stone bridge over the Rhône; a very handsome college; and an university, founded in the year 1303. No less than seven popes resided here successively, from the year 1307 to 1377. In the church of the Franciscans is the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, so much admired and celebrated by the immortal Petrarch. The grave having been opened in the time of Francis I. a leaden box was found in it, containing a medal, with a copy of verses written on parchment by Petrarch, in praise of his mistress. The Jews enjoy the free exercise of their religion in this city.

LANGUEDOC, now called Gard, is bounded to the south by the Mediterranean and Roussillon; to the north by Auvergne, Lyonnais, and Guienne; to the east by the Rhône; and to the west by Gascony. It is seventy leagues in length, and, where widest, thirty-two in breadth. The principal rivers are the Rhône, Garonne, Aude, Tarn, Allier, and Loire. The royal canal of Languedoc is upwards of 100 miles in length, six feet deep every-where, and the breadth about twenty fathoms. In some places it is carried under mountains, and in others over vallies, having all along sluices, dams, reservoirs, watercourses, and draw-bridges.

Several remarkable winds are observed in this department. That called the cers blows generally from the west along the southern coasts, and is very refreshing in summer: another, called autan, blows generally from the opposite quarter, and is hot and unwholesome: and a third, called bise, or the black, blows frequently in the valley through which the Rhône runs, very strong and cold. When the wind in this valley blows from the south, unattended with rain, it is no less unwholesome than the autan. From the coasts of Leucate to the Rhône, in the heat of summer, a sea breeze sets in, from ten in the forenoon to five in the afternoon, which cools the air, that would be otherwise almost insupportable. In a valley, at the foot of the Pyrenées, there is a sharp west or north-west wind, called the le vent de pas, which blows only in the

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valley are obliged to winnow their corn in the night.
A very remarkable custom prevails in this district, which
is that of treading out their corn by horses or mules,
according to the Eastern custom, frequently alluded to
in the scriptures. The states of the province consisted
of three orders, the clergy, nobility, and commons.
The coasts of Languedoc are not only dangerous, but
destitute of safe and good harbours. The exports con-
sist chiefly of wine, oil, dried chestnuts, raisins, wool-
len cloth, stuffs, silk, and corn. The common di-
vision of the department is into Upper and Lower.

The capital of the whole department is Thoulouse, si-
tuated on the Garonne, over which it has a stately bridge,
is one of the largest and most ancient cities in France;
yet, having little trade, it is neither populous or rich.

Montpelier, situated on an eminence, near the river
Lez, is the largest city in the department next to Thou-
louse, and the see of a bishop, suffragan to Narbonne.
It contains a citadel, university, physic-garden, and
royal academy of sciences: of the fifteen ordinary fel-
lows of the latter, three apply themselves to the mathe-
matics, three to anatomy, three to chemistry, three to
botany, and three to natural philosophy. The air of
this city is deemed remarkably salubrious: the houses
are handsome, but the streets narrow; and here is a
good trade in silks, woollens, wine, strong waters, ver-
digris, &c. Montpelier is pleasantly situated, and
commands many beautiful prospects. On the Pierou
there is a fountain, which, for simplicity and beauty,
exceeds most others: the water is brought from a
mountain five miles distant. The environs of this city
are planted with vines, olive, fig, and mulberry-trees;
the latter to nourish the silk-worms, which form the
most considerable object of trade. Another thing that
brings in a considerable revenue to this city is the dis-
tillation of waters of all sorts, of *liqueurs*, and syrups,
that are famous all over Europe. This place is much
resorted to by those of the English who labour under
disorders of the lungs; whom the reputed clearness of
its atmosphere, and fame of its physicians, have lured
in hopes of a cure. Besides its university, and schools
of medicine, Montpelier boasts a royal academy of
sciences, which is composed of six honorary members,
three physicians, three astronomers, three mathema-
ticians, three chemists, and three botanists. Rabelais
is said to have been of this university; and his gown
and cap are still preserved, with a kind of religious
veneration, and used in the ceremony of conferring
the degree of doctor. Balaruc, on the Thau, not far
from Montpelier, has some warm baths, the waters of
which will retain their heat at least eight hours.

FOIX is bounded on the west by Gascoigne, on the
east and north by Languedoc, and to the south by
Roussillon and the Pyrenean mountains. It is divided
into Upper and Lower. The former is mountainous,

but abounds in wood, iron, caverns, and mineral
waters; and the latter is fruitful in corn, wine, &c.

The principal places in Upper Foix are, Foix, the
capital, situated at the foot of the Pyrenean moun-
tains. It is the seat of the assembly of the states, has
an abbey, and is defended by a castle.

ROUSSILLON (now the Eastern Pyrenees department)
is bounded on the north by the Lesser Pyrenees, on
the south by the Greater, on the west by Cerdogne,
and on the east by the Mediterranean Sea. It is twenty
leagues long, and twelve broad, and rec... its name
from a Roman colony, called Ruscinus. The h t
here, in summer, is intense; but the soil is fruitful
in corn, wine, oil, millet, oranges, &c. Sheep, quails,
partridges, and pigeons abound; but cows and oxen are
scarce. The ground is ploughed by mules; and a
great deal of oil, with some corn, millet, and wool,
are exported from the county. It is watered by the
Tet, the Tec, and the Agly, which are, properly
speaking, only torrents, produced by the melting of
the snow on the mountains. It belonged formerly to
Spain, but was yielded for ever to France by the treaty
of the Pyrenees in 1659. Besides Roussillon, this de-
partment includes a part of Cerdagne.

The principal place in Roussillon is Perpignan, the
capital, situated on the river Tet, a league from the
Mediterranean, which, though not large, is populous,
well built, and strongly fortified. It is also the see of
a bishop, suffragan to Narbonne. Here are an uni-
versity, several convents, alms-houses, hospitals, and
churches, a noble cannon-foundry, a sut-office, a
mint, and a high court of justice, to which appeals lie
from all the interior courts. The remains of the old
town of Roussillon lie on the river Tet, not far from
Perpignan.

NAVARRÉ and BEARN. The boundaries of this
department are Labourd on the west, Bigorre on the
east, Gascoigne on the north, and the Pyrenean moun-
tains on the south. Navarre, included in this depart-
ment, is but a small portion of the ancient kingdom
of Navarre, which, having been seized upon by Ferdin-
and, king of Arragon and Castile, this part alone was
restored, and became annexed to the crown of France.
It is only eight leagues in length, and five in breadth.
Navarre is barren and mountainous, and contains only
one place worth notice, viz. St. Jean-Pié-de-Port,
which is situated on the Nice, a league from the bor-
ders of Spain, and eight from Bayonne. It is well
fortified, and has a castle, commanding the pass of the
mountains.

GUYENNE and GASCONY, which is the largest depart-
ment in France, being sixty-five leagues in length, from
east to west, and fifty-six in breadth, from north to south,
is bounded on the south by the Pyrenean mountains;
on the north by Limousin, Angoumois, and Saintonge;

on the east by Languedoc and Auvergne; and on the west by the Ocean. This department is fruitful in corn, wine, fruits, hemp, tobacco, brandy, pines, and many other commodities. They have also medicinal springs, with copper, coal, and other mines, and quarries of marble of all colours. The chief rivers are the Garonne and Adour, both which discharge themselves into the Ocean.

Guyenne, properly so called, is bounded on the north by Saintonge, on the east by Perigord (now Dordogne), and Agenois, on the south by Bazadois and Gascony, and on the west by the Ocean; and contains the following places of note: Bourdeaux, the capital of the whole department, which stands on the banks of the Garonne, about twenty leagues from its mouth, and is one of the most ancient in France. It carries on a great trade with most parts of Europe, the tide rising to high in the river, that ships of great burden can come up to the quay. The city and harbour are defended by three forts. The finest parts of the former are the palace-royal near the harbour, and the suburb of Chatron. It is the see of an archbishop. Here are an university, an academy of sciences and fine arts, a large Gothic cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, several other churches and convents, three seminaries, several public fountains, an exchange, a mint, a parliament, an admiralty, several other courts and offices, some remains of antiquity, and a manufactory of lace. About six leagues below the city is a watch-tower, or light-house, called La Tour de Cordouan. Foreign Protestant merchants are indulged here in the private exercise of their religion. Richard II. king of England, was born here in 1367.

An ingenious writer comments on this city in the following picturesque manner: "The favourable impression which Bourdeaux cannot fail to make on a stranger at his arrival is well confirmed by a residence in it. Pleasure seems to have as many votaries here as commerce; luxury and indolence reigning within the same walls, and that in the most extended degree. The air of courts is ever effeminate, seductive, and voluptuous. Commercial cities are usually marked by opposite manners, and the love of gain. Avarice, powerful in its influence over the human heart, swallows up and absorbs the more soft and melting passions. Here, however, these rules are entirely controverted. Dissipation and debauchery are more openly patronized, and have made a more universal and apparent conquest, than in half the capitals of Europe."

The neighbouring district called Bourdehois, is very fruitful, particularly in vines, chestnuts, and fig-trees.

Montaubon, on the Tarne, is a handsome well built town, eight leagues from Thoulouse, and under the jurisdiction of its parliament. The bishop is likewise suffragan to the archbishop of Thoulouse. Here were an academy of Belles Lettres, several convents, a manufactory of woollen stuffs, several inferior courts of justice, &c. This town sustained considerable damage

by a dreadful inundation of the river Tarne, which began on the 14th of November 1766, and laid 1200 houses in ruins. The particulars of this melancholy disaster are thus related: The fall of the houses began in the suburb of Sapiac. The noise occasioned by their tumbling was heard in the neighbouring suburb, with the cries of several persons who called out for help; but as the water surrounded entirely the suburb of Sapiac, it was very difficult going to the assistance of the unhappy inhabitants. The river, which was prodigiously swollen and rapid, was laden with a number of trees of an enormous size, that had been torn up by the roots, and carried down along with it; a circumstance which, joined with the darkness of the night, rendered the passage of boats very dangerous. These obstacles, however, did not intimidate a mariner, who, in spite of the entreaties and tears of his wife and children, ventured to cross the river, in order to save such as were on the point of perishing. His courage roused several of his fellow boatmen to imitate him; and by means of their help no one perished. The floods continued to increase, and redouble their alarms. The inhabitants of the city, separated from the suburb by a bridge, ran to the Ville Bourbonne. At seven o'clock of the morning of Tuesday, November 18, the floods began to abate, and their decrease continued till noon. Hope immediately began to spring up in every bosom, but was soon stifled by the fill of the greatest part of the suburb of Gasseras, adjoining to that of Ville Bourbonne; and it was perceived that all the houses, even those that were yet at a distance from the waters, were tottering, and rested only on a loose earth, which the waters had already undermined. At noon the swell began again, and was continually augmenting. The consternation was then universal. Orders were given to move off all the effects. Persons of all ranks were desired to assist in the removal; and all the carriages were engaged to make the removal the more speedily. The tribunals of justice opened their halls, the monks their convents and cloisters: the churches were also offered as repositories for the effects of the people. The inhabitants of Ville Bourbonne abandoned successively their houses; and the inhabitants of the city, with an earnestness which did honour to humanity, received their unhappy neighbours, and, with marks of true tenderness, endeavoured to alluage a grief which had no bounds. The inundation increased during the whole day, and continued still augmenting till seven in the morning of November 19, when the waters were thirty-two feet above the common water level. Such an extraordinary inundation occasioned sundry neighbouring villages to be entirely overflowed, and produced the greatest ravages. In the plains the buildings were overwhelmed, the grain washed away, the cattle drowned, and the greatest part of the inhabitants found their only safety in sudden flight, or in climbing high trees, where the horrors of famine were joined to the

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The town of Bayonne is the capital of the district of Labourd, which produces some fruits; it is a pretty large city near the sea, five leagues on the borders of Spain to the north, and 120 from Paris. Being one of the keys of the kingdom on the Spanish side, it is strongly fortified. Here are a citadel, with two forts, and other works; an admiralty, a mint, several convents, and the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to Auch, and has a revenue of 19,000 livres, out of which his taxation to Rome is only 100 florins. Bayonne is most agreeably situated at the conflux of two rivers, the Adour and the Nive. The first is scarce less considerable than the Thames opposite Lambeth; and across it is a wooden bridge, which joins the place to a suburb, called Le Fauxbourg du St. Esprit. The Nive, which is small, and rises in the Pyrenees, intersects the centre of the city, and resembles one of the canals in Holland. The entrance into the Adour, which is about four miles below the town, is rendered both difficult and hazardous, from the sands, which have collected and form a bar towards the mouth. It is, notwithstanding, a very agreeable place of residence, and furnishes, in profusion, all the requisites of life.

SANTONGE and AGOUMOIS, or ANGOUMOIS, now Charente department, is twenty-five leagues long, twelve broad, and bounded on the east by Agoumois and Perigord, on the west by the Ocean, on the north by Poitou and Anjou, and on the south by the Garonne and Burdelois. The rivers are the Charante and Butonne; and the country abounds in grain, wine, saffron, fruit, salt, and mineral springs.

AUNOIS is bounded on the south and east by Saintonge, on the north by Poitou, and on the west by the Ocean. It is only ten leagues long, and about as many broad, being the smallest province in France; but is fertile in grain, pasturage, vines, &c. It has a good harbour, great quantities of salt, and lies within the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris.

POITOU (now Vendee) is bounded on the north by Touraine and Anjou; on the south by Aunois, Saintonge, and Agoumois; on the east by La Marche and part of Berry; and on the west by the Ocean. It is forty-eight leagues long, and twenty-two broad. It belonged formerly to the kings of England; but being lost by Henry VI. was re-united to the crown of France. The rivers are the Sevre-Niortoise, Vienne, and Clain. The produce and commodities are corn, cattle, and woollen stuffs; and the whole was under the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris.

The capital of the department is Poitiers, situated on the river Clain; it is large, and contains many churches, several abbeys, convents, and courts of justice, some remains of Roman antiquities, an university,

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a mint, and manufactories of woollen caps, stockings, gloves, and combs. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux. In the year 1356, the French were defeated by the English, under Edward the Black Prince, near this town, and John, their king, taken prisoner.

BRITANNY, (Finisterre) is a peninsula, which borders on Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou, towards the east only, all the other parts being bounded by the sea. It is sixty leagues long, forty-five broad, and had its name from the Britons, who fled hither from the Saxons in the tenth century. It is watered by the Loire and Vilaine, and abounds in lead, pit-coal, wood, salt, butter, cattle, &c. has many good harbours on the coast, and contains abundance of seamen, fishermen, &c. The air is but indifferent. The province had a parliament of its own; and the people speak a jargon somewhat resembling the Welsh.

Rennes, the honorary capital of Bretagne, because the states assembled there, is situated at the conflux of the Isle and the Vilaine, about fourteen leagues from the sea, it is pretty large and populous, the seat of several courts, and also of a bishop, who is suffragan to Tours. Here were a number of convents and churches, besides the cathedral. Some of the principal streets are handsome, as the conflagration in the year 1720, which almost reduced the whole place to ashes, obliged the inhabitants to rebuild them. In one of the squares is a fine statue, in bronze, of Louis XV. It was erected by the province in 1744, soon after his recovery from that dangerous illness in Flanders, when he obtained the title of "Bien Aimé." Beneath the prince appears, on one side, Hegeya, the goddess of health, with her serpent and patera; and on the other is the genius of Bretagne kneeling on one knee, and in her countenance exultation and reverence finely marked. At the foot of the pedestal is an honorary inscription in Latin.

The city of St. Malo is small, but populous; it is situated on a little island (which is joined to the continent by a mole or causeway, at the head of which is a strong fort) on the northern coast of Brittany. Here are a court of admiralty, several fine monasteries and churches, and a large harbour, but of difficult access. For the defence of the town and harbour, there are several forts, and other works, with a good garrison.—The bishop is temporal lord of the city, and suffragan to the archbishop of Tours. The trade of the town is very considerable; in particular it sends a number of ships to the cod fishery; and, in time of war, fits out many privateers. The castle was built by the celebrated Anne of Bretagne, who annexed the duchy to the crown of France, by her marriage with Charles VIII. Being asked by the engineer, who constructed it, what plan she would chuse as its model, she replied, "My coach." It is so in effect. A large square area within constitutes the body; two small towers, in

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the fore part, answer to the fore wheels of a carriage; as two others of superior size do to the hinder ones; a projection in front forms the pole; and an arched nich behind corresponds to the place where the laquais stand.

NORMANDY department, now called Calvados and Eure, extends from east to west 60 leagues, and from north to south about thirty leagues. It is bounded on the south by Maine, Perche, and Beauce; on the north by the British-Channel; on the west by Brittany; and on the east by the Isle of France and Picardy. It is fruitful in corn, flax, hemp, fruit, and pasturage; and abounds in wood, coals, cattle, madder, woad, mineral-waters, iron, copper, &c. The rivers are the Seine, Eure, Andelle, Rille, Dive, Lezon, Carentone, Aure, Antes, Arne, Drome, &c.

ROUEN, the capital of the department, stands on the north bank of the Seine, in a valley, almost surrounded with hills, 22 leagues from Paris to the north-west, is the seat of a parliament and admiralty, and of several other courts, offices, and churches; and also of an archbishop. In one of the towers of the cathedral is a bell of an enormous size. The bridge of boats over the Seine is a great curiosity, being paved like a street, and rising and falling with the tide. Besides other tombs of great persons in the cathedral, is that of John duke of Bedford, who was regent of France under our king Henry VI. The trade of this city is very considerable, the tide of flood rising so high, that vessels of above 200 tons can come up to it, though it is twelve leagues from the mouth of the river. In the place Aux Veaux, is a statue of the Maid of Orleans, kneeling before Charles VII. William I. furnished the Conqueror, died here. In one of the suburbs are several mineral springs.

CAEN is situated at the conflux of the Orne and Odon. Here are a castle, an university, an academy of sciences, and many churches and convents, with several courts and offices. It is a place of good trade. William the Conqueror was interred in the abbey of St. Stephen in this city, which he had founded.

CHERBURG, fourteen leagues north of Coutance, has a small commodious harbour, and, by the flowing of the waves, is every tide almost surrounded by the sea. This town was taken by the English in 1758, and the fortifications demolished, together with the famous bastion.

The little town of **Mont St. Michael**, with an abbey and castle, is built on a rock, in the middle of a sandy shore, which, at high-water, is overflowed. The abbey has been much resorted to by pilgrims. As this place is distinguished by some remarkable circumstances, we shall give the following ample and entertaining description of it, in the words of an ingenious traveller.

"This extraordinary rock (for it is no more) rises in the middle of the bay of Avranches. Nature has completely fortified one side by its craggy and almost

perpendicular descent, which renders it impracticable for courage or address, however consummate, to scale or mount it. The other parts are surrounded by walls, fenced with semilunar towers in the Gothic manner; but sufficiently strong, superadded to the advantages of its situation, to despise all attacks. At the foot of the mountain begins a street or town, which winds round its base to a considerable height. Above are chambers where prisoners of state are kept, and other buildings intended for residence; and on the summit is erected the abbey itself, occupying a prodigious space of ground, and of a strength and solidity equal to its enormous size; since it has stood all storms, in this elevated and exposed situation, during many centuries. I spent the whole afternoon in the different parts of this edifice: and as the Swifs, who conducted me through them, found he could not gratify my curiosity too minutely, he left no apartment or chamber un-
seen.

"The **Salc de Chevalerie**, or **Knights-Hall**, reminded me of that at Marienbourg, in Polish Prussia.—It is equally spacious, but more barbarous and rude, because some hundred years prior in its erection. Here the knights of St. Michael used to meet in solemn convocation on important occasions. They were the defenders and guardians of the mountain and abbey, as those of the temple, and of St. John of Jerusalem, were to the holy sepulchre. At one end is a painting of the archangel, the patron of their order: and in this hall Louis XI. first instituted, and invested with the insignia of knighthood, the chevaliers of the cross of St. Michael.

"We passed on through several lesser rooms into a long passage, on one side of which the Swifs opened a door, and through a narrow entrance, perfectly dark, he led me, by a second door, into an apartment, or dungeon (for it rather merited the latter than the former appellation) in the middle of which stood a cage. It was composed of prodigious wooden bars; and the wicket, which admitted into it, was ten or twelve inches thick. I went into the inside. The space it comprised was about twelve or fourteen feet square; and it might be nearly twenty in height. This was the abode of many eminent victims in former ages, whose names and miseries are now obliterated and forgotten.

"There was, said my conductor, towards the latter end of the last century, a certain news-writer in Holland, who had presumed to print some very severe and sarcastic reflections on Madame de Maintenon, and Louis XIV. Some months after he was induced, by a person sent expressly for that purpose, to make a tour into French Flanders. The instant he had quitted the Dutch territories, he was put under arrest, and immediately, by his majesty's express command, conducted to this place. They shut him up in this cage. Here he lived upwards of 23 years; and here he, at length, expired. During the long nights of winter, continued
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the man, no candle or fire was allowed him. He was not permitted to have any book. He saw no human face except the jailor, who came once every day to present him, through a hole in the wicket, his little portion of bread and wine. No instrument was given him with which he could destroy himself; but he found means at length to draw out a nail from the wood, with which he cut or engraved, on the bars of his cage, certain fleurs-de-lis, and armorial bearings, which formed his only employment and recreation.—These I saw, and they are, indeed, very curiously performed with so rude a tool.

"It is now fifteen years, said the Swiss, since a gentleman terminated his days in that cage. It was before I came to reside here. But there is one instance within my own memory. Monsieur de F——, a person of rank, was conducted here by command of the king. He remained three years shut up in it. I fed him myself every day; but he was allowed books and candle to alleviate his misery; and at length the abbot, touched with his deplorable calamities, requested and obtained the royal pardon. He was set free accordingly.

"The subterranean chambers, added he, in this mountain are so numerous, that we know them not ourselves. There are certain dungeons, called Oubliettes, into which they were accustomed anciently to let down malefactors guilty of very heinous crimes.—They provided them with a loaf of bread and a bottle of wine; and then they were totally forgotten, and left to perish by hunger in the dark vaults of the rock.—This punishment has not, however, been inflicted by any king in the last or present century.

"We continued our progress through the abbey.—He led me into a chamber, in one corner of which was a kind of window. Between this and the wall of the building was a very deep space, or hollow, of near an hundred feet perpendicular; and at the bottom was another window opening to the sea: it is called the Hole of Montgomeri. The history of it is this. In the year 1559, Henry II. king of France, was unfortunately killed at a tournament by the count de Montgomeri. It was not intended on that nobleman's part; and he was forced, contrary to his inclination, to push the lance against his sovereign, by his express command. He was a Hugonot; and having escaped the massacre of Paris and Coligny, made head against the royal forces in Normandy, supported by our Elizabeth with arms and money. Being driven from his fortresses in those parts, he retired to a rock, called the Tombelaine. This is another similar to the Mont St. Michael, only three quarters of a league distant from it, and of nearly equal dimensions. At that time there was a castle on it, afterwards demolished, and of which scarce any vestiges now remain. From this fastness, only accessible at low tides, he continually made excursions and annoyed the enemy, who never dared to attack him. He coined money, laid all the adjacent

country under contribution, and rendered himself universally dreaded. Desirous, however, to surprize the Mont St. Michael, he found means to engage one of the monks resident in the abbey, who promised to give him the signal for his enterprize, by displaying a handkerchief. The treacherous monk having made the signal, betrayed him, and armed all his associates, who waited Montgomeri's arrival. The chieftain came, attended by fifty chosen soldiers, desperate, and capable of any attempt. They crossed the sand, and having placed their scaling ladders, mounted one by one: as they came to the top, they were dispatched each in turn, without noise. Montgomeri, who followed last, at length discovered the perfidy, and escaped with only two of his men, with whom he regained the Tombelaine. They preserve, with great care, the ladders and grappling-irons used on this occasion. The count himself was at last besieged and taken prisoner, by the Marschal de Matignon, in 1574, at Domfront, in Normandy; and Catharine of Medicis, who detested him for his having been, though innocently, the cause of her husband's death, ordered him to be immediately executed.

"The church itself detained me a long time, and is matter of high curiosity. It rests on nine pillars of most enormous dimensions, which stand upon the solid rock. I did not measure them; but as far as the gloominess of the place would admit, I apprehend that each of them must be five-and-twenty feet in circumference. Besides these, there are two others, of much inferior size, which support the centre of the church, over which is the tower. If the prodigious incumbent weight be considered, and the nature of its situation, nothing less massy could sustain the edifice. They seem as if designed to outlive the ravages of time, and the convulsions of nature. The building was begun in 966, when Richard, the second duke of Normandy, began to erect the abbey. It was completed about the year 1070, under William the Conqueror; though many other additions were made by succeeding abbots.

"The treasury is crowded with relics innumerable, among which some few have a real and intrinsic value. There is a fine head of Charles VI. of France, cut in crystal, which drew my attention. They have got, heaven knows by what means, an arm of Edward the Confessor's; and they shewed me another of St. Richard, king of England. Who this faint and prince was, I confess, is beyond my comprehension. I am sure they could not term Richard I. so, unless his cruelty against Saladine wiped out all his sins, and canonized him. Richard II. has no better pretensions to sanctity. I do not mention him who fell at Bosworth: so that who this royal faint was, I must leave you to divine. As to the monks, they know nothing about it; but they were positive he was a king of England. An enormous golden cockle-shell, weighing many pounds, given to Richard, the second duke of Normandy,

Normandy, when he founded the abbey, is worthy remark.

"The refectory, cloisters, and cells of the monks, have been magnificent and spacious; but a vast sum of money is wanted to put the whole in repair, and reinstate what the lapse of ages has defaced and deformed."

HAVRE-DE-GRACE, which constitutes part of Upper Normandy, was under the jurisdiction of the parliament of that province. Havre-de-Grace, is a strong sea-port town at the mouth of the Seine, 12 leagues west of Rouen, well built, strongly fortified, has an excellent harbour, a good trade, is the seat of the department, and contains several courts of justice.—Harfleur, on the Lizard, eight leagues from Havre-de-Grace, has some concern in the cod and herring fisheries, by means of a small harbour; is defended by a castle, and contains manufactories of tanned leather, hats, laces, serges, linens, woollen cloths, &c.

MAINE (MAYENNE), PERCHE, and the county of Laval, are comprised in one.—Maine is bounded by Perche on the east, by Brittany and Anjou towards the west, by Touraine and Vendemois towards the south, and by Normandy to the north. It is 30 leagues long, 20 broad, fruitful in corn, wine, wood, pasture, &c. and contains some iron-works, slate, free-stone, quarries of marble, mineral-waters, &c. Its rivers are the Loire, Sarthe, Haine, and Mayenne; and this department, as well as Perche, was subject to the parliament of Paris.

Mans, the capital of the whole department, situated on the river Sarthe, is a very ancient city, and the see of a bishop, suffragan to Tours. There are many churches here, several convents, inferior courts of judicature, with a college, and salt-office.

That part of this department called Perche, is bounded on the east by Chartrain and Tiverais, on the west and north by Normandy, and on the south by Mayenne, being 15 leagues in length, and 12 in breadth. The country abounds in cattle, sheep, corn, flax, hay, mineral-waters, iron-mines, and cyder.

In this department is La Trappe, a celebrated abbey of Cistercian monks, who are remarkable for the austerities of their manners. It stands between the cities of Seez, Montagne, Verneuil, and Laigle, in a large vale surrounded with hills and forests, which seem designed to hide it from the rest of the world. It was founded in the year 1140, by a count of Perche. But the monks being, in process of time, fallen into a great remissness of manners and discipline, a very strict reformation was introduced in this abbey in the year 1662, by Armand John Bouthillier de Rance, the commendatory abbot.

Some particulars of their singular manner of living, and of the austerities which they practise, are thus poetically described:

"Here flocks the train to whom indulgent heav'n
"The precious gift of penitence has given;
"Who, cloyster'd here, feel heav'n's inspiring breath,
"Nor fear to triumph o'er eternal death.
"For this we strive; long e'er the morn appears
"We rise, we pray, we bathe the ground with tears;
"Then haste to labour, drain the putrid fen,
"Or break th' ungrateful ground of other men.
"Th' unheaded roots we gather yield us bread,
"The spring our beverage, and the earth our bed.
"When midnight hour to new devotion calls,
"We rise with awe, and bless those rev'rend walls,
"Where faints and martyrs kiss'd the chaff'ning rod,
"Despis'd the world, and rested on their God.
"Let pride unlock ambition's sanguine springs,
"And wadded nations curse despotic kings;
"No strong alarms this lone retreat infests;
"We live in peace, and peaceful sink to rest.
"Here pure religion tolls our only bell;
"Here true devotion warms each humble cell;
"Here contemplation clears the clouded eye,
"Expands the soul, and lifts it to the sky.
"Mean while, dear friend, my simple shroud I spread,
"And now prepare my last and welcome bed.
"Here, here, my friend, my plain rough coffin stands,
"Prepar'd and wrought by these laborious hands,
"It calms my spirits, drives vain thoughts away,
"And reconciles me to my kindred clay."

ORLEANNOIS (now Loire department) consists of several districts, and is bounded on the north by Normandy, on the east by Champagne and Burgundy, on the south by Nivernois and Berry, and on the west by Touraine and Maine; including Orleannois Proper, Chartrain, or Beauce Proper, Vendemois, Blaisois, Solagne, Demois, Perche Gouet, and Gationis Orleannois. The whole department was subject to the parliament of Paris.

Orleannois Proper abounds in cattle, game, and fish; yields grain, wine, fruit, and wood; and contains, the following places:—Orleans, the capital, not only of Orleannois Proper, but of the whole department, stands on the northern bank of the Loire, 20 leagues south of Paris. Over the river is a fine stone bridge, leading into a suburb on the south side of the river. It is one of the largest cities in the kingdom, and contains several inferior courts of justice, with an university, a public library, a stately Gothic cathedral, and a great number of other churches, some of which are collegiate; a public walk, planted with several rows of trees; some sugar-houses, a manufactory of stockings and sheep skins, and a seminary. It carries on a great trade in brandy, wine, spices, and several manufactures, which, with many other commodities, are conveyed from hence to Paris, and other places, by means of the Loire, and the canal which takes its name from the city. To the north of the city is a forest, the largest in the whole kingdom, formerly belonging to the duke of Orleans.

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Ever since the year 1344 this city has been a dukedom and peerage, and usually an appendage of some prince of the blood. Louis XIV. gave it to his brother Philip, who begun and finished the canal, in whose family it still continues. The duties paid by vessels going up and down the canal amounts, in some years, to 150,000 livres. The bishop of this city is suffragan to the archbishop of Paris. On the 8th of May 1429, Orleans, then closely besieged by the English, was relieved by Joan of Arc, commonly called the Maid of Orleans; and the anniversary of that deliverance is still kept here. To perpetuate the memory of it, a monument of brass was erected on the bridge. In the Hotel de Ville is a portrait of the same extraordinary and immortal woman. It was done in the year 1581, and is the oldest extant. The painter seems to have drawn a flattering resemblance, and to have decorated her with imaginary charms. Her face, though long, is of exceeding beauty, heightened by an expression of intelligence and grandeur rarely united. Her hair falls loosely down her back. She wears a sort of bonnet enriched with pearls, and shaded with white plumes, tied under her chin with a fillet. About her neck is a little band; and lower down on her bosom a necklace, composed of small links. Her habit fits close to the body, and is cut or slashed at the arms or elbows. Round her waist is an embroidered girdle; and in her right hand she wields the sword with which she expelled the enemies of her country.

The following account of a remarkable execution at Orleans, as related by an ingenious traveller, may serve as a specimen of those dreadful spectacles:—"When we came to Orleans, we learnt that a criminal was to be broke alive at eleven o'clock that evening; and, in our rambles through the streets, saw the scaffold, wheel, and preparations for the execution. The papers of the condemnation were sold as last dying speeches are about the streets of London. By one of these I learnt, that the poor wretch was convicted of belonging to a troop of thieves that infested the forest of Orleans; and of conveying them provisions, arms, and necessaries. It was in this deputation of providing for his companions that he was surpris'd and taken. He had entered the city disguised as a peasant, and, after he had executed his commission, might have rejoined them in safety, had he not taken it into his head to brave the police by committing a daring robbery, and increasing the stores he meant to convey to them. But his unlucky star was in the zenith; for, after having robbed a house, and bound every person in it, he was seized as he was decamping with his booty. His sentence was to have the question ordinary and extraordinary, in order to oblige him to discover the haunts of his comrades; and afterwards to have, as the sentence ran, 'His arms, legs, thighs, and reins broken alive upon a scaffold, to be erected for that purpose, at the place of execution belonging to this city, and to remain on a wheel, with his face turned towards the heavens, till he expires.'

No. 44.

"When the time drew near for his tremendous sentence to be executed, I walked out with a gentleman, to see the procession of the criminal, intending to return as soon as the borreau (or executioner) was about to begin his office. My friend's imagination had already presented to him a picture sufficiently horrid; and as he had no inclination to heighten it with the reality, he staid at the auberge. The *place du Martroi* is a large square, capable of holding a vast concourse of people. However, I found it filled, though not thronged, with males and females, not only of the vulgar class, but some in embroidery and silks. They were walking in parties, as though they only came to enjoy the benefit of air and exercise. I was quite surpris'd to see a multitude of young girls, whose delicate nerves, I should have imagined, would have been agitated at even the recital of human misery, flocking to see the exposition of it, as if they expected a *feu d'artifice*.

"The scaffold was about 20 feet square; and raised 5 feet above the ground. The stake that supported one corner of it, appeared three feet above the boards, and had a common wheel of four feet diameter, fixed by the nave on it, as on its axis. We were examining this, when the borreau brought some ropes, and a triangular bar of iron, the instrument of terror. As soon as his torch was seen on the scaffold, the houses around were crowded at the windows, with spectators of all ranks and denominations. Soon after came the guards on horseback, with the criminal in a cart. He was lifted out by the borreau, having nothing on but his shirt, and was attended by two monks, with torches flaming in their hands. I then attempted to retire, but crowds were pressing on me behind, and I found it impossible, without danger of being trodden to death. The poor wretch who was to suffer I judged to be about 28 or 30 years of age. He did not wring his hands, or shew any marks of terror and contrition in tears or cries; but looked round on the spectators, in a manner that has often, I am persuaded, been falsely attributed to unconcern, and a hardened heart. But if I might judge by his countenance, though he looked round, he looked at nothing: his thoughts were harrowed up; and that vacant horror which appeared in his eyes, seem'd to shew that the faculties of the soul stood aloof from the body, even before the moment of their final separation.

"When the executioner had brought him to the middle of the scaffold, he proceeded to strip his shirt from his arms down to his waist, and then to bind him to a cross, as it appeared to me. It was plain what effect the torture of the question extraordinary had, as every joint was covered with blood, and he was incapable of walking. The question is not always the same; but by this I imagine that he had been stretched on a bed, till some of his veins and ligaments had burst. The monks now began to talk to him, and to repeat some prayers; and soon after turning from him began to sing, I suppose, a hymn. All this time I found myself violently agitated;

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agitated; how, I cannot describe; my sensations were such as I never felt before. I accused myself of cruel curiosity, and whilst he was binding made another attempt to get at a distance, as I was close to the scaffold; but my companion told me I could not pass the hedge, and gave me a phial of liquor to drink, which he had taken the precaution to put in his pocket. Immediately as the monks turned their backs, the borreau caught up the bar, and finished his dreadful office of breaking the limbs, in less than a minute, without a single shriek from the poor criminal. The blows were as rapid as he could strike them, one on each leg, and each thigh, two on each arm, and two on the ribs. He then laid the mangled carcase on the wheel, which he brought forwards, and laid on the corner stake, which I mentioned as placed above the scaffold. Here, with his assistants, he folded each limb, so that every fracture appeared; and bound him in the manner in which he was to be exposed. The monks, after this, began to talk to him again; and what surprised me was, that he turned his head, and seemed able to attend, and to answer. In this situation I thought, according to his sentence, he was to be left to linger till he expired, from the anguish of his broken limbs; but the borreau had not yet shewn the compassionate part of his office; for soon after he brought a rope over the criminal's breast, and straining it, put, in a minute, a period to his life and misery.

"The morning we left Orleans we saw him exposed on the wheel, at the entrance of the forest, with seven or eight-and-twenty others, who had undergone the same punishment. This is an execution of which I never was before, nor ever will be again, a spectator."

NIVERNOS (now the department of Nievre) within the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris, was before the Revolution a dukedom and peerage. It is bounded on the south by Bourbonnois, on the north by Gatinois and Aurenois, on the west by Berry, and on the east by Burgundy, being about 20 leagues in extent both ways, as it is nearly of a circular form, and yielding corn, wine, fruit, wood, pit-coal, iron-ore, and mineral springs. The most barren and mountainous part of it is the district of Morvaot. It is watered by several rivers, of which three are navigable, viz. the Loire, the Allier, and the Yonne.—Nevers is the capital of the district, and takes its name from the rivulet Nievre, in Latin Niveris, which, with the Allier, falls near the town into the Loire. Here are several churches, convents, and courts of justice, with manufactories of glass, white-iron, and earthen-ware; and a stately stone bridge over the Loire. The bishop of this town is lord of three castles, and suffragan to Sens. About two leagues from hence, at the village of Ponges, in the road to Paris, is a noted mineral spring.

BOURBONNOIS (now Allier department) is bounded on the south by Auvergne (now Cantal) on the north by Berry and Nivernois, on the east by Burgundy and Forez, and on the west by Upper Marche (Creuse). It is 30 leagues long, 20 broad, fruitful in corn, wine, and pasture; and is watered by the Loire, Allier, and Cher. From its ancient dukes the late royal family of France are descended. This department had belonged to the prince of Condé, whose authority was very great; but causes of importance were referred to the parliament of Paris.

The capital, Moulins, on the Allier, received its name from the numerous mills in its vicinity. It contains several churches, convents, courts of judicature, manufactories of hardware, iron, steel, &c. and is, upon the whole, a handsome populous town. In the church belonging to the nuns of the Visitation is the magnificent tomb of duke Henry II. of Montmorency, who fell a sacrifice to the resentment of cardinal Richelieu; and near the town there is an admirable mineral spring.—Bourbon le Archambaud, five leagues west of Moulins, is remarkable for its mineral waters, hot and cold, and for stones resembling diamonds and cut glass, which are found in the rocks near the town.—Mont Lucan, near the Cher, with a stone bridge over that river, has several convents, churches, and courts of judicature, with a salt office and hospital; and a neighbouring market-town, named Neris, has some excellent hot baths.

LIONNOIS department (comprising Rhône and Loire) contains the provinces Lionnois, Forez, and Beaujolois; and is bounded to the north by Maconnois and Burgundy; to the south by Vivarais and Velais; to the east the Soane and the Rhône part it from Breille and Dauphiné; and to the west it terminates on Auvergne (Cantal). It produces corn, wine, and fruits, particularly excellent chestnuts, with pit-coal and mineral springs; and about four leagues from Lyons is a mine of copper and vitriol. Appeals lay from hence to the parliament of Paris. The principal rivers of the department are the Rhône, the Soane, and the Loire. Under the governor in chief, as in all the other provinces, were several sub-governors.—Lionnois, properly so called, is twelve leagues long, and seven broad. Anciently it was subject either to counts, or to the archbishop and chapter of Lyons.

AUVERGNE (now Pays de Dome department) which is within the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris, is bounded on the south by the Cevennes, on the north by Bourbonnois, on the east by Forez, and on the west by Limosin, Quercy, and La Marche. It is 40 leagues long, and 30 broad, and divided into Upper and Lower.

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The rivers are the Allier, the Dargogne, and the Alagnon; the manufactures are silks, stuffs, cloths, laces, iron-works, paper; and the produce corn, wine, cattle, cheese, coals, &c.

In Upper Auvergne are:—St. Fluor, the capital, which is situated at the foot of Mount Cantal, one of the highest in Auvergne. It took its name from that of a bishop, who having come hither from Languedoc to preach the gospel towards the end of the fourth century, died, and was buried here. It is now the see of a bishop, who is lord of the city, though subject, in spirituals, to the archbishop of Bourges. Here is a considerable traffic in rye and mules, as well as in knives, carpets, and cloths.—Anrillac contains several convents, inferior courts of judicature, manufactories of tapettry and lace, a castle, &c.

In Lower Auvergne are:—Clermont, the capital of the whole province, situated near the mountain called Pui de Dommé, 14 leagues from St. Fleur to the north, betwixt the rivers Artier and Bedat. It was built by the emperor Augustus, and thence was anciently called Augustonemetum, or Augustonemofum. Here are several churches, besides the cathedral; many courts of justice, abbies, convents, &c. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges. In the neighbourhood of the town are several petrifying springs; one of which, in the suburb of St. Allire, has formed a solid rock, and a kind of bridge, under which the rivulet of Piridaine passes.

Of this natural curiosity, and of the town itself, we have the following accurate and authentic account from an intelligent traveller: "The situation of Clermont is agreeable, on a little eminence, to which the access is gradual and easy. The place itself seems to have been built in an age the most barbarous. The streets are so narrow and winding, that no carriage can enter them, and the buildings correspond to the other parts; but, to compensate for the inconvenience, the suburbs are charming, and the houses modern and elegant. I visited, this morning, the petrifying spring which Charles IX. is said to have surveyed with so much wonder and pleasure. It is only a quarter of a mile from the town. In the course of ages it has formed a ridge of stone, or incrustation, not less than 16 feet in height, above 100 feet long, and, in some parts, near 10 in thickness. As it impeded, and, at length, totally stopped the current of a little rivulet which intersected its course, the inhabitants were obliged to dig a passage through it. The stream is now directed into another channel, and has begun to form a new bridge across the rivulet into which it falls."

LIMOSIN (now the department of Upper Vienne) is bounded on the east by Auvergne, on the west by Angoumois and Perigord, on the south by Quercy, and on the north by Poitou and La Marche. It is 25 leagues long, and near as many broad; the whole be-

ing divided into Upper and Lower. The upper parts are cold and mountainous, the lower warm and fruitful; the produce being rye, barley, buck-wheat, chestnuts, oxen, cows, horses, &c. also lead, tin, copper, iron, and steel. The rivers are the Vienne, the Vézère, and the Dordogne.—The government was superintended by a chief governor, a general-lieutenant, and two sub-governors; but the whole was under the jurisdiction of the parliament of Bourdeaux.

In Upper Limosin are:—Limoges, on the Vienne, 165 leagues south of Paris, the capital of the whole department, which contains three abbies and convents, is the seat of several courts of judicature, and the see of a bishop. Here are manufactories of paper, leather, and woollen cloths; four aqueducts, constructed by the Romans, and other remains of antiquity.—St. Leonard, on the Vienne, contains a chapter, and manufactories of paper and cloth; and St. Iriez, on the Isle, hath likewise a chapter, and some considerable iron-mines in the neighbourhood.—Chalus, a town and castle situated at the spring of the Tardouère, one of the rivers that fall into the Charente, is six leagues distant from Limoges to the north-west. This little city has the title of a county or earldom, and belonged formerly to the viscounts of Limoges.

It happened that a gentleman of Limosin found upon his estate a treasure, which had been buried there many ages before. It consisted of the statues of an emperor and his consort, sitting round a table with their children, the whole being of solid gold. Richard I. king of England, who was then master of Limosin, pretended that the treasure belonged to him as sovereign lord of the country where it was found. The gentleman was willing to give him part of it; but seeing that the king claimed the whole, he implored the protection of the viscount of Limosin, who gave him leave to take sanctuary in his castle of Chalus. Richard going to besiege the place, was wounded with an arrow shot by a cross-bow-man, and died of the wound April 6, 1199. There is a famous horse-fair kept here every year on St. George's day.

In Lower Limosin are:—Tulle, the capital, at the conflux of the Coureze and Solan. It is the see of a bishop, who is temporal lord of the town, and suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges. Here are several inferior courts of judicature, and convents.

LA MARCHE (now the department of Creuse) is bounded on the south by Limosin, on the north by Berry, on the west by Poitou, and on the east by Auvergne; being about 22 leagues from east to west, and eight or ten from north to south, and lying within the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris. It is watered by the Vienne, the Cher, the Creuse, and the Gartempe; and is not only fruitful in corn, but produces wine. It was a dukedom and peerage, and, besides a chief-governor, had two sub-governors.—Gueret, the capital of the

the province, is situated in the Upper Marche, on the river Gartempe. Here are several inferior courts of justice, with a college, two convents, a priory, and an hospital. Anthony Varillas, the historian, was born, and founded a convent here.—Aubusson, on the river Creuse, has a manufactory of tapistry, and belongs to the duke de la Feuillade, whose surname is d'Aubusson.

BERRY (now Cher department) is bounded on the south by Bourbonnois and Marche, on the north by Orleannois, and on the west by Nivernois; its greatest length being about 35 leagues, and its breadth about 28. Its name, and that of its capital, Bourges, are derived from the ancient Bituriges, surnamed Cubi, to distinguish them from the other Bituriges, called Vibisci, who were those of Bourdeaux. The air of this department is temperate, and the soil fruitful, producing wheat, rye, wine, good fruit, a great deal of flax and hemp, and fine pasture, both for sheep and black cattle. Near Vierzon is a mine of ochre, and near Bourges are quarries of stone. Here are several rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Creuse, the Cher, the Large and Lesser Soudre, the Indre, the Orron, the Awrette, the Moulon, and the Evre. There is also a lake, called the lake of Villiers, which is pretty large.

TOURAINÉ (now Indre and Loire department) is bounded to the south by Berry and Poitou, to the north by the river Maine, to the west by Anjou, and to the east by Orleannois; its greatest breadth being 22 leagues, and its length 24. It is watered by several rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Cher, the Creuse, and the Vienne. The climate is very mild, and the soil, in general, fertile. In the country of Noyers are mines of iron and copper. This district had formerly counts of its own; but, in 1202, was united with the crown; and in 1356, was raised to a dukedom and peerage. It lay within the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris, and, besides a chief governor, had a general lieutenant, and a sub-governor.—Tours, the capital of the department, which also takes its name from it, is situated on the Loire. Here is a fine bridge over that river, several inferior courts of justice, many churches and convents, a mint, a salt-office, an academy, and is the see of an archbishop. The cathedral is a fine building, containing a library, in which are some ancient manuscripts. This city is free, the people paying no taille, or tillage. In 737 Charles Martel defeated the Saracens near this place with a very great slaughter. Here is a silk and cloth manufactory.—At Amboise, a town situated at the conflux of the Amasse and Loire, Charles VIII. was born and died. The name of Hugonot had its rise in this town, wherein also the civil war broke out in 1561. Besides a salt-office, an hospital, and two churches, here are several convents and inferior courts of justice.—At Loches,

situated on the river Indre, seven leagues from Amboise, is a strong castle, in one of the subterraneous passages of which Louis Sforza, duke of Milan, was kept prisoner ten years. In one of the two cages also, which are kept in this castle, cardinal Balve, bishop of Algiers, was confined by Louis XII.—Chiffon, on the Vienne, has four churches, and a number of convents. The celebrated Rabelais was a native of this town; and, A. D. 1189, Henry II. king of England, died in the castle here. Ten leagues south of Tours is La Haye, the birth-place of the great philosopher Des Cartes.

ANJOU (now the department of Mayne and Loir) which is 26 leagues long, and 24 broad, is bounded by Poitou to the south, by Maine to the north, by Touraine to the east, and by Bretagne to the west. It is fruitful, pleasant, well watered, and was within the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris. Angers, the capital, situated on the Mayenne, is a large city, being the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Tours. It contains, besides the cathedral, many churches, of which some are collegiate, a strong castle, several abbeys and convents, a salt-office, and a mint. Here also are several inferior courts of justice, a seminary, an academy, an university, and some remains of Roman antiquities. The first walls of the city were built by John, king of England, and duke of Anjou. The inhabitants are employed chiefly in bleaching wax and linen, refining sugar, and making camblets, serges, and fine woollen stuffs, striped with silk and gold. It is proverbially said of Angers, that, "It stands low, has high steeples, rich whores, and poor scholars."—At Chateau-Gontier, on the river Maïenne, are a castle, several churches and convents, with manufactories of linen cloth and serges, and mineral springs.—Saumur is a town on the south bank of the river Loire, over which it has a stone bridge, six leagues from Angers to the south. Here are a castle, several convents, churches, and inferior courts of justice, together with an university, and some trade in salt-petre, sugar, steel, iron-works, medals, rings, chaplets, and strings of beads. It was one of the cautionary towns given to the Protestants; and during the time of its being in their hands, the celebrated John Cameron, a Scotch divine, was for some time professor of divinity in the university. The district is called Saumurois; and the governor of that, as well as the town and castle, is independent of the governor of the department. While the town was in the hands of the Protestants it was opulent, but has declined since its being re-possessed by the Roman-Catholics.—At Doë, three leagues west of Saumur, is a fountain in the form of a horse-shoe, which is one of the greatest curiosities in France.

In addition to the Table of Departments given at the beginning of our description of this extensive country, and in order to render the whole as complete,

clear, and a new geography of the continent, printing the them.

According to the metropolitan of the latter of these nations: follow

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No. 44

clear, and intelligible as may be, we shall here subjoin a new geographical account of France, as divided by the constituent assembly, in 1791, into circles, comprising the several sees and departments belonging to them.

According to the present division, there are ten metropolitan circles, and eighty-three departments; each of the latter having an archiepiscopal or episcopal see. Of these metropolitan circles, and the dioceses in each, the following is an account:

I. CIRCLE OF THE COAST OF THE CHANNEL.

[The places marked thus * are newly created.]

Archiepiscopal See—**ROUEN**, in the Department of the Lower Seine.

<i>Episcopal Sees.</i>	<i>Departments.</i>
Bayeux	Calvados
Coutances	Manche, <i>Channel</i>
Seez	Orne
Eureux	Eure
Beauvais	Oise
Amiens	Somme
St. Omer	Pas de (<i>Straits of</i>) Calais

II. CIRCLE OF THE NORTH-EAST.

Archiepiscopal See—**RHEIMS**, in the Department of the Marne.

Verdun	Meuse
Nancy	Meurthe
Metz	Moselle
Sedan*	Ardennes
Soissons	Aisne
Cambray	The North

III. CIRCLE OF THE EAST.

Archiepiscopal See—**BESANCON**, in the Department of the Doubs.

Colmar*	Upper Rhine
Straßburgh	Lower Rhine
St. Diez	Vosges
Vesoul*	Upper Saone
Langres	Upper Marne
Dijon	Cote d'Or
St. Claude	Jura

IV. CIRCLE OF THE NORTH-WEST.

Archiepiscopal See—**RENNES**, in the Department of Ille and Vilaine.

St. Brioux	North-Coast
Quimper	Finisterre
Vannes	Morbihan
Nantes	Lower Loire

No. 44.

Episcopal Sees.

Departments.

Angers	Mayenne and Loire
Mans	Sarthe
Laval*	Mayenne

V. CIRCLE OF PARIS.

Archiepiscopal See—**PARIS.**

Verfailles	Seine and Oise
Chartres	Eure and Loire
Orleans	Loiret
Sens	Yonne
Troyes	Aube
Meaux	Seine and Marne

VI. CENTRAL CIRCLE.

Archiepiscopal See—**BOURGES**, in the Department of the Cher.

Blois	Loire and Cher
Tours	Indre and Loire
Poitiers	Viennne
Chateauroux*	Indre
Gueret*	Creufe
Moulins	Allier
Nevers	Nyevre

VII. CIRCLE OF THE SOUTH-WEST.

Archiepiscopal See—**BOURDEAUX**, in the Department of the Gironde.

Luçon	Vendée
Saintes	Lower Charente
Dax	Landes
Agen	Lot and Garonne
Perignenx	Dordogne
Tulles	Correze
Limoges	Upper Viennne
Angouleme	Charente
St. Maixent*	Two Sevres

VIII. CIRCLE OF THE SOUTH.

Archiepiscopal See—**TOULOUSE**, in the Department of the Upper Garonne.

Auch	Gers
Oleron	Lower Pyrenées
Tarbes	Upper Pyrenées
Pamiers	Arriège
Perpignan	Eastern Pyrenées
Carcassonne	Aude
Rodez	Aveiron
Cahors	Lot
Alby	Tarn

IX. CIRCLE OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

Archiepiscopal See—**AIX**, in the Department of the Mouths of the Rhône.

Bastia	Corfica
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<i>Episcopal Sees.</i>	<i>Departments.</i>
Frejus	Var
Digne	Lower Alps
Embrun	Upper Alps
Valence	Drôme
Mende	Lozere
Nismes	Gard
Montpelier	Hérault

X. CIRCLE OF THE SOUTH-EAST.

Archiepiscopal See—LYONS, in the Department of Rhône and Loire.

<i>Episcopal Sees.</i>	<i>Departments.</i>
Clermont	Puy de Dôme
St. Fleur	Cantal
Puy	Upper Loire
Viviers	Ardeche
Grenoble	Isere
Belley	Ain
Autun	Saone and Loire

Each of the departments, as before noticed, is divided into districts, and each district into cantons. The first column that follows is a list of eighty-three departments in alphabetical order: the second column contains the names of the provinces or territories to which the countries included in each department formerly belonged. The departments marked thus * take their names from mountains; those marked thus † from their respective situations; this marked thus ‡ from a rock; and the others (the departments of Paris, Côte d'Or, and Corsica excepted) from rivers; as the departments of the Ain, of the Eure and Loire, of the Two Severs, &c.

<i>Departments.</i>	<i>Ancient Provinces.</i>
Ain	Bresse
Aisne	Soissonnois and Vermandois
Allier	Bourbonnois
Alps, Upper*	Dauphiné
Alps, Lower*	Provence
Ardeche	Dauphiné
Ardennes*	Champagne
Arriège	Couferans and Foix
Aube	Champagne
Aude	Languedoc
Auvergon	Rouergue
Calvados †	Normandy
Cantal *	Auvergne
Charente	Angoumois
Charente, Lower	Aunis and Saintonge
Cher	Berry
Correze	Limosin
Corsica	
Côte d'Or	Burgundy
Côtes du Nord, N. Coast	Bretagne
Creuse	Marche
Dordogne	Perigord
Doubs	Franche Comté

<i>Departments.</i>	<i>Ancient Provinces.</i>
Drome	Dauphiné
Eure	Normandy
Eure and Loire	Beauce
Finisterre †	Bretagne
Gard	Languedoc
Garonne, Upper	Languedoc
Gers	Gascony and Armagnac
Gironde	Guienne
Hérault	Languedoc
Indre	Berry
Indre and Loire	Touraine
Isere	Dauphiné
Ille and Vilaine	Bretagne
Jura *	Franche Comté
Landes †	Marfan
Loire and Cher	Blaisois
Loire, Upper	Velay
Loire, Lower	Bretagne
Loiret	Orleannois
Lot	Querci
Lot and Garonne	Guienne
Lozere *	Gevaudan
Manche †, <i>The Channel</i>	Normandy
Marne	Champagne
Marne, Upper	Champagne
Mayenne or Maine	Maine
Mayenne and Loire	Anjou
Meurthe	Lorraine
Meuse	Barrois
Morbihan †	Bretagne
Moselle	Lorraine
Nord †, <i>North</i>	French Netherlands
Nievre	Nivernois
Oise	Ile of France
Orne	Normandy and Perche
Paris	Ile of France
Pas de Calais †, <i>Straits of Calais</i>	Artois and Boulonnois
Puy de Dome †	Auvergne
Pyrenées, Upper †	Bigorre
Pyrenées, Lower *	Baïques and Bearn
Pyrenées, Eastern *	Roussillon
Rhine, Upper	Alsace
Rhine, Lower	Alsace
Rhône, Bouches du, } <i>Mouths of the</i>	Provence
Rhône and Loire	Forest and Lyonnois
Saone, Upper	Franche Comté
Saone and Loire	Burgundy
Sarte	Maine
Seine and Oise	Ile of France
Seine, Lower	Normandy
Seine and Marne	Ile of France
Severs, the two	Poitou
Somme	Picardy
Tarn	Languedoc
Var	Provence

Departments.

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Departments.

Departments.	Ancient Provinces.
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Vienne	Poitou
Vienne, Upper	Limosin
Vosges *	Lorraine
Yonne	Burgundy

The natural curiosities of France consist chiefly in springs and subterraneous caverns.

A late traveller in France has given us the following picturesque and accurate description of the fountain of Vaucluse: "I arrived yesterday, says he, at Avignon. My first anxiety was to visit the fountain of Vaucluse. I think I still see, escaping from the midst of a chain of mountains, as from the depth of a vast tube, a river which rises, rushes up, and instantly overflows with an impetuosity, a thunder, a boiling, a foam, with falls which never can be described either by the pen of the poet, or the pencil of the painter. Such is the fountain of Vaucluse. In an instant this river becomes calm; and may then be compared to a happy disposition, moderated by its native goodness, after the first transports of vivacity. It now changes its silver waves into waves of azure, and pours, and rolls, and diffuses them on a bed of emerald; but it soon divides itself into a multitude of little streams to meander through a charming valley. On quitting the valley, these rivulets unite, and all together take their course by a hundred different ways, to water, fertilize, and embellish, under the name of the Sorgue, the delightful country of Avignon. Vaucluse presents at once the most delightful scene, and the most singular phenomenon. But I must say with the poet,

"These streams, that sky, and yon enchanting vale,
"Touch not my heart like Petrarch's piteous tale.

The memory of Petrarch and of Laura animates every object, while it embellishes and renders enchanting the landscape."

Near Salins in Burgundy are several very remarkable caves, the extent of which taken all together is about 400 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. The descent into them is by 40 stone steps, and 20 of wood. At the bottom, by help of lighted torches, which each person carries with him, may be seen six springs of salt-water, and two of fresh, gushing out and running with great rapidity. These 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, afterwards conveyed to the top by proper engines, and being put in pans, great quantities of salt are extracted from it. This water is observed to be most strongly impregnated in rainy weather; and is supposed to acquire its saline quality from some vast rocks of salt through which it passes in its subterranean course. At Baulme, twelve miles from Besançon, is a cavern, above three hundred feet under ground, wherein are a number of icicles, and in

the bottom a little river, which flows in the winter, but is frozen in the summer. In the forests of St. Aubin du Cormier in Bretagne, is a cave, through which runs a great torrent of water; and from another, situated at Nions, proceeds a violent wind. The cave of our Lady of Balm, in Dauphiné, is between four and five fathoms broad, and from five to eight feet deep; and, in the valley of Liberslat, in Alsace, is a cavern, out of which flows an oily liquor, which being distilled, and properly prepared, yields a most excellent salubrious oil. In the neighbourhood of Nismes, there is a subterraneous passage, which the vulgar inform us reaches to Arles, under the Rhône, being a distance of 20 miles.

The artificial curiosities of France consist chiefly in their canals, and public buildings. The former of these have already been described, and the others have been noticed in the account of its cities and principal towns.

France possesses several valuable remains of antiquity, many of which have been traced back even to the time of the Celts: and after Gaul was reduced by the Romans, they adorned it with numerous edifices, both civil and sacred, some of which are still very perfect. Triumphal arches are found in several parts of the kingdom, but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius, and Lucatius Catulus. Nismes abounds in monuments of antiquity. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city, and is as fresh to this day as Westminster-Bridge: it consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, that all streams will rise as high as their sources.

The commerce and manufactures of France may be considered under two heads, viz. inland and foreign. This country, by her situation, the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of a great inland traffic, which in many particulars exceeds that of any other country in Europe, and is in a great measure carried on by their navigable canals.

The introduction of the silk manufacture to France took place so late as in the reign of Henry IV. and in that of his grandson Louis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the Protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000; and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the

French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, are said to be now little inferior to those of Holland and England, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country. This destructive traffic is principally carried on between Boulogne in France and Romney-Marsh in Kent.

The foreign trade of France may be said to extend itself all over the globe. That country is thought to be no great loser by its cession of Canada, and part of Louisiana at the late peace. But the most valuable part of Hispaniola in the West-Indies, which she possesses by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a most improveable acquisition, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the West-Indies, she likewise possesses the most important sugar-islands of Guadelupe, St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Bartholomew, Defeada, and Marigalante. A small tract upon the Mississippi is the whole of what she possesses in North-America. Those belonging to her in the East-Indies are not very considerable; though had the genius of the French been more turned for commerce than war, they might have increased more territory and revenues than are now in possession of the English; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their East-India company never made a considerable figure. Pondichery, &c. in the East-Indies, and St. Domingo in the West, were taken by the English in the year 1793.

At present the land-trade of France to Switzerland and Italy, is by way of Lyons; to Germany, through Metz and Strasburgh; to the Netherlands, through Lille; to Spain (a most profitable one) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel and on the Western-Ocean are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro-trade from Guinea supplies her sugar-colonies, besides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from that coast.

The articles of trade in France, are as follow: the wines of different districts, and the produce of those wines, viz. Bourdeaux, Nantes, Rochelle vinegar, and the lees. Fruit, such as prunes, prunelloes, dried grapes, pears, and apples, from Normandy; and oranges and olives from Languedoc and Provence. Fine lawns, thread, linens, stuffs, woollen cloths, sail-cloth, hemp, flax, linseed, silk, black and green soap, corn, for their inland trade; fine paper, paste-board, salt, salt-petre, rosin, oil, cork, kid-skins, almonds, perfumes, extracted oils, drugs, and chemical preparations, cambrics, silver and gold stuffs, embroideries, satins, sewing-silk, tapeltries, millinery-wares, crapes, laces, toys, plush hats, parchment, and hardware.

The manufactures of France are silks, as lustrings, alainodes, farcenets, broad, flowered, and brocaded silks, velvets, and gold and silver stuffs. Woollen manufactures in imitation of those of England, which are chiefly carried on in Normandy, Poitou, Languedoc, Provence, and Guienne. Fine linens, lawns, and lace are made in the inland parts; as is canvass in Normandy, sail-cloth at Vitry, and other places, and dowlasses at Morlaix. In Picardy and Paris are made exceeding beautiful and rich tapeltries, and Auvergne is famous for fine paper. Manufactures of soap are established chiefly in Provence; this is so considerable an article in their commerce, that when they have a scarcity of oil, they fetch a prodigious quantity from the Levant to supply the soap-makers. They have long obtained the secret from Spain of making that species of soap called Castile, of which they have established large manufactures at Marseilles and Toulon, and thereby deprived the Spaniards of that valuable branch of trade.

The constitution of France was formerly a limited monarchy; but the oppressions of the great landholders grew, by degrees, so irksome to the subjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the aristocratical government. But Richlieu, in the time of Louis XIII. gave aristocracy a mortal blow; and all the civil disputes in France, since that period, have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments.

The life and property of the subject were afterwards entirely at the mercy of the sovereign: he imprisoned whom he pleased, without being accountable to the laws, and, whenever he thought it necessary for his purpose, appointed what judges he deemed proper for the trial of offenders. The great officers of state took their oaths to him, which they formerly did to the parliament; and he appointed, removed, extended, or retrenched their authority as he pleased. The registering of the edicts, which formerly gave them the sanction or force of laws, at length became a mere matter of form. The parliaments indeed some years ago made a noble opposition to the king's command with regard to this particular, but this generally procured a temporary banishment: for, arbitrary as he was, he never ventured to inflict any further punishment than a slight banishment, or imprisonment, for their most provoking acts of disobedience: a tacit acknowledgment of the infirmity of the French constitution, and a proof that the people considered the parliaments as their natural guardians and protectors.

Before the revolution, distributive justice was administered in France by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, presidial courts, generalities, elections, and other inferior courts. The parliaments were fifteen in number, namely, Paris, Thoulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Metz, Besançon, Doway, Perpignan, Calmer, and Arras; but several of those parliaments are now united

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ks, as lustrings, and brocaded Woolen manufactures, which in England, which in Poictou, Lan- ceolins, lawns, &c. ; as in canvas and other places, and Paris are the chief, and Au- toman, and Au- manufactures of soap, this is so con- siderable, that when they are sold in odigious quantity by the soap-makers. They are also in Spain of making, which they have in Lyons, and Toulon, and of that valuable

formerly a limited great landholders subjects, that they were a democratical govern- ment of Louis XIII. all the civil dis- turbances have been among the kings

subject were after- wards the sovereign : he im- proved himself accountable to the people : it necessary for the king to be deemed proper that officers of state should be formerly did to be moved, extended, and abolished. The re- volution gave them the power, and became a mere shadow. Indeed some years ago the king's command was generally pro- hibited, arbitrary as he was, by further punish- ment, imprisonment, for- feiture : a tacit ac- cession the French con- sidered the king and protectors.

justice was ad- ministered by the chambers of ac- counts, generalities, The parliaments of Paris, Thoulouse, Bourdeaux, Aix, Rheims, Montpellier, Calmer, and the parliaments are now united

united into one, and that of Paris branched out into six. It was however the chief, and took the lead in all national business. It was divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber was chiefly appropriated to the trial of peers. The Tournelle took cognizance of all matters of property above 1000 livres in value. The Tournelle Criminelle received and determined appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. Besides these three capital chambers, there were five of re- quests for receiving the depositions of witnesses, and determining causes, nearly in the same manner as our court of exchequer. In some provinces, the admini- stration of justice was regulated by the civil law, and in others by their particular customs, so far as they were consistent with the king's edicts and de- clarations.

The chamber of accounts was the next court of judi- cature in France : here all matters of public finance were examined, treaties of peace and grants registered, and the vassalages due from the royal fiefs were re- ceived : the chambers were in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpellier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Lille, Aire, and Dole. The third court of judicature was the court of aid, where all matters that related to the royal revenue, and the raising of money, were determined. The fourth were the presidial courts, which were com- posed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magistrates of little towns and villages. The next court were the generalities, who proportioned the taxes to be raised in their districts, according to the sum that is appointed to be levied : they likewise took cognizance of matters relating to the crown-lands, and certain branches of the revenue. These courts are in number 23, each consisting of 23 persons, and they were distributed over the kingdom for the more convenient dispatch of business. The courts of elections, which were subject to those generalities, settled the smaller proportions of taxes that were to be paid by parishes and inferior districts, and how much each individual in the same was to pay : this was done by a collector, who returned the assessments to the court of generalities.

Besides the above courts, the French had intendants of justice, police, and finances, whose powers, when properly executed, were of great service to the peace of the community. They had likewise provosts, seneschalls, bailiffs, and a variety of other officers.

From this general review of France in its monarchical state, the reader will be apt to conclude, that she was the most powerful nation, and the people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the constant state of that nation ; since we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy. In a country so exten- sive and fruitful, her government finds immense re- sources in men and money ; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, these resources,

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great as they are, have proved, by a wrong application, the ruin of the people. The most obvious causes of this national poverty originated from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandize- ment of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate ; and hence pro- ceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more arbitrary and unjustifiable were adopted, such as raising and reducing the value of money, as they thought proper, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, which gave the finishing stroke to public credit, and shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry ; the fruits of which no man could claim as his property. When we also consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render miserable the neighbouring nations, that man must be devoid of humanity whose breast is not fired with indignation at the bare mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries and deso- lations that have been brought upon mankind, and the numerous places that have been sacrificed to their ambi- tion and avarice. From the late attack upon Corsica, it appears that their own misfortunes have not taught them wisdom or humanity ; for while they thus grasped after foreign conquest, their own country exhibited a picture of misery and beggary, unknown even to some of the most uncivilized of the adjoining kingdoms. To this we may add, that many of the taxes and revenues in France were let out, for a time, or farmed to the best bidder ; and these harpies, the farmers-general, and their under-farmers and receivers, made no scruple of fleecing the people most unmercifully ; and the residue, if any remained, went to satisfy the cravings of a num- erous clergy, who in their turn were obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immense sums under various names.

The revenues of so despotic a government as that of France was during the monarchy, when the estates as well as lives of the people were subject to the will of the prince, cannot well be ascertained. The whole specie of France, in gold and silver, was computed in 1716 to be about 17,000,000 sterling ; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions sterling, or 2000 millions of livres, yet by seizing almost all the current money in the king- dom, and by arbitrarily raising or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France published a general state of the public debts, by which it appeared that the king scarcely owed 340 millions of livres. The reader is left to judge whether so great a reduction must not be the effect of the most absolute despotism, and the act itself deserves no better name than that of a national robbery. The French court

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has not since that time blushed to own, as towards the conclusion of a former war, and also in 1769, that their king was a bankrupt; and, in order to recruit the royal finances, his ministers have pursued measures pretty similar to those practised by the regent above-mentioned.

The ordinary revenues of France, by some late calculations, amounted, during the monarchy, to above 12,000,000l. sterling. They arose from the demesnes; the taillé, or land-tax; the taillon, another sort of land-tax, which the nobility were obliged to pay as well as the commons; by aids, which we call customs on merchandize; by gabels, which is a tax upon salt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of estates and employments; by the sale of all offices of justice; by a tenth, or free-gift of the clergy; exclusive of their additional yearly sum of 12,000,000 of livres; and by confiscations and forfeitures.

The comptroller-general was the head of the officers of the finances; and for the management of the revenues, and the determination of all disputes relative to it, there were several tribunals and offices in different parts of the kingdom, of which one at Paris was the chief.

With respect to the present state of the revenue, we are informed, that on the 30th of December 1791, Mr. Lafont presented to the Assembly the following general estimate, from the particular estimate of the ministers, for the year 1792:

	Livres.
Appanage of princes.....	5,000,000
Foreign affairs.....	6,000,000
Marine and colonies.....	43,000,000
General administration.....	5,000,000
Public worship.....	81,000,000
Pensions to ecclesiastics.....	68,000,000
National assembly.....	5,000,000
Civil list.....	25,000,000
Bridges and roads.....	4,000,000
High national court, and court of appeal.....	450,000
Schools and academies.....	1,000,000
Interest of debts.....	20,000,000
Life annuities.....	100,000,000
Perpetual annuities.....	300,000,000
Besides the expences of the army.	

THE WAYS AND MEANS.

By land-tax, a tax on personal property, patents, stamps, &c. valued at 532,000,000 livres; the remaining sum to be provided for from the fund of extraordinary.

The extraordinary expences of the army, colonies, and public worship, would soon cease, and bring the expenditure on a level with the revenue.

The amount of the assessed taxes for the year 1792, are by some authors estimated only at 300,000,000 livres, equal to 12,500,000l. sterling; and with the

incidental taxes in all 15,500,000l sterling; near nine millions less than before the revolution, when the clergy and nobles were exempted.

All excises and excitemen, tythes, and game-laws, are now abolished, and the funds maintained at the public charge.

In the year 1788, before the revolution, the revenue was 20 millions and a half sterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half. In 1783 the public debt was £ 141,666,000.

There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relative to gunnery and fortification, is better understood than in France. Besides other advantages for learning it, there is a royal academy established purposely for training up five hundred young gentlemen at a time, in the several branches of this great art. The number of forces in France, even in time of peace, are seldom less than 200,000, the pay of these being little more than two pence halfpenny per day; in time of war, they are usually double that number; but those raised from the militia are very indifferent troops.—In the reign of Lewis XIV. the navy of France amounted to 100 ships of the line of battle, but it has not been so considerable lately. In the war of 1756 with England, their marine was almost totally destroyed; but since the peace they have been very assiduous in restoring it, and in the year 1769, it was said to consist of sixty-four ships of the line, including those of fifty guns, and twenty-five frigats, besides smaller vessels. The seamen in the maritime provinces of this kingdom were registered, and divided into classes, each class serves three or four years alternately, and those who were not in actual service, might enter on board merchant ships. Besides the seamen, an hundred independent companies were maintained to serve on board the ships of war as marines. After the commencement of hostilities in the war of 1774, between Great-Britain and France, the French navy was more formidable than at any preceding period.

Towards the close of the year 1791, the report of the minister states the ships in good condition to be 86 of the line, and, including those building, as follows:

Large first-rates.....	8
100 guns.....	5
80 guns.....	10
74 guns.....	67
64 guns.....	1
Total.....	91
Frigats.....	78

besides fire-ships, corvettes, galleys, and cutters.

There are in commission 28 of the line, and five frigates, and 80,000 seamen with officers registered, to man the fleet; but the French navy is at present without proper subordination.

If we reckon the loss the French navy sustained from the English at Toulon, the latter-end of 1793, its force may now consist of about 100 ships of the line, besides
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Under the revolution, the peace establishment of the
army for the year 1792 was:

Infantry.....	111,000
Cavalry.....	30,000
Artillery.....	11,000
Total.....	152,000

They call these troops of the line, and, along with
the volunteer national guards, they form an army at
present, on the frontiers, of 224,000 men.

Those termed the municipal army, or national guards,
are a kind of embodied militia for the interior defence
of the kingdom, and amount to between three and
four millions.

Besides the above, we may add the gens-d'armerie,
an auxiliary body of troops for the protection of police
and laws.

The national assembly, desirous of establishing the
French constitution on the principles it has announced,
has abolished, irrevocably, those institutions which have
been deemed injurious to liberty and equality of rights,
such as royal titles, arms, nobility, orders, &c.

In France there is no longer any nobility, nor peer-
age, nor hereditary distinctions nor difference of orders,
nor feudal government, nor patrimonial jurisdiction,
nor any of the titles, denominations, and prerogatives,
which are derived from them; nor any of the orders
of chivalry, corporations, or decorations, for which
proofs of nobility were required, nor any kind of supe-
riority but that of public functioners in the exercise of
their functions. Royalty also, which was one branch of
the first constitution, is now abolished, and the un-
fortunate monarch put to death by his subjects.

The French gold coins were the old Louis-d'or,
worth 16s. 9d. and the new Louis, or guinea, worth
20s. The silver coins are the old ecu, or crown, worth
4s. 6d. and the new ecu, worth 5s. all these have the half
and quarter in proportion.—Accounts are kept in France
by livres, sols, and deniers; one livre is 20 sols, and
one sol 12 deniers. Their livres, by some late arrears,
have been reduced to half the value.

The king's titles were, Louis XVI by the grace of
God king of France and Navarre. His subjects, in
writing or speaking, called him Sir; foreigners called
him the Most Christian King; and the pope gave him
the appellation of The Eldest Son of the Church.
His arms were three fleurs-de-lis, Or, in a field argent,
supported by two angels in the habits of Levites, hav-
ing each of them a banner in his hand, with the same
arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque vent*,
"Lilies neither toil nor spin." The son of the king
of France, and heir to the crown, was styled Dauphin;
the second son duke of Orleans, and the third duke of
Anjou. The eldest son of the Dauphin was the duke
of Burgundy, the second duke of Aquitaine, the third
duke of Berry, and the fourth duke of Provence.

The nobility consisted of four classes, viz. princes of
the blood, high nobility, ordinary nobility, and modern
nobility. He who was nearest to the crown, after the
king's children, was the first prince of the blood. A-
mong the higher nobility, the dukes and counts, peers
of France, had the precedence; they assisted at the
unction of a king, attended when he held a *lit de justice*,
or *bed of justice*, and enjoyed a seat in the parliament of
Paris. In this class were likewise included the knights
of the Holy Ghost, the governors of provinces, and
lieutenant-generals, with some other dukes, counts, and
marquises. The ordinary nobility were divided into
noblesse de race, and *noblesse de naissance*. The modern or
new nobility were those to whom the king had granted
letters of nobility, or on whom he had conferred some
places by which they became ennobled.

In this kingdom there were three orders of knight-
hood: first, that of St. Michael; secondly, that of the
Holy Ghost; and thirdly, that of St. Louis.

The order of St. Michael was instituted in 1469,
and was at first composed of thirty-six knights only;
but their number was afterwards increased to a hundred.
They wore a gold chain of double scalloped shells,
with a medal expressing a rock, on which is represented
St. Michael encountering the dragon. It is fallen into
disrepute, being conferred on artists, physicians, magis-
trates, &c.

The order of the Holy Ghost, which was founded in
1578, by Henry III. consisted of an hundred persons,
exclusive of the sovereign. Their ensigns were a gold
cross, with a white dove enamelled on the centre of
one side, and on the other the image of St. Michael,
which is appendent to a blue ribbon, passing from the
right side to the left; and on the left breast of their
coats is a silver cross, with a dove embroidered argent.
No person can be admitted a knight of this order, who
has not first belonged to St. Michael; and it is never
conferred but on princes of the blood and persons of
the highest rank. All were to be Papists, and, except
the 14 commanders, which consisted of cardinals, pre-
lates, and the officers of the order, were all to prove the
nobility of their descent for above 100 years. The
Dauphin was received into both orders on the day of
his birth.

The order of St. Louis was instituted by Louis XIV.
in 1693, and was designed as an encouragement and
reward to military merit. Accordingly there was scarce a
French officer, even subalterns, who did not wear it.
Its ensign is a gold cross enamelled, argent, and adorned
with golden lilies, having on one side a coat of mail
with the inscription *LUD. M. INSTITUT. 1693*, and
on the other a drawn sword, with a wreath of laurel at
its point, and the motto *Bell. virtutis præm.* Those
called the Grand Croix, wore it on a broad flame-
coloured ribbon over the shoulder, having also a gold
embroidered cross on their coat. The commanders
wore it in the same manner, but without the em-
broidered cross; and the other knights wore the cross
appendent

appendent to a narrow flame-coloured ribbon fastened to one of their button-holes. There are two chevaliers of the Grand Croix, four of the second class, and an unlimited number of ordinary knights.

HISTORY OF FRANCE.

THIS kingdom was called, by the Romans, Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, or Gaul on the Italian side of the Alps. It was probably peopled first from Italy; but, like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the Romans, and, after a very brave and resolute resistance, was annexed to their empire by Julius Cæsar, about 48 years before the birth of Christ.

Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the subversion of the 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, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. The Franks, who were still mixed with the Salii, adopted one of the laws of that people, by which all females were excluded from the sovereignty, and is still known by the name of the Salic law among the French.

After the Franks and Burgundians had established their power, and reduced the original natives to a state of slavery, they parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities which were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments there; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes imposed, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and nobility. Thus the first government in France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings was extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons. The same circumstances took place in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman empire.

A French historian of credit informs us, that Clovis was the first Christian monarch of the French: that he began his reign in the year 481, and, after being baptized, introduced Christianity in the year 496; from which period the French history exhibits a series of remarkable events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils, or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a

cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarity of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, who was the glory of that dark age in which he lived, made himself master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, was crowned king of the Romans by the pope, and thus became emperor.

Charlemagne, at his death, divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce, warlike people of Norway and Denmark, invaded and ravaged the kingdom of France, and, A. D. 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who became a Christian, and married the king's daughter. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterwards became of pernicious consequence to that nation; as from William the Norman, who conquered England, the animosities between that kingdom and France had their origin, and the contests proved for the most part injurious to the latter, notwithstanding their numbers, and the assistance they received from the Scots.

It hath been justly observed, that the rage of encroaching, which broke out about this time, was rather beneficial than otherwise to the French monarchs, as they took off many of their turbulent subjects, who were almost independent of their authority, and left them heirs to several of their nobles, who died in the Holy Land. But we shall pass over these dark ages, and proceed to the period, when the French began to extend their influence over Europe, and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. who was cotemporary with our Henry VIII. of England. This prince was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the Imperial crown. Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen in his stead. Francis made several capital expeditions into Spain, but in one, which he undertook against Italy, he was defeated at the battle of Pavia, taken prisoner, and obliged to agree to the most humiliating terms, in order to obtain his release. His breach of the terms by which he procured his enlargement occasioned continual wars against the emperor, till the death of Francis, which happened in 1547.

At this period, France was rather in a flourishing condition, and Henry II. son and successor of Francis I. was in general a very fortunate prince; for though he lost the battle of St. Quintin, against the English and Spaniards, yet he retook Calais from the former, who never after had any footing in France. He married his son the Dauphin to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his own; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. In 1559, he was killed at a tilting match by the count of Montgomery. He was succeeded by his son Francis II. who lived but two years; after whom his brother Charles IX. ascended the throne, who being then but eleven years of age,

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and the Guises, with the concurrence of Catherine de Medicis the king's mother, taking upon them the administration, Anthony de Bourbon king of Navarre, the prince of Condé, and the Protestants, entered into a confederacy against the court, and a civil war ensued, in which the king of Navarre was killed on one side, and the duke of Guise on the other; but a peace was concluded soon after between the contending parties. The war was however renewed several times till the year 1571, when a treacherous peace was made with the Protestants, in order to destroy them by a massacre, which was put in execution at Paris, in the night of the 24th of August 1572, and immediately after in several other great towns; and a confederacy called the Holy League was entered into by the Papists of France and Spain for the extirpation of the Protestants. This project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed till on St. Bartholomew's day, 1672. The heads of the Protestants were invited to the celebration of the nuptials between the young king of Navarre, a Protestant, and the French king's sister. The king himself, Charles IX. assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The signal for the inhuman slaughter of so many thousands was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidst the general carnage, that some few moments should be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had not long retired to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the assassins who had surrounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to assassinate him, he had scarce with an undismayed countenance uttered the words, "Young man, respect these grey hairs, and stain them not with blood," when Besme plunged his sword into his bosom, and with the help of his barbarous associates, threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence; but Henry count d'Angoulême, natural brother to Charles, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends; we have begun well, let us finish in the same manner." It is said that about 30,000 Protestants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573, with the Protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs. About the same time the duke of Anjou, who was offered the sovereignty of the Netherlands, made his court to Elizabeth queen of England, to whom he seemed to give encouragement, either on political views, or to procure the Protestants some relaxation from persecution; but the queen, at length, discarded the duke,

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which occasioned some severe reflections upon her inconstancy.

Henry III. king of Poland, succeeded to the kingdom of France, 1574, when pope Sixtus V. deposed the king of Navarre, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance on account of religion; and the king of France, Henry III. taking the part of the Protestants against the leaguers, was mortally wounded by one Clement, a friar, with a knife, which the king drew out of his body, and struck the assassin in the eye with the same knife, and he was soon knocked on the head by the king's servants.

Henry, king of Navarre, of the house of Bourbon, succeeding, the Protestants obtained an edict, called the edict of Nantz, 1589, in their favour, from Henry IV. whereby they were tolerated in the free exercise of their religion, in all parts of the kingdom except at Paris; but still, the king (Henry IV.) observing a great majority of his kingdom zealous Catholics, found himself under a necessity of declaring himself of that religion; nor could he preserve him from the malice of the monks; for Ravillac a friar stabbed him to the heart in his coach, in the streets of Paris, the 14th of May 1610, on presumption that he was still a Protestant. The king leaving his son Louis XIII. a minor of nine years of age, the queen his mother, Mary of Medicis, was made regent; during whose administration, great encroachments were made on the liberties of the people, notwithstanding the opposition that was made to those arbitrary measures by the parliament of Paris; but the Protestants, being most oppressed, stood upon their defence, and the kingdom was involved in another civil war. The king having taken some extraordinary ways to raise money, the parliament of Paris refused to concur in them, until his majesty went thither in person, with the princes of the blood, and terrified them into a compliance. Cardinal Richlieu, being advanced to the post of prime-minister, soon after put a final end to the liberties of France. He began by suppressing the Hugonots, and reducing all the towns they were possessed of, the last of which was Rochelle, which held out two years against the whole power of France, but was obliged to surrender the 8th of October 1628. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion, in France. Historians say, that during these wars above 1,000,000 of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, 400 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monasteries, and 10,000 houses were burnt, or otherwise destroyed. He proceeded to insult the parliament of Paris, prohibiting them, in the king's name, to intermeddle in affairs of state: he then erected courts of justice to try by a special commission the peers that opposed his measures. Whereupon the dukes of Orleans and Montmorency had recourse to arms; but being defeated, Montmorency was taken prisoner, and executed as a traitor. This occasioned several conspiracies of the princes of the blood,

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and the nobility, against the cardinal, which he however defeated, but very narrowly escaped being assassinated.

Louis XIV. son of Louis XIII. and of Anne of Austria, Infanta of Spain, was born the 5th of September 1638. He succeeded his father the 14th of May 1643, being then in the fifth year of his age: cardinal Richieu died just before the late king, and the queen-mother about the same time. The king being a minor, the queen his mother had the administration of the government, and made cardinal Mazarine, an Italian, her prime-minister. He had been introduced into the administration by Richieu, in the last reign, and followed his plan of continuing to enlarge the French frontiers in Flanders, Catalonia, Germany, and Italy; and imagining that Charles I. king of England was inclined to assist Spain, he fomented the rebellion against that prince, as Richieu had done, when he might easily have suppressed it. By the treaty of Westphalia, the bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, were confirmed to France, with ten imperial cities in Alsace, among which were Landau, and the castle of Philippsburg in the palatinate.

The parliament of Paris beginning to resume their authority, and insisting on the banishment of the cardinal, as an enemy to the king and kingdom, the queen-mother and the cardinal engaged the prince of Condé and the army in their interest, and perfectly subdued the parliament; and because the prince of Condé seemed inclined to defend the rights and privileges of the peers, he was laid aside as soon as he had served the minister's turn, and the command of the army given to other generals; whereupon the prince of Condé quitted the kingdom, and commanded the Spanish army in Flanders.

Cardinal Mazarine entered into an alliance with Cromwell, as the likeliest means to support himself; and his forces having joined the cardinal's in Flanders, they besieged and took Dunkirk, which was put into the hands of the English, and the cardinal found himself obliged to submit to such terms as Cromwell insisted on; but the union between the protector and this French minister proved the ruin of the constitution in both kingdoms, and of the balance of power in Europe. In the year 1661 died cardinal Mazarine, when Louis XIV. took the administration of the government into his own hands.

Louis XIV. on the death of Mazarine, put the domestic affairs of his administration into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which were carried into execution with great assiduity. A late author very justly says, "To write the history of his 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 as a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purpose of his greatness; by the latter, he

embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation." His reign, which began splendidly, was, towards the close of it, one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thousand lives. He died on the first of September 1715, being succeeded by his grandson Louis XV. who, in the course of his reign, was styled the Well Beloved, which he lost some years before he died; he was detested and despised by his subjects, for his shameful and licentious attachments, and illiberal treatment of some of the worthiest men of the kingdom. Though the system of this prince was more pacific than that of his grandfather, yet the situation of affairs in Europe more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was, to place 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 connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great-Britain; in the management of which the latter was so ill seconded by her allies, that it was finished by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. We have mentioned, in the history of England, the war so humiliating to France, and the chief events attending it, which was ended by the peace of Fontenoy, in 1763. He died A. D. 1774, in the 64th year of his age, and 59th of his reign.

Louis XVI. the late unfortunate king of France, succeeded his grandfather, Louis XV. on the 10th of May 1774. Several regulations, highly favourable to the general interests of the nation, particularly the suppression of the musquetaires, took place soon after the accession of this monarch. But the most remarkable circumstance which attended the present reign, was the placing Mr. Neckar, a Protestant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, throughout every department in the revenue. When hostilities commenced between France and Great-Britain, in consequence of the former's taking part with the revolted British colonies in America, the people of France were not burdened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his economy, improvements, and reformation that were introduced into the management of the finances. In consequence of this national frugality, the navy of France has also been raised to so great a height as really to become formidable to Great-Britain. But the beneficial measures pursued by Mr. Neckar were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the interested, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have possessed sufficient firmness

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of mind to support an upright and able minister. He was therefore for a time displaced; and is said to have been particularly opposed by the queen's party. His removal, however detrimental to France, was probably a favourable circumstance for Great-Britain, as national economy, and wise counsels, must naturally render the former a more dangerous enemy to the latter, both in time of peace and war. In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Versailles; and this concluded the transactions between the two kingdoms.

A GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF FRANCE.

Louis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, was born Aug. 23, 1754, married April 19, 1770, to Marie Antoinetta, archduchess of Austria, who was born Nov. 4, 1755: Louis succeeded his grandfather, Louis XV. May 10, 1774, was crowned at Rheims, June 11, 1775; and beheaded January 21, 1793. The issue of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinetta are,

1. Madame Maria Theresia Charlotta, born Dec. 19, 1778.
2. Louis Charles, born March 27, 1785.

BROTHERS AND SISTERS TO HIS LATE MAJESTY.

1. Louis-Stanislaus-Xavier, count de Provence, born Nov. 17, 1755; married May 14, 1771, Maria-Josepha-Louisa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born Sept. 4, 1753.
2. Charles-Philip, count d'Artois, born Oct. 9, 1757; married Nov. 16, 1773, to Maria Theresia, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born Jan. 31, 1736; by whom he has issue:

Louisa-Antoine, born Jan. 24, 1778.

A princess, born Aug. 5, 1780.

Another princess, born Jan. 8, 1783.

3. Maria-Adelaide-Clotilda-Xaviera, born Sept. 23, 1759.
4. Madame Elizabeth-Philippe-Maria-Helena, born May 3, 1764.

ISSUE OF LOUIS XV. LIVING IN 1793, ARE,

1. Maria-Adelaide, duchess of Lorraine and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria-Louisa-Marie-Theresia, born 1733.
3. Sophia-Philippina-Elizab. a-Justina, born 1734.
4. Louisa-Maria, born 1737, who went into a convent of Carmelites, and took the veil in 1770.

A most remarkable change in the affairs and government of the French nation having taken place in the year 1789, which has engaged the attention and interference of the most considerable powers of Europe, our readers will, we doubt not, feel a real pleasure on our presenting them with

AN HISTORICAL REVIEW OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION,

In its Commencement, Progress, and Effects.

IF we consider the government of France only as it discovered itself in practice, it appeared for the most part a perfect despotism, with no other restraint on the caprice of the monarch, than that which must every where exist, the patience and prejudices of the people. If, on the contrary, we examine it in the abstract, we find another power rising into proud competition with the monarch, and circumscribing his prerogatives, within narrow limits;—the power of the parliaments.

The ambition of the French government, which made it acquainted with liberty, in assisting the insurgents in America and Holland, kindled a spirit among the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home.

The dismissal of Monsieur Necker from the direction of public affairs, and succeeding ministers being endowed neither with his integrity nor abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being totally ruined. And when the edict for registering the loan at the conclusion of the year 1785, which amounted to the sum of three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds, was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonstrances of the assembly, assumed a more legal and formidable aspect. The king, however, signified to the select deputations that were commissioned to convey to him their remonstrances, that he expected to be obeyed without further delay. The ceremony of the registering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a resolution, importing, that public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the necessity of the state, and restoring that credit which borrowing had brought to the brink of ruin. This proceeding was no sooner known, than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament: he erased from their records the resolution which had been adopted; and declared himself satisfied with Monsieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general and acting minister.

This gentleman, how gratified soever he might be by the support of his sovereign, could not but feel himself deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. An accurate inquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues: to impose any new taxes, in the present situation was impossible; to continue the method of borrowing, was ruinous; and to have recourse only to economical reform, would be found wholly inadequate; therefore he hesitated not to declare, that it would be impracticable to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state.

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The minister, in order to give weight to this reform, was sensible that something more was necessary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs; nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if these plans had perfect wisdom for their source.

The only alternative that seemed, under these circumstances, to remain, was, to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and that should consist in a greater degree of members from the various orders of the state, and the different provinces of the kingdom; but the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the states-general, had not met since the year 1614. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of the states-general; this was distinguished by the appellation of the notables, or men of note, and consisted of a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry IV. and again by Louis XIII. and was now once more summoned by the authority of the then reigning monarch; and the period appointed for their opening was the 29th of January 1787.

Monsieur de Calonne, though embarrassed by great difficulties, first met the assembly of the notables, and communicated his long-expected plan. He began by stating, that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenues: that a very considerable deficiency had of course existed; and that at his own accession to office it was three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds. To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-taxes; from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; an inquiry into the possessions of the clergy, which hitherto had been deemed sacred, from their proportion of the public burdens: the various branches of internal taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a mortgage of the demesne lands of the crown presented a considerable resource.

Monsieur Neckar, before he retired from the management of the finances, had published his *Compte rendu au Roi*, in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of four hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and was considered as an era in the history of France. The credit of this statement was ably vindicated by M. de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, and by the count de Mirabeau, a still more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have successfully vindicated his system and reputation against the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau; but the genius of the comptroller-general sunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and essential object of reform was, to equalize the public burdens,

and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminish the load of the lower and most useful classes of the people.

The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public assessment; the crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patents, were by that shameful custom exempted, together with their posterity, from contributing proportionably to the expences of the state; the magistrates likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share of exemptions: so that the whole weight of the taxes fell on those who were the least able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, the magistracy, were united against the minister, and the event was such as might be expected. The intrigues of these three bodies raised against him so loud a clamour, that, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, M. de Calonne not only resigned his place on the 12th of April, but, to avoid the storm of persecution, soon after retired to England.

In the mean time the notables proceeded in their inquiries: and it was now suggested, that an assembly of the states should be called, as the notables were not competent to impose a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in secret, this proposal was instantly circulated through the capital, and supposed to be a new discovery. The notables were soon after dissolved, without having accomplished any thing excepting the justification of M. Neckar. The stamp-act, however, was established, and a bed of justice was held by the king on the 5th of August 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend; and the edict was registered, notwithstanding their protest to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from subdued; on the day after the king had held his bed of justice, they entered a formal protest against the concession that had been extorted from them. On the other hand, though every appearance of violence must have proved painful to the mild disposition of Louis, he could not consent to surrender, without a struggle, that authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors.

Since the commencement of the present discontents, the capital had been gradually filled with considerable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered their protest, an officer of the French guards, with a party of soldiers, went at break of day to the house of each individual member, to signify to him the king's command that he should immediately get into his carriage, and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about seventy miles from Paris, without writing or speaking to any person out of his own house before his departure. These orders were served at the same instant: and before the citizens of Paris were apprised of the transaction, the parliament were already on the road to the place of their exile.

The resentment of the whole nation, against the banishment of the parliament, rose to so great a height, that, after a month's absence, it was recalled. This was scarcely done, when they were required to register

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a loan; at which they hesitated, notwithstanding all the manoeuvres of the minister. At last the king came to the house, and held what is called a royal session. The edicts were now registered; but the duke of Orleans protested, in the presence of the king, against the legality of the proceeding. The parliament protested against the legality of the session itself, but to no purpose. The duke of Orleans, with four others, were banished; the king called for the journals of the house, destroyed the protest, and forbade it to be inserted again. Great clamours were excited by the banishment of the duke of Orleans, and the other members of parliament; remonstrances were presented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes; but it was not till the spring of 1788 that the exiles were recalled.

Louis had now no alternative remaining, 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 even depend any longer on the princes of the blood; but what afforded most serious matter of alarm was, the spirit lately evidenced among the military, who, during the disturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their swords against their countrymen; and many of whose officers, having recently served in America, publicly avowed their abhorrence of a despotic government.

Under these impressions, in the beginning of August, an arret was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-general to the first of May in the ensuing year, 1789; at the same time every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the administration; and M. Neckar, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances. The torture, which by a former edict, had been restricted in part, was entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was determined, that in future sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should, by a majority of at least three judges, be pronounced guilty.

At this time the eyes of all Europe were turned on the states-general, or national assembly, whose re-establishment, in the month of May 1789, presented a new era in the government of France.—By the revolution which took place in that year, France founded a new constitution, upon the principles that all men are free and equal in their rights, and that sovereignty resides in the nation. This constitution has been virtually overthrown by the abolition of the monarchical part of it, and by the subsequent condemnation and execution of the king; a deed of most singular atrocity, by which

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the national convention have stamped eternal infamy upon their characters.

The moment of the meeting of the states-general was far from auspicious to the court, but abundantly so to the interests of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been looked for from the different orders of the states was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed, by the suspicions of the people, to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent that had been extorted. A death that pervaded the kingdom increased the general gloom and discontent; and the people, pressed by hunger, and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obstacles he incessantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended with the immediate removal of M. Neckar. This step, which evinced a total change of resolutions, and, which, from the popularity of the minister, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The states-general were driven into the Salle des Etats, where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who surrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extremities against the representatives of the nation, who were obnoxious to them.

These manifestations of vigour, had they been only sustained by instantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted that, unprepared as it still was, and unwilling to expose the lives and properties of its citizens to the licentious will of an incensed soldiery, 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, who, having founded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and, rapidly passing from one extreme to another, they almost unanimously took up arms against their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long residence in the capital, had been peculiarly exposed to seduction, and who at this decisive moment abandoned their sovereign, the Parisians broke through every obstacle by which they had hitherto been restrained.

By the accession of the French guards, the people had obtained a supply of arms and ammunition, and a considerable train of artillery; the shops of the armourers were ransacked for weapons, and the soldier-citizens were even trained to some appearance of discipline. The night of the 13th of July passed without any event of consequence: the morning discovered that, taking advantage of the darkness, the troops encamped in the Champs Elyées had moved off. The people, however, were ignorant of the causes of this removal, and an

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immediate attack was expected. The national guard (for that was the name which the mixed band of soldiers and citizens now assumed) amounted to the number of 150,000 men; but the majority were still without arms. The marquis de la Salle was named commander in chief; the green cockade, which they had at first adopted, was changed for the since famous national colours, red, blue, and white; the new army was now more regularly officered; and various deputations were dispatched in quest of arms and implements of war. M. de Flelleles, the *prévôt des marchands* (or mayor) made many promises on this subject; but they all proved, like every part of his conduct, delusi e.—In the course of their inquiries after arms, a party of more than 30,000, conducted by M. Ethis de Corny, repaired to the *Hôtel des Invalides*.

M. Sombreuil, the governor, had received orders so early as on Sunday the 12th to hold himself in readiness for an attack, and his men had remained during the whole of Monday under arms, and on the morning of Tuesday he had permitted them to take a few hours rest. At this moment M. de Corny arrived; and on making known to the governor the object of his mission, he was answered, that the invalids had not any arms. M. Corny was re-conducted by M. Sombreuil to the gate; but it was no sooner opened than the multitude rushed in, like an irresistible torrent, and in a few minutes ransacked every part of the hôtel.—More than 30,000 muskets, and twenty pieces of cannon, were the fruit of this expedition. On the opposite side of the Seine a similar event occurred; there another party attacked the *garde-meuble de la couronne*, and procured from that ancient store an immense number of weapons of different kinds.

ATTACK AND CAPTURE OF THE BASTILLE.

LIKE the *Hôtel des Invalides*, the Bastille had from the first moment of the alarms in Paris been put in a state of defence. Fifteen pieces of cannon were mounted on the towers; and three field-pieces, loaded with grape and case-shot, guarded the first gate. An immense quantity of powder and military stores had been brought from the arsenal, and distributed to the different corps; the mortars had been exercised, the draw-bridge and gates strengthened and repaired; the house of the governor himself was fortified, and guarded by light pieces of artillery. The shortness of the time had not permitted him to be equally provident in laying in a sufficient store of provisions. The forces which the fortrefs included were chiefly foreigners.

On the morning of the 14th, several deputations had waited on the Marquis de Launay, the governor, to demand arms and peace: they were courteously received by him, and he gave them the strongest assurances of his good intentions. Indeed, it is said, that he was himself averse to hostile measures, had he not been

seduced by the perfidious counsels of the sieur Louis de Flue, commander of the Swiss guards, by the orders of the baron de Bezenval, and by the promises of M. de Flelleles. The Swiss soldiers had even been engaged by an oath to fire on the invalids who were in the fortrefs, if they refused to obey the governor; and the invalids themselves, it is said, were intoxicated with a profusion of liquor which had been distributed among them.

M. de la Rosiere, a deputy of the district of St. Louis de la Culture, waited on the governor, about eleven o'clock in the morning, and was accompanied by a mixed multitude of all descriptions. He entered alone into the house of the governor, and the people remained in the outer court. "I come, Sir," said the deputy, "in the name of the nation, to represent to you, that the cannons which are levelled against the city from the towers of the Bastille, have excited the most alarming apprehensions, and I must entreat that you will remove them." The governor replied, "that it was not in his power to remove the guns, as they had always been there, without an order from the king; that he would, however, dismount them, and turn them out of the embrasures."

The deputy having with difficulty obtained leave from M. de Launay, major of the fortrefs, to enter into the interior court, summoned the officers and soldiers in the name of honour and their country to alter the direction of the guns, &c.—and the whole of them, at the desire even of the governor, engaged themselves by oath to make no use of their arms, unless attacked. M. de la Rosiere, after having ascended one of the towers with M. de Launay, went out of the castle, promising to engage the citizens to send a part of the national guard to do the duty of the Bastille in conjunction with the troops.—The deputy had scarcely retired, before a number of citizens approached the gate, and demanded arms and ammunition. As the majority of them were unarmed, and announced no hostile intention, M. de Launay made no difficulty of receiving them, and lowered the first draw-bridge to admit them. The more determined of the party advanced to acquaint him with the object of their mission: but they had scarcely entered the first court, when the bridge was drawn up, and a general discharge of musketry destroyed the greater part of these unfortunate people.

This apparent act of perfidy immediately raised the resentment of the people almost to phrensy. The instantaneous determination was, to storm the fortrefs; and the execution was as vigorous, as the resolution was daring. An immense multitude, armed with muskets, sabres, &c. rushed at once into the outer courts. A soldier of the name of Tournay climbed over the corps-de-garde, and leaped alone into the interior court. After searching in vain for the keys of the draw-bridges in the corps-de-garde, he called out for a hatchet —he soon broke the locks and the bolts; and being seconded by the efforts of the people on the other side,

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the two draw-bridges were immediately lowered. The people lost no time in making good their station, where for more than an hour they sustained a most severe fire from the garrison, and answered it with equal vigour.

Several deputations from the Hôtel de Ville appeared, before the walls, during the contest, with flags of truce, intending to persuade the besieged to a peaceful surrender: but either they were not discovered amidst the general confusion, or, what is more probable, M. de Launay despaired of finding mercy at the hands of the populace, and still flattered himself with some delusive hope of deliverance. The guards, who now acted openly with the people, proved of most essential service; and, by the advice of some of the veterans of this corps, three waggons loaded with straw were set on fire under the walls, the smoke of which interrupted the view, and consequently intercepted the aim of the besieged; while the assailants, being at a greater distance, were able to direct their fire to the battlements with an unerring aim. In the mean time the arsenal was stormed, and a most dreadful havoc was prevented there by the prudence and courage of M. Humbert, who first mounted the towers of the Bastille: a hair-dresser was in the very act of setting fire to the magazine of powder, when M. H. whose notice was attracted by the cries of a woman, knocked the desperado down with the butt-end of his musket—next, instantly seizing a barrel of salt-petre which had already caught fire, he was happy enough to extinguish it, by turning it upside down.

An immense crowd, as if unconscious of danger, filled the courts of the fortrefs, in spite of the unre-mitted fire of the garrison, and even approached so near the towers, that M. de Launay himself frequently rolled large masses of stone from the platform upon their heads. Within, all was confusion and terror; the officers themselves served at the guns, and discharged their firelocks in the ranks. But when the governor saw the assailants take possession of the first bridge, and draw up their cannon against the second, his courage then was changed into despair, and even his understanding appeared to be deranged. He rashly sought to bury himself under the enormous mass, which he had in vain attempted to defend. While a turkey was engaged in distributing wine to the soldiers, he caught the match from one of the pieces of cannon, and ran to the magazine with an intention to set it on fire; but a subaltern of the name of Ferrand repulsed him with his bayonet. He then went down to the Tour de la Liberté, where he had deposited a quantity of powder: but here also he was opposed by the sieur Beguard, another subaltern officer, who thus prevented an act of insanity which must have destroyed thousands of citizens, and with the Bastille would have infallibly blown up all the adjacent buildings, and a considerable part of the suburb of St. Antoine.

De Launay at length proposed seriously to the garrison to blow up the fortrefs, as it was impossible that they

could hope for mercy from the mob. But he was answered by the soldiers, that they would rather perish, than destroy in this insidious manner such a number of their fellow-citizens. He then hung out a white flag, intimating his desire to capitulate; and a Swiss officer would have addressed the assailants through one of the loop-holes of the draw-bridge—but the hour was past, and the exasperated populace would attend to no offer of capitulation. Through the same opening he next displayed a paper, which the distance prevented the besiegers from reading. A person brought a plank, which was rested on the parapet, and poise'd by a number of others. The brave unknown advanced upon the plank; but just as he was ready to seize the paper, he received a musket shot, and fell into the ditch. He was followed by a young man of the name of Maillard, son to an officer of the chatelet, who was fortunate enough to reach the paper, the contents of which were—"We have twenty thousand pounds weight of gunpowder, and will blow up the garrison and all its environs, if you do not accept the capitulation."—M. Elie, an officer of the queen's regiment, who was invested with a kind of spontaneous authority, was for agreeing to terms; but the people indignantly rejected the very word Capitulation, and immediately drew up three pieces of artillery to the spot.

It being now perceived by the garrison that the great bridge was going to be attacked, they let down the small draw-bridge, which was to the left of the entrance into the fortrefs. Messrs. Elie, Hulin, Maillard, Reole, Humbert, Tournay, and some others, leaped instantly on the bridge, and, securing the bolts, proceeded to the door. In the mean time the French guards, preserving their habitual coolness and discipline, formed a column on the other side of the bridge, to prevent the citizens from rushing upon it in too great numbers. An invalid came to open the gate behind the draw-bridge, and asked the invaders what they wanted? "The surrender of the Bastille," they cried; and he permitted them to enter. The conquerors immediately lowered the great bridge, and the multitude entered without resistance: the invalids were ranged to the right, and the Swifs on the left hand, and their arms piled against the wall. They took off their hats, clapped their hands, and cried out "Bravo!" as the besiegers entered. The first moments of this meeting passed in peace and reconciliation: but some soldiers on the platforms, ignorant of the surrender, unhappily fired upon the people; who, suspecting a second act of perfidy, fell upon the invalids, two of whom (the unfortunate Beguard, who had prevented the governor from blowing up the Bastille, and another equally innocent) were dragged to the *Place de Grève*, and hanged.

M. de Launay, when seized, was not in an uniform, but in a plain grey frock: he had a cane in his hand, and would have killed himself with the sword that it contained, but the grenadier Arné wrested it out of his hand. He was escorted by Messrs. Hulin, Arné, Legris, Elie,

Elie, and some others, and every effort was exerted by these patriots to save his life, but in vain:—they had scarcely arrived at the Hôtel de Ville before his defenders were overpowered, and even wounded by the enraged populace, and he fell under a thousand wounds. M. de Lofme Sabrai, his major, a gentleman distinguished for his virtue and his humanity, was also the victim of the popular fury. The marquis de Pelleport, who had been five years in the Bastille, and during that time had been treated by him with particular kindness, interposed to save him at the risk of his life, but was struck down by a hatchet, and M. de Lofme was instantly put to death. The heads of the governor and the major were struck off, and carried on pikes through the streets of the city.

The rage of the populace would not have ended here—the invalids who defended the fortifications would all have been sacrificed, had not the humanity of the French guards interposed, and insisted on their pardon. The keys of the Bastille were carried to M. Brissot de Warville, who had been a few years before an inhabitant of these caverns of despotism; and a guard of 3000 men was appointed over the fortifications till the council at the Hôtel de Ville should decree its demolition. In the intoxication of success, the prisoners were forgotten; and as the keys had been carried to Paris, the dungeons were forced open—seven prisoners only were found, three of whom had lost their reason, having been detained there as state prisoners from the reign of Louis XV.

M. de Launay's fate involved that of M. de Fleffelles, the prévôt des marchands. He had been long suspected of a design to betray the people; and all his manoeuvres evidently tended to that point. In the pocket of M. de Launay a letter from him was discovered, which contained these remarkable words—"I will amuse the Parisians with cockades and promise! Keep your station till the evening—you shall then have a reinforcement." At the sight of this letter the unfortunate de Fleffelles was struck dumb—a voice was heard in the hall—"Be gone, M. de F. you are a traitor."—"I see," said he, "gentlemen, that I am not agreeable to you—I shall retire."—He hastened down the stairs; but as he crossed the Grève, accompanied by a number of persons to defend him, a young man, who had waited an opportunity, shot him with a pistol. His head was cut off, placed on a pike, and carried through the streets along with that of the governor.

There were found, in the prison of the Bastille the most horrible engines for putting to the severest tortures those unhappy persons whom the cruelty or jealousy of despotism had determined to destroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the skeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid manion. Among the prisoners released by its destruction were major White a Scotman, earl Mazarine an Irish nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almost totally destroyed by the long

confinement and miseries he had endured; and by being unaccustomed to converse with any human creature, he had forgotten the use of speech. Earl Mazarine, on his arrival upon the British shore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and, killing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bless this land of liberty!" The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, being also liberated, was exhibited to the public curiosity in the Palais Royal, or royal palace. His filthy appearance, his white beard which extended to his waist, and, above all, his extreme weakness, resulting probably from suffering an imprisonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the senses and passions of every beholder. It is indeed impossible not to participate in the exultation which a capital and a country so highly illuminated, and so long oppressed, must have experienced, at the extinction of this detestable and justly dreaded prison of state. With the Bastille expired the despotism of the French princes, which long proscription, submission, and arbitrary strength, seemed to render equally sacred and unassailable; which neither the calamities of the close of Louis XIV's reign, nor the profligacy and enormities of the succeeding regency, nor the state of degradation into which the monarchy sunk under Louis XV. had ever shaken.

This wonderful day was succeeded by a tumultuous night; and the songs of joy and triumph, which had celebrated the victory of the people, were converted into confused murmurs expressive only of anxiety and alarm. A report was spread that the troops were about to enter the city at the Barriere d'Enfer: thither the citizens crowded under the conduct of the French guards, and preceded by a train of artillery—the body of troops, however, that appeared in that quarter were dispersed by a single volley. The alarm-bells were then sounded; barricadoes were formed at the barriers; deep holes were dug in different parts, to prevent the approach of the cavalry; the tops of the houses were manned; a general illumination was ordered; and the silence of the night was interrupted by the discharges of artillery, and by the warning voice of the patroles—"Citizens, do not go to bed; take care of your lights; on this night we must see clearly."

The court regarded the first news of the taking of the Bastille as an imposture of the popular party: it was, however, at length incontrovertibly confirmed. The first resolves of the cabal are said to have been desperate, and orders were issued to the commanders to push the projected plot with all possible vigour. In the dead of the night, marshal Broglio is said to have arrived to inform them, that it was impossible to obey the mandate he had received of investing the hall of the national assembly with a train of artillery, as the soldiers would not comply with his orders. "Pres then the siege of Paris," was the answer. The general replied, for the execution of that project, he could not depend on the army.

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The only person in the palace, who was kept totally ignorant of these transactions, was the king. The duke de Liancourt, a distinguished patriot, who was then master of the wardrobe, saved the state: he forced his way in the middle of the night into the king's apartment, informed him of every circumstance, and announced to the count d'Artois that a price was set upon his head. The intelligence of the duke was supported by the authority of Monsieur, who accompanied him, and the king was immediately convinced that he had been deceived by evil counsels. Early the next morning the monarch appeared in the assembly, but without the pomp and parade of despotism. His address was affectionate and consolatory. He “ lamented the disturbances at Paris; disavowed all consciousness of any meditated attack on the persons of the deputies; and added, that he had issued orders for the immediate removal of the troops from the vicinity of the metropoliss.”

It is impossible to express the feelings of the assembly on this affecting occasion.—The tear of sympathy started into almost every eye.—An expressive silence first pervaded the assembly, which presently was succeeded by a burst of applause and acclamation.

The city of Paris, which had, from the 12th of July, been an unhappy scene of commotion, of terror, and of bloodshed, began on the 15th to assume some appearance of order and tranquillity. The livid and bloody heads were still carried about the streets as trophies of popular resentment: but on the morning of that day, a sensible citizen persuaded the multitude to listen to the voice of humanity, and they were thrown into the Seine. The electors at the Hôtel de Ville laboured incessantly in the organization of the civil establishment, and in the regulation of the city militia. The odious name of Prévôt was abolished; the more ancient and honourable appellation of Mayor was substituted in its place; and to this office M. Bailly, who had been president of the tiers état, was called by the unanimous voice of his fellow-citizens. We must not omit to notice, that the duc d'Orleans, having been elected president of the national assembly, had declined the honour, and that the venerable archbishop of Vienne had been chosen in his room. During the laborious sessions which succeeded the disgrace of M. Neckar, however, it was thought that his age and infirmities would scarcely allow him to exercise so difficult an office without the assistance of a younger person, and the marquis de la Fayette was unanimously nominated vice-president.

During the night, the troops which had assembled on the Champ de Mars had decamped, leaving their tents and the greater part of their baggage behind them: but a spectacle still more interesting to the citizens soon presented itself:—this was a deputation of eighty-four of the most distinguished members of the national assembly, accompanied by an immense crowd, who covered the road from Versailles to the capital, and loaded

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them with blessings, and the most unequivocal proofs of prodigal affection. The surprize and exultation of these patriots must have been extreme, when they beheld more than 100,000 citizens transformed into soldiers, all of them armed and already trained to military discipline. On their arrival at the Hôtel de Ville, the marquis de la Fayette, count Lally Tolendal, the marquis Clermont Tonnerre, the duc de Liancourt, and the archbishop of Paris, addressed the people.—From this place they adjourned to the church of Notre Dame, where *Te Deum* was sung in celebration of the happy and cheerful return of peace accompanied with liberty. As they returned from the church, the acclamations of the populace were occasionally interrupted by the expression of two further demands, the wish of seeing their beloved sovereign in Paris, and the recall of the patriotic ministry. The deputies returned to Versailles in the evening.

To circumstances of such importance as those above related, it must be imputed that the public tranquillity, when interrupted, was not easily restored. The ministry, which had shewn themselves so inimical to the cause of the people, were not yet dismissed, nor had the troops yet evacuated the environs of Paris: two fresh regiments had arrived at St. Denis; a strange and unsuccessful attack had even been made on the Bastille, by a serjeant and two companies of guards; and a convoy of flour had been intercepted by the orders of a person well known. The night of the 15th, therefore, was spent with the same anxiety, and with the same warlike preparations, as the preceding; and in the morning a fresh deputation was sent to the assembly, entreating them to interest themselves in procuring the dismissal of the ministry and the recall of M. Neckar.

The assembly were on the point of voting a spirited address to the king, which had been proposed by Mirabeau, when they were informed that the ministers themselves had anticipated the wish of the assembly, by giving in their resignations. The same evening, a letter from his majesty to M. Neckar, inviting him to return, was read by the president. It was received with the loudest acclamations, and was seconded by an address from the assembly themselves to that upright minister, couched in the strongest terms of affection and respect. The king having at the same time intimated his intention of visiting Paris the following day, the assembly immediately decreed a deputation to convey this exhilarating intelligence, and to calm the disquietude that prevailed in the metropolis.

Those who really loved him were apprehensive for his safety; while others, who had been guilty of malversation were apprehensive for themselves. Rumours of projected assassinations were spread, and the least consequence that could ensue was supposed to be the detention of the sovereign in Paris. The king, however, with a degree of courage and patriotism which does honour to his character, remained immovable in his determination.

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On the morning of the 17th he left Versailles, in a plain dress, and with no other equipage than two carriages with eight horses each; in the first of which he rode himself—a part of the national assembly, in their robes, accompanied him on foot: and the militia of Versailles composed his only guard till the procession arrived at the Seine, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head: and from this place the suite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The horse-guards led the procession; and these were followed by the city cavalry; some battalions of the French guards and other soldiers, who had fought in defence of the nation, succeeded; then the different companies and corporations; and M. de la Fayette, with a large body of militia, brought up the rear.

A quarter of an hour before the arrival of the king, whether from accident, or from some plot concerted by the enemies of liberty, a woman was shot by a musket-ball, from the opposite side of the river. The king looked pale and melancholy, and an expression of anxiety was even apparent in the faces of the national assembly. The progress was remarkably slow; and no shout was heard but “Vive la nation!”

At the *Barriere des Conferences*, the king was met by M. Bailly, who acted as mayor, with the other magistrates. On presenting the keys of the city, M. Bailly addressed his majesty in a short but elegant speech, the exordium of which was:—“These, Sir, are the keys which were presented to Henry IV. He came to reconquer his people; it is our happiness to have reconquered our king.” At the *Pont Neuf* the passage was lined by a numerous train of artillery; but in the true spirit of French gallantry, the mouths and touch-holes of the cannon were adorned with bouquets of flowers.

On their arrival at the *Hôtel de Ville*, the king solemnly confirmed the election of M. Bailly and the marquis de la Fayette; and on receiving the complimentary addresses of the mayor, the president of electors, count Lally Tolendal, &c. he exclaimed with an air of pathetic emotion, which scarcely allowed him utterance—“My people may always rely upon my affection.” He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade; and when he shewed himself at the window with this badge of patriotism the joy of the people could be no longer restrained; the shout of *Vive le roi!* which had scarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmosphere, and resounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Versailles was a real triumph. The citizens, almost intoxicated with joy, surrounded his carriage; his countenance, which in the morning bore the aspect of melancholy, was now cheerful and smiling; and he appeared sincerely to partake in the general satisfaction of the people.

The dispersion of the ministry was the natural result of the royal visit to Paris. Marthal Broglio retired to Luxembourg; madame Polignac, in the habit of a

waiting-woman, took the route of Brussels; even the count d'Artois, with his family, withdrew during the stillness of the night, and was followed by the princes of Condé and Conti, the duke de Luxembourg, and others of the nobility. But of all who were connected with the court, none was more odious than M. Foulon, who had long been obnoxious to the people, for his unfeeling tyranny and his insatiable avarice. This unfortunate person had risen from a very low situation in life to the possession of immense riches.

In the war of 1755, he had been commissary to the army, and by his rapacity and extortions is said to have irretrievably dishonoured the French name in the provinces of Germany. He is said to have made a common boast of his depraved principles.—His favourite maxim was, that “that country would be best governed, where the common people should be compelled to feed upon grass;” and he had boasted, “that if ever it should be his good fortune to be minister, he would make the people of France live upon hay.” On the first news of the riots in Paris he had withdrawn himself from the public eye, and had caused a report of his death to be industriously circulated, and his funeral had even been performed in a manner suitable to his immense riches. In the mean time he had secretly retired to Very, an estate belonging to M. de Sartines, where he was in hopes of remaining concealed: but his character commanded no man's affection, and the general unfeelingness of his heart left him without a friend. His own vassals were the first to pursue and detect him; and on the 22d of July he was brought to Paris with a bundle of hay at his back, in allusion to the language which he is said to have employed in expressing his contempt for the people.

The committee at the *Hôtel de Ville* determined to send M. Foulon to the prison of the abbey St. Germain, where he might be detained till the return of tranquillity should afford him an impartial trial: but the immense crowd, which was assembled in the *Place de Grève*, resisted this determination. It was with difficulty M. Bailly could make himself heard, when he urged with all the eloquence of humanity the flagrant injustice of condemning a citizen to death without hearing him in his own defence.—The marquis de la Fayette took still more popular ground, by urging the detention of the criminal, in the hope of obtaining from him a discovery of his accomplices. To this demand the populace appeared to assent by their tokens of applause: but the unhappy Foulon, whether in testimony of his innocence, or by a mechanical movement, clapped his hands at the same time in approbation. A general exclamation was immediately raised:—“They are conniving at his guilt; they intend to save him.” He was not long after seized, and dragged under the fatal lamp-iron, which during the revolution the populace had employed as the instrument of their vengeance. Every circumstance of horror attended his execution: the rope, by which he was suspended, broke

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broke twice; and he was detained for a quarter of an hour in a half expiring state, before a new one could be procured. His head was cut off and placed upon a pike, with the mouth stuffed with hay, and was carried through the streets of Paris. He was seventy-four years of age when he was thus made the victim of popular fury.

The intendant of police, M. Berthier, who had married the daughter of M. Foulon, was implicated in the fate of his father-in-law, and was perhaps odious to the people from the exercise of his arbitrary and oppressive employment. He had been seized at Compeigne; and one of the electors, with 400 horse, had been dispatched to conduct him to Paris, where, on his arrival, he also was accused of speculation and extortion, of being the principal agent in regulating the movements of the camp at St. Denis, and of the still more unpopular crime of speculating in grain, and contributing to the general scarcity. Unhappily for him, he arrived in Paris the very evening in which the populace had imbrued their hands in the blood of his relation; his death was therefore inevitable. If however he did not suffer innocently, he sustained his unhappy fate with courage and dignity. During the greater part of the way he conversed tranquilly with M. Riviere, the elector who accompanied him. When he entered the city, however, the bloody head of his father-in-law was presented to him, and at this dreadful sight he is said to have turned pale, and to have lost his fortitude.

When interrogated at the Hôtel de Ville as to his conduct, he answered calmly: "That he had obeyed the orders of his superiors, and that the inspection of his papers would instruct them as to the extent of his guilt." It was determined to send him immediately to the abbey; but it was impossible to penetrate the concourse of people that surrounded the hôtel. It was in vain that M. Bailly opposed his utmost eloquence to the fury of the multitude; in vain the commander in chief prostrated himself on his knees to entreat that the popular cause should no more be defiled with blood. Numerous as his escort was, they were soon dispersed, and he was dragged to the fatal lamp-iron, where a new cord was already prepared for him.

Here despair inspired him with new courage; and snatching a bayonet out of the hands of one of the guards, he attempted to defend himself, if not from death, at least from ignominy.—He fell pierced with innumerable wounds.—A monster of inhumanity, a dragoon, plunged his hand into his reeking entrails, and tearing out his heart, and fixing it on the point of his cutlafs, carried it as a trophy through the streets. The head was also cut off, and carried about along with that of M. Foulon. It is said that the dragoon, who in this brutal manner tore out the heart of M. Berthier, did it in revenge for the death of a father: be this as it may, his comrades were so completely disgusted with the barbarity of the action, that they

determined to fight him successively till by his death they had removed the dishonour which it fixed upon their corps. He fought the same evening, and was killed.

The bodies of the marquis de Launay and of the major of the Bastille lay exposed in the Place de Grève for a number of hours, and neither their watches or any one of their valuables were even touched by the mob; and when M. Foulon was massacred, his pockets were full of money and bank-notes, which were taken carefully out by some of the mob, and deposited before the committee on the table of the Hôtel de Ville.

Every good citizen was filled with disgust and apprehension—they trembled lest they should have only exchanged one tyranny for another, and condemned in the strongest terms these gusts of inhumanity, these bloody proscriptions, these outrages against public justice. The marquis de la Fayette in particular was so much exasperated by this contempt of all authority, that he determined at once to resign his office of commander in chief: happily for France, the eloquence of M. Bailly had sufficient influence to prevail with him to resume the command.

An incident which occurred at Versailles contributed to excite a most unhappy commotion. On the first of October an entertainment (the first that was ever given in public at Versailles by that body) was given by the gardes-du-corps, or king's body guard, to the officers of the regiment of Flanders; and to augment the unpopularity of the circumstance, it was given in the royal saloon. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the second course, four toasts were given: "The king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family." "The nation" was proposed, but, according to a number of witnesses, expressly rejected by the gardes-du-corps. The king was just returned from hunting; and the queen, having been informed of the gaiety of the scene, persuaded his majesty to accompany her with the heir apparent to the saloon, which was now filled with soldiers—the grenadiers of Flanders and the Swiss chaf-seurs having been admitted to the dessert. The queen appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as she was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the saloon, amidst the exclamations and murmurs of the spectators. Fired with enthusiasm, the soldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their swords drawn; and the royal guests bowed respectfully and retired.

It was not long before the entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with some degree of order, became a scene of entire confusion. Nothing was omitted to inflame the passions of the military. The music played the favourite air—"O Richard, O my king! the world abandons thee;" the ladies of the court distributed white cockades, the anti-patriot ensign; and even some of the national guard, it is said, had the weakness to accept them.

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The city of Paris, during these transactions, was afflicted with all the evils of famine. Either no bread was to be obtained, or bread of so bad a quality, that the populace, always mistrustful and suspicious, were not without their alarms of a criminal design upon the lives, or at least the health, of the inhabitants. Such was the state of things when the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Versailles. The circumstances which we have related were strangely magnified; and all the suspicions which were entertained respecting the design of dissolving the assembly, and carrying off the sovereign, were added in exaggeration.

Early on the morning of the memorable fifth of October, a woman sallied out from the quarter of St. Eustacia, and entering the corps-de-garde, and seizing a drum, paraded the adjacent streets beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours respecting the scarcity of bread. She was soon joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Versailles, where the king, upon hearing their complaints, signed an order for bringing corn from Senlis, and de Lagny, and for removing every obstacle which impeded the supply of Paris. This order being reported to the women, they retired with joy and gratitude.

No sooner was this band of Amazons dispersed, than it was succeeded by another. The national assembly continued sitting; but the session was tumultuous, and interrupted by the shouts and harangues of the Parisian fish-women, who filled the galleries; their address was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints, the multitude crying out that they were actually starving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The president, therefore, humanely ordered that provisions should be sought for in every part of the town, and the hall of the assembly was the scene of a miserable, scanty, and tumultuous banquet. Indeed such was the dreadful famine, that the horse of one of the gardes-du-corps, being killed in a tumult, he was immediately roasted by the mob, and greedily devoured.

The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris were exposed, almost famished, to the inclemencies of the weather in the open streets; within the castle all was trepidation; nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voice of enraged multitudes demanding the life of the queen and the gardes-du-corps. Towards midnight, however, all appeared tolerably still, and peaceable, when the beating of the drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Parisian army.

At about half past five, the day began to break; and at this period crowds of women and other desperate persons, breathing vengeance and thirsting for blood, advanced to the castle, which, in the fatal security which the arrival of the Parisian militia inspired, was left unguarded in several places. Some of the iron gates were shut, and some left open. An immense

crowd found its way into the "cour des ministres," and immediately proceeded to the royal gate, which was shut, and a number of the invaders attempted to scale it. Another troop of ruffians proceeded to the chapel court, and another to that of the princes, and by both these avenues penetrated into the royal court. Some hasty dispositions of defence were made by a M. Aguesseau; the gardes-du-corps were soon under arms, and one man was wounded by them in the arm, and another shot dead. The crowd immediately mounted the grand stair-case, where one of the gardes-du-corps, M. Miomandre, endeavoured to dissuade them from their attempt; but he narrowly escaped with his life. M. Tardivet de Repaire hastened to the queen's apartment, in order to prevent the entrance of the banditti; but he was assailed by thousands, and stretched upon the ground. A villain with a pike attempted to pierce him to the heart; but he had the good fortune to wrest the weapon from his hand, with which he parried the attacks of his enemies, and at length effected his escape. M. Miomandre in the mean time made his way to the queen's apartment. He opened the door, and cried out to a lady whom he saw in the inner chamber—"Save the queen, madam, her life is in danger—I am here alone against two thousand tigers." He shut the door; and after a few minutes resistance was desperately wounded with a pike, and left for dead—though he afterwards recovered.

A quarter of an hour previous to this, the queen had been awaked by the clamours of the women who assembled upon the terrace; but her waiting woman had satisfied her by saying, "that they were only the women of Paris, who she supposed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about." But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more serious, she rose, dressed herself in haste, and ran to the king's apartment by a private passage. In her way she heard the noise of a pistol and a musket, which redoubled her terror. "My friends," said she to every person she met, "save me and my children." In the king's chamber she found the dauphin, who had been brought there by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awaked by the tumult, he had seen from a window the multitude pressing towards the great stair-case; and alarmed for the queen, he halted to her apartment, and entered at one door in the moment she had quitted it by the other. He returned without loss of time; and having with the queen brought the prince's royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude. In the mean time the noise and tumult increased, and appeared at the very door of the chamber.

Nothing was now to be heard but the most dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows against the outer door, a pannel of which was broken. Nothing but instant death was expected by the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult seemed to cease—every thing was quiet; and a moment after a gentle

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rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an instant the apartments were filled with the Parisian guard. The officer who conducted them, ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," said he, "to save the king;" and turning to such of the gardes-du-corps as were in the apartments, "We will save you also, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The national guard unfortunately arrived too late to prevent all the mischief. Two of the gardes-du-corps were murdered by the mob before the troops could be rallied, and their heads fixed on spikes served as the standards of this detestable banditti. From the first moment of the alarm the marquis de la Fayette had even exceeded his usual activity. He appeared in every quarter:—"Gentlemen," said he to the Parisian soldiers, "I have pledged my word and honour to the king, that nothing belonging to him shall receive injury. If I break my word, I shall be no longer worthy to be your commander." Captain Gondran, the officer who had driven the russians from the king's apartment, was not less conspicuous for his activity. The Parisians forced their way in every part through the almost impenetrable mafs—surrounded the gardes-du-corps, and placed them in safety under their own colours.

The banditti, whose great object is plunder, had already began to strip the palace, and to throw the furniture to each other out of the windows. M. Gondran pursued them from place to place, till the castle was at length completely cleared. Expelled from the palace, they repaired to the stables; but here a sudden stop was put to their depredations by M. Doazon, a farmer-general, and captain of the Paris militia. The horses were all recovered, and brought back in safety to their stalls. Disappointed at length in every view, they departed in a body to Paris; and left Versailles entirely free, and under the protection of the national guard. The most generous expressions of kindness and gratitude took place between the gardes-du-corps and the national guard. The former considered the others as their deliverers; while the latter evinced every inclination that they should in future form one united corps.

At length the royal family now ventured to shew themselves at a balcony, and received the most lively acclamations of respect from the soldiers and the people. But whether it had been planned by the popular party, or whether it was the immediate impulse of the multitude—but the former is most probable—at the first a single voice, or a few voices, exclaimed—"The king to Paris;" and this was instantly followed by an universal acclamation enforcing the same demand. After some consultation with the marquis de la Fayette, the king addressed them: "You wish me to go to Paris—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children." He was answered by reiterated acclamations of *Vive le roi!*

The national assembly was convened before the king's departure; and, on the motion of M. Mirabeau, passed

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a solemn decree, "that the assembly was inseparable from the person of the king." A deputation of one hundred members was also appointed to accompany the king to Paris. During the preparations for the journey, the gardes-du-corps changed hats and swords with the grenadiers and national guards, and both they and the regiment of Flanders desired leave to mix indiscriminately in the ranks. It was two o'clock in the afternoon before the procession set out. During the progress all was gaiety and joy among the soldiers and the spectators; and such was the respect in which the French nation still held the name and person of their king, that the multitude were superstitiously persuaded that the royal presence would actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival, the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifested.

As the spirit of the nation was so entirely averse to the principles of the high aristocratic party, numbers of them, particularly the king's two brothers, and some of the first rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themselves indefatigably to the purpose of exciting war against France.

The preparations for the general confederation proceeded, in the mean time, with considerable rapidity. The Champ de Mars, so famous for having been the rendezvous of the troops which in the preceding year were intended to overawe the capital, was chosen for this solemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toises, or 800 yards in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at the further extremity a view of the military academy. In the middle of this vast plain an altar was erected for the purpose of administering the civic oath; and round it an immense amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing four hundred thousand spectators. The entrance into the Champ de Confédération (as it was now called) was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each side of it were seats for the members of the national assembly. Two thousand workmen were employed upon this immense labour; but the citizens of Paris, fearing lest the preparations should not be completed at the appointed period, flocked from every quarter to assist in the patriotic undertaking. Not only the military, but the clergy, and even the ladies lent their cheerful assistance. With astonishment strangers beheld the most delicate and elegant of the female sex dragging the wheel-barrow, or handling with willing but sometimes ineffective endeavours the weighty mallet or the spade. We further learn, that on the Friday before the 14th, his majesty went to view the works at the Campus Martius, and, like the emperor of China, lent a hand, not indeed to the plough, but to the shovel; he filled a wheelbarrow, and would have wheeled away the load, had not one of his attendants taken the burden

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off his hands.—One of the spectators remarked, The king was digging his own grave—at least, that of his late royal honours. The provincials, who came from the remotest parts of the kingdom to join in the confederation, emulated the citizens in the ardour and enthusiasm; and the work was completed, so as both with respect to time and manner to surprise every spectator.

At length the important 14th of July 1790 arrived. The national guards of the departments, distinguished by their respective standards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who served under its banners, being all arranged in military order, the king and the national assembly took a solemn oath to maintain the constitution; the armed citizens repeated it amongst the applauses of innumerable spectators. They swore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the same day through the whole extent of the kingdom.

On the 20th of June 1791, France was menaced with the convulsions of anarchy, and the horrors of civil war, by the escape of the king and queen, with their infant children, and Monsieur and Madame. To favour their escape, the royal family had obtained a passport through the medium of the Russian ambassador, in the name of a baroness de Kortz, with her suite, as travelling to Frankfort.

They travelled in the most private manner till they found themselves at a considerable distance from the capital, when they were furnished by Bouillé with detachments of dragoons, under the pretence of guarding some treasure for the pay of the soldiers. They proceeded without interruption for 156 miles, and were but a few leagues from the frontiers when they were arrested. At St. Menchoud, the post-master, a M. Drouet, who had formerly been a dragoon in the regiment of Condé.—He immediately recognised the queen, and was forcibly attracted by the resemblance of the king to his portrait on the assignat of fifty livres. He was confirmed in his suspicions, on seeing the detachment of dragoons relieved by a detachment of hussars, and determined to stop them; but, being alone, was prudent enough not to expose himself to the opposition of the soldiers. He suffered the carriage to pass, but mounted a swift horse, and took a cross-road to Varennes, which was their next stage. He communicated his suspicions to the post-master there, who had also formerly been a dragoon; and they concluded that the only mode of effecting their purpose was, to barricade the street and bridge over which the carriages must necessarily pass. Fortunately, on the bridge there stood at the moment a carriage loaded with furniture; they overlet it, and called together the mayor, the procureur de la commune, and the commandant of the national guard, and in a few minutes the number of the patriots was increased to eight men.

The commandant and the procureur approached the principal carriage, and asked the names of the travellers. The queen petulantly answered, they were in haste, and produced the passport, which was thought a sufficient warrant by several persons; but the post-masters combated the opinion, on the ground of its not being countersigned by the president of the national assembly; and asked why a Russian baroness should be escorted by the military of France? It was determined therefore to stop the travellers; and as they entered the house of the procureurs, the king throwing off his disguise resumed his dignity.—“I am your king, it is true,” said he: “these are my wife and children. I charge you to treat us with that respect which the French nation have always manifested towards their sovereign.”

The national guard had now arrived in considerable numbers, and at the same moment the hussars, who endeavoured sword in hand to force the house where the king was; but were answered by the national guard, that they should never carry him off alive. The commandant of the national guard had placed at each end of the street two field-pieces, which however were not charged; but they were sufficient to intimidate the hussars, who, upon the commandant ordering the artillery-men to their posts with their matches in their hands, relinquished their object, and quietly surrendered the king to the custody of the national guard.

The assembly received the news of these transactions with inexpressible satisfaction. The perjured Bouillé was suspended from his functions; and orders were given for arresting him, and all who appeared to be concerned in the flight of the king; but Bouillé evaded for the present the axe of justice, by flying the kingdom. The assembly next appointed two commissioners to examine the inferior agents of the king's flight; and three commissioners, Messrs. Tronchet, d'André, and Dupont, were appointed to receive the declaration of the king and queen.

A considerable body of the national guard escorted the royal family to Paris; and their numbers were increased as they approached the metropolis. Messrs. Barnave, Pethion, and Latour-Maubourg had been dispatched to Varennes for the purpose of accompanying them back to Paris; and public tranquillity was so well preserved, that they entered the Thuilleries on the 25th without any disturbance, and with no apparent inconvenience but the fatigue of the journey. Monsieur and Madame, who had taken a different road, were more successful in effecting their escape, and arrived safe at Brussels on the 29d.

On the 3d of September 1791, the new constitution was established by the assembly; and though in some measure this of 1791 has been superseded by the subsequent acts of the French nation; yet as we presume the following review of it may be acceptable to our political readers, we therefore insert it here at large.

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The French Constitution, as finally settled by the National Constituent Assembly, and presented to the King the 3d of Sept. 1791.

DECLARATION OF THE RIGHTS OF MAN, AND OF THE CITIZENS.

" THE representatives of the French people, formed into a national assembly, considering that ignorance, forgetfulness, or contempt of the rights of men, are the sole causes of public grievances, and of the corruption of government, have resolved to exhibit, in a solemn declaration, the natural, unalienable, and sacred rights of man, in order that this declaration, ever present to all the members of the social body, may incessantly remind them of their rights and of their duties; to the end that the acts of the legislative power, and those of the executive power, being able to be every moment compared with the end of all political institutions, may acquire the more respect; in order also that the remonstrances of the citizens, founded henceforward on simple and incontestable principles, may ever tend to maintain the constitution, and to promote the general good.

" For this reason, the national assembly recognizes, and declares in the presence, and under the auspices of the Supreme Being, the following rights of men and of citizens:

ARTICLE 1. " All men are born, and remain, free and equal in rights: social distinctions cannot be founded but on common utility.

2. " The end of all political associations is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man: these rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance against oppression.

3. " The principle of sovereignty resides essentially in the nation: no body of men, no individual, can exercise an authority that does not emanate expressly from that source.

4. " Liberty consists in the power of doing every thing except that which is hurtful to another: hence, the exercise of the natural rights of every man, has no other bounds than those that are necessary to ensure to other members of society the enjoyment of the same rights: those bounds to be determined by the law only.

5. " The law has a right to forbid those actions alone, that are hurtful to society. Whatever is not forbidden by the law, cannot be hindered; and no person can be constrained to do that which the law ordaineth not.

6. " The law is the expression of the general will: all the citizens have a right to concur personally, or by their representatives, in the formation of the law: it ought to be the same for all, whether it protects, or whether it punishes. All citizens being equal in the eye of the law, are equally admissible to public honour, places, and offices, according to their capacity, and without any other distinction but that of their virtue, or their talents.

7. " No man can be accused, arrested, or detained, except in cases determined by the law, and according to the forms which the law hath prescribed. Those who solicit, dispatch, execute, or cause to be executed, arbitrary orders, ought to be punished; but every citizen that is summoned, or seized, in virtue of the law, ought to obey instantly—he becomes culpable by resistance.

8. " The law ought to establish such punishments only as are strictly and evidently necessary; and no person can be punished, but in virtue of a law established and promulgated prior to the offence, and legally applied.

9. " Every man being presumed innocent till such time as he has been declared guilty, if it shall be deemed absolutely necessary to arrest a man, every kind of rigour employed, not necessary to secure his person, ought to be severely punished by the law.

10. " No person shall be molested for his opinions, even such as are religious, provided that the manifestation of those opinions does not disturb the public order established by the law.

11. " The free communication of thought, and of opinion, is one of the most precious rights of man. Every citizen, therefore, may freely speak, write, and publish his sentiments; subject, however, to answer, for the abuse of that liberty, in cases determined by the law.

12. " The guarantee of the rights of men and citizens involves a necessity of public force. This force is then instituted for the advantage of all, and not for the particular utility of those to whom it is confided.

13. " For the maintenance of the public force, and for the expences of administration, a common contribution is indispensably necessary: this contribution should be equally divided amongst all the citizens, in proportion to their abilities.

14. " Every citizen has a right, by himself, or by his representatives, to decide concerning the necessity of the public contribution; to consent to it freely; to look after the employment of it; to determine the quantity, the distribution, the collection and duration.

15. " Society has a right to demand from every public agent, an account of his administration.

16. " That society in which the guarantee of rights is not assured, nor the separation of powers determined, has no constitution.

17. " Property being a right inviolable and sacred, no person can be deprived of it, except when the public necessity, legally ascertained, shall evidently require it, and on condition of a just previous indemnification.—The national assembly, desirous of establishing the French constitution on the principles which it has just now recognized and declared, abolishes, irrevocably, those institutions which are injurious to liberty, and equality of rights.—There is no longer any nobility, nor peerage, nor hereditary distinctions, nor difference of orders, nor feudal government, nor patrimonial jurisdiction, nor any of the titles, denominations, and prerogatives

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prerogatives which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of chivalry, corporations, or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required; nor any kind of superiority, but that of public functionaries in the exercise of their functions.—No public office is henceforth hereditary or purchasable.—No part of the nation, nor any individual, can henceforth possess any privilege or exception from the common rights of all Frenchmen.

“There are no more wardenships or corporations, in professions, arts, or trades.—The law recognises no longer any religious vows, nor any other engagement which would be contrary to natural rights, or to the constitution.”

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES GUARANTEED BY THE CONSTITUTION.

“THE constitution guarantees, as natural and civil rights:

1. “That all the citizens are admissible to places and employments, without any other distinction than that of virtue and talents.

2. “That all taxes shall be equally divided among all the citizens, in proportion to their abilities.

3. “That the same crimes shall be subjected to the same punishments, without any distinction of persons.

“The constitution in like manner guarantees, as natural and civil rights, liberty to every man to go, stay, or depart, without being arrested, or detained, except according to the forms determined by the constitution.—Liberty to every man to speak, write, print, and publish his thoughts, without the writings being subjected to censure or inspection before their publication, and to exercise the religious worship to which he is attached.—Liberty to the citizens to assemble peaceably, and without arms, in complying with the laws of police.—Liberty to address to the constituted authorities, petitions signed by individuals.

“The legislative power can make no law which would attack, or impede the exercise of the natural and civil rights expressed in the present title, and guaranteed by the constitution; but as liberty consists only in the power of doing whatever neither injures the rights of another, nor the public safety, the law may establish penalties against acts, which, attacking either the rights of others, or the public safety, would be injurious to society.

“The constitution guarantees the inviolability of property, or a just and previous indemnity for that, of which public necessity, legally proved, shall require the sacrifice.

“Property, destined to the expence of worship, and to all services of public utility, belongs to the nation, and shall at all times be at its disposal.

“The constitution guarantees all the alienations which have been, or which shall be made according to the forms established by the law.

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“The citizens have a right to elect or choose the ministers of their religions.

“A general establishment of public succour shall be created and organized for the education of deserted children, to relieve the infirm poor, and to procure work for the healthy poor, who have not been able to find it for themselves.

“A public instruction, common to all citizens, shall be created and organized, gratuitous with regard to those parts of tuition indispensable for all men, and of which the establishments shall be gradually distributed, in a proportion combined with the division of the kingdom.

“There shall be established national festivals, to preserve the remembrance of the French revolution, to keep up fraternal affection amongst the citizens, and attachment to the constitution, the country, and the laws.

“There shall be drawn up a code of civil laws, common to all the kingdom.”

OF THE DIVISION OF THE KINGDOM, AND THE STATE OF CITIZENS.

ART. 1. “THE kingdom is one and indivisible; its territory is divided into eighty-three departments; every department into districts; each district into cantons.

2. “Those are French Citizens, who are born in France, of a French father; who, having been born in France, of a foreign father, have fixed their residence in the kingdom; who, having been born in a foreign country, of a French father, have returned to settle in France, and have taken the civic oath. In fine, who having been born in a foreign country, being descended, in whatever degree, from a Frenchman or Frenchwoman who had left their country from religious motives, come to reside in France, and take the civic oath.

3. “Those who having been born out of the kingdom, of foreign parents, but reside in France, become French citizens, after five years of continued residence in the kingdom; if, besides, they have acquired immovable property, or married a Frenchwoman, or formed an establishment of agriculture or commerce, and if they have taken a civic oath.

4. “The legislative power may, from important considerations, naturalize a foreigner, upon no other condition than that of residing in France, and taking the civic oath.

5. “The civic oath is, *I swear to be faithful to the Nation, the Law, and the King; and to maintain, with all my power, the constitution of the kingdom, decreed by the National Constituent Assembly, in the years 1789, 1790, and 1791.*

6. “The quality of a French citizen is lost: 1st, By naturalization in a foreign country; 2d, By being condemned to penalties which involve the civic degradation, provided the person condemned be not re-in-

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stated; 3d, By a sentence of contumacy, provided the sentence be not annulled; 4th, By an association with any foreign order of chivalry, or any foreign body, which shall suppose either proofs of nobility, or distinction of birth, or require religious vows.

7. "The law regards 'marriage' solely as a 'civil contract.' The legislative power shall establish for all the inhabitants, without distinction, the mode by which births, marriages, and deaths, shall be ascertained, and shall appoint the public officers, who shall receive and preserve the certificates of them.

8. "French citizens, considered with respect to those local relations which arise out of their association in cities, and in certain divisions of territory in the country, form the communities.—The legislative power may fix the extent and boundary of each community.

9. "The citizens who compose each community, have a right of choosing, for a time, according to the forms prescribed by the law, those among them, who, under the name of municipal officers, are charged with the management of the particular affairs of the community.—To the municipal officers may be delegated certain functions relative to the general interest of the state.

10. "The rules which the municipal officers shall be bound to follow in the exercise, both of the municipal functions, and of those which shall be delegated to them for the general interest, shall be fixed by the laws."

OF THE PUBLIC POWERS.

ART. 1. "The sovereignty is one, indivisible, inalienable, and belongs to the nation; no section of the people, nor any individual, can arrogate the exercise of it.

2. "The nation, from which alone flow all the powers, cannot exercise them, but by delegation. The French constitution is representative; the representatives are the legislative body and the king.

3. "The legislative power is delegated to a national assembly, composed of temporary representatives, freely chosen by the people, to be exercised by this assembly, with the sanction of the king, in manner afterwards determined.

4. "The government is monarchical; the executive power is delegated to the king, to be exercised under his authority, by ministers and other responsible agents, in manner afterwards determined.

5. "The judicial power is delegated to judges chosen for a time limited by the people."

OF THE NATIONAL LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

ART. 1. "The national assembly, forming the legislative body, is permanent, and consists of one chamber only.

2. "It shall be formed by new elections every two years. Each period of two years shall form one legislature.

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3. "The dispositions of the preceding articles shall not take place with ref. to the ensuing legislative body, whose powers shall cease the last day of April 1793.

4. "The renewal of the legislative body shall be matter of full right.

5. "The legislative body cannot be dissolved by the king."

NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES—BASES OF REPRESENTATION.

ART. 1. "The number of representatives to the legislative body is seven hundred and forty-five, on account of the eighty-three departments of which the kingdom is composed, and independent of those that may be granted to the colonies.

2. "The representatives shall be distributed among the eighty-three departments, according to the proportions of territory, of population, and of direct contribution.

3. "Of the 745 representatives, 247 are attached to the territory.—Of these, each department shall nominate three, except the department of Paris, which shall only nominate one.

4. "Two hundred and forty-nine representatives are attributed to the population.—The total mass of the active population of the kingdom is divided into 249 parts, and each department nominates as many of the deputies as it contains parts of the population.

5. "Two hundred and forty-nine representatives are attached to the direct contribution.—The sum total of the direct contribution of the kingdom is likewise divided into 249 parts; and each department nominates as many deputies as it pays parts of the contribution."

PRIMARY ASSEMBLIES—NOMINATION OF ELECTORS.

ART. 1. "In order to form a national legislative assembly, the active citizens shall convene every two years, in primary assemblies, in the towns and cantons. The primary assemblies shall form themselves, of full right, the second Sunday of March, if they have not been convoked sooner by the public officers established by law.

2. "To be an active citizen, it is necessary, first, To be born, or to have become a Frenchman; secondly, To be twenty-five years of age complete; to have resided in the city or canton during the time determined by the law; to pay, in any part of the kingdom, a direct contribution, at least equal to the value of three day's labour, and to produce the acquittance; not to be in a mental capacity, namely, that of a servant receiving wages; to be inscribed in the municipality of the place of his residence, in the list of the national guards;—to have taken the civic oath.

3. "Every six years the legislative body shall fix the minimum and the maximum of the value of a day's labour,

labour, and the administrators of the departments shall determine the rate for every district.

4. "None shall exercise the right of an active citizen in more than one place, nor employ another as his substitute.

5. "Those shall be excluded from the rights of an active citizen, who are in a state of accusation; who, after having been constituted in a state of failure, or insolvency, proved by authentic documents, shall not produce a general discharge from their creditors.

6. "The primary assemblies shall name electors in proportion to the number of active citizens residing in the town or canton.—There shall be named one elector for a hundred active citizens present, or not, in the assembly.—There shall be named two for 131 to 250; and so on in this proportion.

7. "No man can be named elector, if, along with the conditions necessary in order to be an active citizen, he does not join the following: First, In towns of more than 6000 inhabitants, that of being proprietor or life-renter of a property valued on the rolls of contribution, at a revenue equal to the local value of 200 days' labour; or of renting a house, valued on the same rolls, at a revenue equal to the value of 150 days' labour. Secondly, In towns below 6000 inhabitants, that of being proprietor, or life-renter of a property, valued on the rolls of contribution, at a revenue equal to the local value of 150 days' labour; or of renting a house, valued on the same rolls, at a revenue equal to the value of 100 days' labour. Thirdly, And, in the country, that of being proprietor or life-renter of a property, valued on the rolls of contribution, at a revenue equal to the local value of 150 days' labour; or of being a farmer of lands, valued on the same rolls, at the value of 400 days' labour. Fourthly, With respect to those who shall be at the same time proprietors or life-renters on one hand, and tax-men or farmers on the other, their powers on these different accounts shall be added together, to establish their eligibility."

ELECTORAL ASSEMBLIES—NOMINATION OF REPRESENTATIVES.

ART. 1. "The electors named in each department shall convene in order to choose that number of representatives, whose nomination shall belong to their department, and a number of substitutes equal to the third of the representatives.—The electoral assemblies shall form themselves, of full right, the last Sunday of March, if they have not been convoked sooner by the public officers appointed by law.

2. "The representatives and substitutes shall be chosen by an absolute majority of votes, and cannot be chosen but from amongst the active citizens in the department.

3. "All the active citizens, whatever be their condition, profession, or contribution, may be chosen representatives of the nation.

4. "Those, however, shall be obliged to decide

between one or other situation—Ministers, and other agents of the executive power, removable at pleasure; Commissioners of the national treasury; Collectors and receivers of direct contributions; Superintendents of the collection, or management of indirect contributions, and national domains; and those who, under any denomination whatever, are attached to the employ of the military or civil household of the king.—The administrators, sub-administrators, municipal officers, and commandants of the national guards, shall also be obliged to make a choice.

5. "The exercise of judiciary functions shall be incompatible with those of a representative of the nation, during all the continuance of the legislature.—The judges shall be replaced by their substitutes, and the king shall provide, by briefs of commission, for the replacing of his commissaries at the tribunals.

6. "The members of the legislative body may be re-elected to the next legislature; but not afterwards, till after an interval of one legislature.

7. "The representatives named in the departments shall not be representatives of a particular department, but of the whole nation; and their freedom of opinion cannot be controlled by any instructions either of the primary assemblies, or of the electors."

SESSION AND REGULATION OF THE PRIMARY AND ELECTORAL ASSEMBLIES.

ART. 1. "The functions of the primary and electoral assemblies are limited to the right of electing; and as soon as the elections are over, they shall separate, and shall not form themselves anew, till they shall be summoned.

2. "No active citizen can enter or vote in an assembly, if he is armed.

3. "No armed force can be introduced in the meeting, except at the express desire of the assembly, unless in the case of actual violence, when the order of the president shall be sufficient to call in the aid of public force.

4. "Every two years, there shall be drawn up in each district, lists by cantons of the active citizens; and the list of each canton shall be published and posted up two months before the meeting of the Primary Assembly. The protests which shall be made either against the right of citizens, named in the list, or on the part of those who shall affirm that they are unjustly omitted, shall be carried to the tribunals, to be there summarily decided upon.—The list shall serve to regulate the admission of citizens in the next Primary Assembly, in every point that shall not have been ascertained by a sentence pronounced before the sitting of the assembly.

5. "The Electoral Assemblies have the right of verifying the qualifications and powers of those who shall present themselves there; and their decisions shall be provisionally executed, with a reserve for the sentence

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of the legislative body at the time of the verification of the powers of deputies.

6. "In no case, and under no pretext, shall the king, or any agents named by him, interfere in questions relative to the regularity of the convocations, the sitting of assemblies, the form of elections, or the political rights of citizens. Without prejudice, however, to the functions of the commissaries of the king, in the cases determined by law, where questions relative to the political rights of citizens ought to be carried to the tribunals."

MEETING OF THE REPRESENTATIVES IN THE NATIONAL LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

ART. 1. "The representatives shall assemble on the first Monday of May, in the place of the meeting of the last legislature.

2. "They shall form themselves, provisionally, into an assembly, under the presidency of the eldest, to verify the powers of the representatives present.

3. "As soon as these may be verified, to the number of 373 members, they shall constitute themselves under the title of the National Legislative Assembly; they shall name a president, vice-president, and secretaries, and enter upon the exercise of their functions.

4. "During the whole of the month of May, if the number of representatives present fall short of 373, the Assembly shall not perform any legislative act. They may issue an arret, enjoining the absent members to attend to their functions within fifteen days at furthest, under a penalty of 3000 livres, if they do not produce an excuse which shall be deemed lawful by the legislative body.

5. "On the last day of May, whatever be the number of members present, they shall constitute themselves a National Legislative Assembly.

6. "The representatives shall pronounce in a body, in the name of the French people, the oath, "to live free or die."—They shall then individually take the oath, "to maintain, with all their power, the constitution of the kingdom, decreed by the National Constituent Assembly, during the years 1789, 1790, and 1791; to propose or assent to nothing in the course of the legislature, which may at all tend to infringe it; and to be, in every respect, faithful to the Nation, the Law, and the King."

7. "The representatives of the nation are inviolable; they cannot be examined, accused, or adjudged at any time with respect to what they have said, written, or done, in the exercise of their functions of representatives.

8. "They may for a crime be seized in the act, or in virtue of an order of arrest; but notice shall be given of it, without delay, to the legislative body; and the prosecution shall not be continued, till after the legislative body shall have decided that there is ground for accusation."

OF THE ROYALTY, THE REGENCY, AND THE MINISTERS.

Of the ROYALTY and the KING.

ART. 1. "The royalty is indivisible, and delegated hereditarily to the race on the throne, from male to male, by order of primogeniture, to the perpetual exclusion of women and their descendants.—Nothing is prejudged respecting the effect of renunciations in the race on the throne.

2. "The person of the king is sacred and inviolable, his only title is 'King of the French.'

3. "There is no authority in France superior to that of the law. The king reigns only by it, and it is only in the name of the law that he can require obedience.

4. "The king, on his accession to the throne, or at the period of his majority, shall take to the nation, in the presence of the legislative body, the oath, 'To be faithful to the Nation, and to the Law; to employ all the power delegated to him, to maintain the Constitution decreed by the National Constituent Assembly in the years 1789, 1790, and 1791; and to cause the laws to be executed.'—If the legislative body shall not be assembled, the king shall cause a proclamation to be issued, in which shall be expressed this oath, and a promise to repeat it as soon as the legislative bodies shall assemble.

5. "If, one month after an invitation by the legislative body, the king has not taken this oath, or if after taking it he shall retract, he shall be deemed to have abdicated the royalty.

6. "If the king put himself at the head of an army, and direct the forces of it against the nation, or if he do not oppose, by a formal act, any such enterprise undertaken in his name, he shall be deemed to have abdicated.

7. "If the king, having gone out of the kingdom, do not return on the invitation of the legislative body, and within the delay fixed by the proclamation, which cannot be less than two months, he shall be deemed to have abdicated.—The delay shall commence from the day when the proclamation of the legislative body shall have been published in the place of its sitting; and the ministers shall be obliged, under their responsibility, to perform all the acts of the executive power, the exercise of which shall be suspended in the hands of the absent king.

8. "After abdication, express or legal, the king shall be in the class of citizens, and may be accused and tried like them, for acts posterior to his abdication.

9. "The particular effects which the king possesses at his accession to the throne, are irrevocably united to the domain of the nation; he has the disposition of those which he acquires on his own private account; if he has not disposed of them, they are in like manner united at the end of the reign.

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10. "The nation makes provision for the splendor of the throne by a civil list, of which the legislative body shall fix the sum at the commencement of each reign, for the whole duration of that reign.

11. "The king shall appoint an administrator of the civil list, who shall commence all suits for the king, and against whom all actions for debts of the king shall be carried on, and judgments given and executed. Sentences of condemnation, obtained by the creditors of the civil list, shall be executed against the administrator personally and his private fortune.

12. "The king shall have, independent of the honorary guard which shall be furnished him by the citizens, national guards of the place of his residence, a guard paid from the funds of the civil list. It shall not exceed 1200 foot, and 600 horse.—The degrees and rules of advancement shall be the same in it as amongst the troops of the line. But those who compose the king's guards, shall pass through all the degrees exclusively amongst themselves, and cannot obtain any in the army of the line.—The king cannot choose his guards, but among those who are at present in active service in the troops of the line, or amongst the citizens who have served a year in the national guards, provided they are residents in the kingdom, and that they have previously taken the civic oath.—The king's guards cannot be ordered or required for any other public service."

OF THE REGENCY.

ART. 1. "The king is a minor till the age of eighteen complete; and during his minority, there shall be a regent of the kingdom.

2. "The regency belongs to the relation of the king, who is the next in degree according to the order of succession to the throne, and who has attained the age of twenty five, provided he be a Frenchman resident in the kingdom, and not presumptive heir to any other crown, and have taken the civic oath.—Women are excluded from the regency.

3. "If a minor king have no relations who unite the above qualities, the regent of the kingdom shall be elected as is directed in the following articles:

4. "The legislative body shall not elect the regent

5. "The electors of each district shall assemble in the chief place of their district, after a proclamation, which shall be issued in the first week of the new reign, by the legislative body if convened; and if separated, the minister of justice shall be bound to make that proclamation in the same week.

6. "The electors shall name in every district, by individual scrutiny, and absolute plurality of votes, a citizen eligible, and resident in the district, to whom they shall give by the procez-verbale of the election, a special mandate, limited to the sole function of electing the citizen whom he shall judge in his heart and conscience the most worthy of being regent of the kingdom.

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7. "The citizens having these mandates, elected in the districts, shall be bound to assemble in the town where the legislative body holds its seat, the fortieth day at furthest, counting from that of the advancement of the minor king to the throne; and they shall form there the electoral assembly, who shall proceed to the nomination of the regent.

8. "The election of the regent shall be made by individual scrutiny and absolute plurality of votes.

9. "The electoral assembly cannot employ itself, but relative to this election, and shall separate as soon as the election is finished.—Every other act which it shall attempt, is declared unconstitutional and of no effect.

10. "The electoral assembly shall make its president present the procez-verbale of the election to the legislative body, who, after having verified the regularity of the election, shall make it public over all the kingdom by a proclamation.

11. "The regent exercises, till the king's majority, all the functions of royalty, and is not personally responsible for the acts of his administration.

12. "The regent cannot begin the exercise of his functions, till after taking to the nation, in the presence of the legislative body, an oath, 'To be faithful to the nation, the law, and the king; and to employ all the power delegated to the king, and of which the exercise is confided to him during the minority of the king, to maintain the constitution decreed by the national constituent assembly, in the years 1789, 1790, and 1791, and to cause the laws to be executed.'—If the legislative body is not assembled, the regent shall cause a proclamation to be issued, in which shall be expressed this oath, and a promise to repeat it as soon as the legislative body shall be met.

13. "As long as the regent is not entered on the exercise of his functions, the sanction of the laws remain suspended; the ministers continue to perform, under their responsibility, all the acts of the executive power.

14. "As soon as the regent shall take the oath, the legislative body shall fix his allowance, which shall not be altered during his regency.

15. "If on account of the minority of the relation called to the regency, it has devolved to a more distant relation, or been settled by election, the regent who shall have entered on the exercise of it, shall continue his functions till the majority of the king.

16. "The regency of the kingdom confers no right over the person of the minor king.

17. "The care of the minor king shall be confided to his mother; and if he has no mother, or if she be married again at the time of her son's accession to the throne, or if she marry again during the minority, the care of him shall be delegated by the legislative body.—Neither the regent, nor his descendants, nor a woman, can be chosen as guardian of the minor king.

18. "In case of the king's insanity, notoriously admitted, legally proved, and declared by the legislative

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body, after three successive deliberations held monthly, there shall be a regency, as long as such incapacity continues."

OF THE ROYAL FAMILY.

ART. 1. "The presumptive heir shall bear the name of "Prince Royal." He cannot go out of the kingdom, without a decree of the legislative body, and the king's consent.—If he is gone out of it, and if, being arrived at eighteen years of age, he do not return to France, after being required by a proclamation of the legislative body, he is held to have abdicated the right of succession to the throne.

2. "If the presumptive heir be a minor, the relation of full age, and next in order to the regency, is bound to reside within the kingdom. In case of his going out of it, and not returning on the requisition of the legislative body, he shall be held to have abdicated his right to the regency.

3. "The mother of the minor king, having the care of him, or the guardian elected, if they go out of the kingdom, forfeit their charge.—If the mother of the presumptive heir, a minor, go out of the kingdom, she cannot, even after her return, have the care of her minor son, become king, but by a decree of the legislative body.

4. "A law shall be made to regulate the education of the minor king, and that of the minor heir presumptive.

5. "The members of the royal family called to the eventual succession to the throne enjoy the rights of an active citizen, but are not eligible to any places, employments, or functions, in the nomination of the people.—Excepting the places of ministers, they are capable of offices and employments in the nomination of the king; however they cannot be commanders in chief of any army or fleet, nor fulfil the functions of ambassadors, without the consent of the legislative body, granted on the proposition of the king.

6. "The members of the royal family, called to the eventual succession to the throne, shall add the denomination of French prince to the name which shall have been given them in the civil act, stating their birth; and this name can neither be patronymic, nor formed of any of the qualifications abolished by the present constitution.—The denomination of prince cannot be given to any other individual, and shall convey no privilege, nor any exception, to the common rights of all Frenchmen.

7. "The acts by which shall be legally stated the births, marriages, and deaths of the French princes, shall be presented to the legislative body, who shall command the deposit of them in their archives.

8. "No real apanage (in land) shall be granted to the members of the royal family.—The younger sons of the king shall receive, at the age of twenty-five, or on their marriage, an annuity, the amount of which shall be fixed by the legislative body, and which shall terminate with the extinction of their male heirs."

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OF MINISTERS.

ART. 1. "To the king alone belongs the choice and revocation of ministers.

2. "The members of the present national assembly, and succeeding legislatures, the members of the tribunal of annulment, and those who shall serve in the high jury, cannot be advanced to the ministry, nor receive any offices, gifts, pensions, salaries, or commissions from the executive power, or its agents, during the continuance of their functions, nor during two years after having finished the exercise of them.—The same shall be the case with respect to those who shall be inscribed in the list of the high jury, during all the time that their inscription shall continue.

3. "No one can enter upon the exercise of any employ, either in the bureaux of ministers, or in those of the administrations of public power, without having taken the civic oath, and having verified his having taken it.

4. "No order of the king can be executed, if it be not signed by him, and countersigned by the minister or comptroller of the department.

5. "The ministers are responsible for all the offences committed by them against the national safety and the constitution;—First, For every attack on individual property and liberty;—Second, For every waste of the money allotted for the expences of their department.

6. "In no case can the written or verbal order of a king shelter a minister from responsibility.

7. "The ministers are bound to present every year to the legislative body, at the opening of the session, the state of the expences of their department; to give an account of the employment of the sums destined for that purpose, and to mention the abuses which may have crept into the different parts of the government.

8. "No minister in or out of place can be criminally prosecuted for any transaction of his administration, without a decree of the legislative body."

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE LEGISLATIVE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

ART. 1. "The constitution delegates exclusively to the legislative body, the powers and functions following:—

First, "To propose and decree laws: the king can only invite the legislative body to take an object into consideration.

Second, "To fix the public expences.

Third, "To establish the public contribution:—to determine their nature, quantity, duration, and mode of collection.

Fourth, "To divide the direct contribution amongst the departments of the kingdom—to superintend the employ of all the public revenue, and to demand an account of it.

Fifth, "To decree the creation or suppression of public offices.

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Sixth, " To determine the quality, weight, impression, and name of the coin.

Seventh, " To permit or prohibit the introduction of foreign troops into the French territories, and of foreign naval forces into the ports of the kingdom.

Eighth, " To fix annually, after the proposition of the king, the number of men and ships of which the land and naval armies shall be composed; the pay and number of individuals of each rank; the rules of admission and promotion; the forms of enrolment and discharge; the formation of naval equipments; the admission of foreign troops, or naval forces into the service of France; and the pay of troops, in case of their being disbanded.

Ninth, " To regulate the administrative government, and the alienation of the national domains.

Tenth, " To prosecute before the high national court, the ministers and principal agents of the executive power, in what relates to their responsibility.—To accuse and prosecute before the same court, those who shall be charged with any attack or conspiracy against the general safety of the state, or against the constitution.

Eleventh, " To establish the laws, according to which marks of honour or decoration, purely personal, shall be granted to those who have rendered services to the state.

Twelfth, " The legislative body have the right to decree public honours to the memory of great men.

1. " War cannot be resolved on, but by a decree of the National Assembly, passed on the formal and necessary proposition of the king, and sanctioned by him.—In the case of imminent or commenced hostilities, of an ally to be supported, or a right to be preserved by force of arms, the king shall notify the same without delay to the legislative body, and shall declare the reasons of it.—If the legislative body be not sitting, the king shall assemble it immediately.—If the legislative body decide that war ought not to be made, the king shall immediately take measures to stop or prevent all hostilities, the ministers being responsible for delays.—If the legislative body find that the hostilities commenced are a palpable aggression on the part of ministers, or any other agent of the executive power, the author of the aggression shall be prosecuted criminally.—During the whole course of war, the legislative body may require the king to negotiate peace, and the king is bound to yield to this requisition.—On the immediate conclusion of war, the legislative body shall fix the time within which the troops levied above the peace establishment, shall be discharged, and the army reduced to its ordinary state.

3. " It belongs to the legislative body to ratify treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce, and no treaty shall have effect but by this ratification.

4. " The legislative body has the right of determining the place of its sittings, of continuing them as long as it shall think necessary, and of adjourning; at

the commencement of each reign, if it be not sitting, it shall be bound to meet without delay.—1st. It has the right of police in the place of its sitting, and to such extent around it as shall be determined.—ad. It has the right of discipline over its members; but it can pronounce no heavier punishment than censure, arrest for eight days, or imprisonment for three.—3d. It has the right of disposing, for its safety, and the respect that is due to it, of the forces which shall be placed, by its consent, in the city where it shall hold its sittings.

5. " The executive power cannot march, or quarter, or station, any troops of the line within thirty thousand toises of the legislative body, except on the requisition, or by the authority of that body."

HOLDING OF THE SITTINGS, AND FORM OF DELIBERATING.

ART. 1. " The deliberations of the legislative body shall be public, and the proceedings of its sittings shall be printed.

2. " The legislative body, may, however, on any occasion, form itself into a general committee.—Fifty members shall have a right to demand this.—During the continuance of the general committee, the assistants shall retire, the chair of the president shall be vacant, and order shall be maintained by the vice-president.

3. " No legislative act can be debated and decreed, except in the following form:

4. " The plan of a decree shall be read thrice, at three intervals, the shortest of which cannot be less than eight days.

5. The discussion shall be open after every reading; nevertheless, after the first or second reading, the legislative body may declare that there is reason for adjournment, or that there is no need for deliberation; in this last case, the plan of the decree may be introduced again in the same session.—Every plan of a decree shall be printed and distributed before the second reading of it can be commenced.

6. " After the third reading, the president shall be bound to propose it to deliberation; and the legislative body shall decide, whether they are qualified to pass a definitive decree, or would rather choose to postpone their decision, in order to gather more ample information on the subject.

7. " The legislative body cannot deliberate, if the meeting do not consist of at least two hundred members: and no decree shall be made, except by the absolute majority of votes.

8. " No plan of a law, which, after having been submitted to discussion, shall have been rejected after the third reading, can again be introduced the same session.

9. " The preamble of every definitive decree shall announce, first the dates of those sittings at which the three readings of the plan of the decree were made;

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10. "The king shall refuse his sanction to decrees whose preamble shall not attest the observance of the above forms; if any of those decrees be sanctioned, the ministers shall neither put it to the seal, nor promulgate it, and their responsibility in this respect shall continue six years.

11. "Excepting from these regulations, decrees recognized, and declared urgent by a previous deliberation of the legislative body; but they may be modified, or revoked, in the course of the same session.—The decree by which a matter shall have been declared urgent, shall announce the reasons of it, and there shall be mention made of this previous decree in the preamble of the definitive decree."

OF THE ROYAL SANCTION.

ART. 1. "The decrees of the legislative body are presented to the king, who may refuse his assent to them.

2. "In the case of a refusal of the royal assent, that refusal is only suspensive.—When the two following legislatures which shall follow that in which the decree was presented, shall successively represent the same decree in the same terms in which it was originally conceived, the king shall be deemed to have given his sanction.

3. "The assent of the king is expressed to each decree, by the following formula, signed by the king: *The king consents, and will cause it to be executed.*—The suspensive refusal is thus expressed: *The king will examine.*

4. "The king is bound to express his assent, or refusal, to each decree, within two months after it shall have been presented.

5. "No decree to which the king has refused his assent, can be presented to him by the same legislature.

6. "The decree sanctioned by the king, and those which have been presented to him by three successive legislatures, alone have the force of a law, and bear the name and title of laws.

7. "There shall be, however, executed as laws, without being subjected to sanction, those acts of the legislative body which relate to its constitution as a deliberating assembly;—Its interior police, and that which it may exercise in the external space, which it shall have determined;—The verification of the powers of the members present;—The injunctions to absent members;—The convocation of the primary assemblies in case of delay;—The exercise of constitutional superintendence over the administrators, and municipal officers;—Questions of eligibility, or the validity of elections.—Exempting likewise from sanction, acts relative to the responsibility of ministers, and all decrees importing that there is ground of accusation.

8. "The decrees of the legislative body, concerning the establishment, prorogation, and collection of

public contributions, shall bear the name and title of laws; they shall be promulgated and executed without being subject to sanction, except with respect to those dispositions which should establish other penalties than pecuniary fines and constraints.—These decrees cannot be passed but after the observation of the formalities prescribed by the articles 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, relative to the Sittings, &c. in p. 898; and the legislative body shall not insert in them any dispositions foreign to their object."

CONNECTION OF THE LEGISLATIVE BODY WITH THE KING.

ART. 1. "When the legislative body is definitively constituted, it shall send a deputation to inform the king. The king may every year open the session, and propose the objects, which, during its continuance, he thinks ought to be taken into consideration; this form, however, is not to be considered as necessary to the activity of the legislative body.

2. "When the legislative body wishes to adjourn longer than fifteen days, it is bound to inform the king, by a deputation, at least eight days previous.

3. "A week, at least, before the end of each session, the legislative body shall send a deputation to the king, to announce to him the day on which it proposes to terminate its sittings. The king may, come, in order to close the session.

4. "If the king find it of importance to the welfare of the state, that the session be continued, or that the adjournment be put off, or take place only for a shorter time, he may send a message to this effect, on which the legislative body is bound to deliberate.

5. "The king shall convoke the legislative body, during the interval of its session, at all times when the interest of the state shall appear to him to require it, as well as in those cases which the legislative body shall have foreseen and determined, previous to their adjournment.

6. "Whenever the king shall visit the place of meeting of the legislative body, he shall be received and conducted back by a deputation; he cannot be accompanied into the inner part of the hall by any except the prince royal and the ministers.

7. "The president can in no case form part of a deputation.

8. "The legislative body shall cease to be a deliberating body whilst the king shall be present.

9. "The acts of correspondence of the king with the legislative body, shall be always countersigned by a minister.

10. "The ministers of the king shall have admission into the national legislative assembly; they shall have a place assigned to them; they shall be heard always when they demand it on objects relative to their administration, or when they shall be required to give information. They shall also be heard on objects foreign

reign to their administration, when the national assembly shall grant them liberty to speak."

OF THE EXERCISE OF THE EXECUTIVE POWER.

ART. 1. "The supreme executive power resides exclusively in the hands of the king.—The king is the supreme head of the general administration of the kingdom: the care of watching over the maintenance of public order and tranquillity is intrusted to him.—The king is the supreme head of the land and sea forces.—To the king is delegated the care of watching over the exterior security of the kingdom, and of maintaining its rights and possessions.

2. "The king names ambassadors and the other agents of political negotiations.—He bestows the command of armies and fleets, and the ranks of marshal of France and admiral.—He names two-thirds of the rear-admirals, one half of the lieutenant-generals, camp marshals, captains of ships, and colonels of the national gendarmerie.—He names a third of the colonels and lieutenant-colonels, and a sixth of the lieutenants of ships—the whole in conformity to the laws with respect to promotion.—He appoints, in the civil administration of the marine, the directors, the comptrollers, the treasurers of the arsenals, the masters of the works, the under-masters of civil buildings, half of the masters of administration, and of the under-masters of construction.—He appoints the commissaries of the tribunals.—He appoints the chief superintendents of the administration of indirect contributions, and the administration of national domains.—He superintends the coinage of money, and appoints the officers intrusted with this superintendence in the general commission and the mints.—The effigy of the king is struck on all the coinage of the kingdom.

3. "The king orders letters patent, brevets, and commissions, to be delivered to all the public offices that ought to receive them.

4. "The king orders a list of pensions and gratifications to be made out, for the purpose of being presented to the legislative body each session, and decreed, if there is reason for it."

OF THE PROMULGATION OF LAWS.

ART. 1. "The executive power is charged with ordering the seal of state to be put to laws, and causing them to be promulgated.—It is equally charged with causing to be promulgated and executed those acts of the legislative body which have no need of the sanction of the king.

2. "Two copies of each law shall be made, both signed by the king, countersigned by the minister of justice, and sealed with the seal of state. The one shall be deposited in the archives of the seal, and the other shall be sent to the archives of the legislative body.

3. "The promulgation of laws shall be thus expressed:

• N. (the king's name) by the grace of God, and

the constitutional law of the state, king of the French, to all present and to come, greeting. The national assembly has decreed, and we will and ordain as follows:—(Here a literal copy of the decree shall be inserted, without any variation.)—We command and ordain to all administrative bodies and courts of justice, to cause these presents to be transcribed on their registers, read and published, and posted up in their departments and respective place of resort, and executed as a law of the realm; in which we have signed these presents, to which we have caused the seal of the state to be put.

"If the king be a minor, laws, proclamations, and other acts proceeding from the royal authority during the regency, shall be conceived in these terms:—'N. (the name of the regent) regent of the kingdom, in the name of N. (the king's name) by the grace of God and the constitutional law of the state, king of the French, &c.'

5. "The executive power is bound to send the laws to the administrative bodies and courts of justice, to be certified that they are so sent, and to answer for it to the legislative body.

6. "The executive power cannot make any law, not even provisional, but merely proclamations, conformable to the laws, to ordain or enforce the execution."

OF THE INTERIOR ADMINISTRATION.

ART. 1. "There is in each department a superior administration, and in each district a subordinate administration.

2. "The administrators have no character of representation.—They are agents, chosen for a time by the people, to exercise, under the superintendence and the authority of the king, the administrative functions.

3. "They can neither interfere in the exercise of the legislative power, nor suspend the execution of the laws, nor assume any authority over judicial proceedings, nor over military regulations or operations.

4. "The administrators are essentially charged with the repartition of the direct taxes, and with the superintendence of the funds arising from all the contributions and public revenues in their territory.—It belongs to the legislative power to determine the rules and mode of their functions, both with respect to the objects above mentioned, as well as with respect to all the other parts of the interior administration.

5. "The king has the right of annulling such acts of the administrators of department, as are contrary to the law, or the orders he has transmitted to them.—He may, in case of obtrinate disobedience, or of their endangering, by their acts, the safety or peace of the public, suspend them from their functions.

6. "The administrators of department have also the right of annulling the acts of the sub-administrators of district, contrary to the laws or to the arrears of administrators of department, or to the orders which the latter

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latter shall have given or transmitted.—They may likewise, in case of an obdurate disobedience on the part of the sub-administrators; or if the latter endanger, by their acts, the public safety or tranquillity, suspend them from their functions, with the reserve of informing the king, who may remove or confirm the suspension.

7. "The king, if the administrators of department shall not use the power which is delegated to them in the article above, may directly annul the acts of sub-administrators, and suspend them in the same cases.

8. "Whenever the king shall pronounce or confirm the suspension of administrators, or sub-administrators, he shall inform the legislative body. This body may either remove or confirm the suspension, or even dissolve the culpable administration; and if there be ground, remit all the administrators, or some of them, to the criminal tribunals, or enforce against them the decree of accusation."

OF EXTERNAL CONNECTIONS.

1. "The king alone can keep up foreign political connections, conduct negotiations, make preparations of war, proportioned to those of the neighbouring states; distribute the land and sea forces, as he shall judge most suitable, and regulate their direction in case of war.

2. "Every declaration of war shall be made in these terms: *By the king of the French, in the name of the nation.*

3. "It belongs to the king to resolve and sign with all foreign powers, all treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce, and other conventions, which he shall judge necessary for the welfare of the state, with a reserve for the ratification of the legislative body."

OF THE JUDICIAL POWER.

1. "The judicial power can in no case be exercised, either by the legislative body, or the king.

2. "Justice shall be gratuitously rendered, by judges chosen for a time by the people, instituted by letters patent of the king, who cannot refuse to grant them. They cannot be deposed, but for forfeiture duly judged; nor suspended, but for an accusation admitted.—The public accusers shall be named by the people.

3. "The tribunals cannot either interfere in the exercise of the legislative power, or suspend the execution of the laws, or undertake the administrative functions, or cite before them the administrators, on account of their functions.

4. "The citizens cannot be withdrawn from the judges whom the law alligis to them by any commission, or by any other attributions or evocations than those which are determined by the laws.

5. "The right of the citizens to terminate definitively their disputes by the way of arbitration, shall receive no infringement from the acts of the legislative power.

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6. "The ordinary courts of justice cannot receive any civil action, until it be certified to them that the parties have appeared, or that the pursuer has cited the opposite party to appear before mediators, to endeavour to bring about a reconciliation.

7. "There shall be one or more justices of peace in the canton and in the towns. The number of them shall be determined by the legislative power.

8. "It belongs to the legislative power to regulate the number and extent of jurisdiction of the tribunals, and the number of judges of which each tribunal shall be composed.

9. "In criminal matters, no citizen can be tried, but on an accusation received by a jury, or decreed by the legislative body, in the cases where it belongs to it to pursue the accusation.—After the admission of the accusation, the fact shall be recognized and declared by a jury.—The accused shall have a right to refuse, as far as twenty jurors, without assigning reasons.—The jury which declares the fact, cannot be of fewer than twelve members.—The application of the law shall be made by judges.—The instruction of the process shall be public, and the assistance of counsel cannot be refused to the accused.—No man acquitted by a lawful jury, can be retaken or accused on account of the same fact.

10. "No man can be seized upon, but in order to be conducted before an officer of police: and no man can be arrested or detained, but in virtue of a mandate of the officers of police; of an order for personal arrestation by a tribunal; of a decree of accusation of the legislative body, in the cases where it belongs to it to pronounce; or of a sentence of imprisonment or detention for the sake of correction.

11. "Every man seized upon and conducted before an officer of police, shall be examined immediately, or at latest in twenty-four hours.—If it result from the examination, that there be no ground for blame against him, he shall be directly set at liberty: or if there be ground to send him to a house of arrest, he shall be conducted there with the least delay possible, and that in any case cannot exceed three days.

12. "No man arrested can be detained if he give sufficient bail, in all cases where the law permits a man to remain free under bail.

13. "No man, in the cases when detention is authorized by the law, can be conducted or detained any where, but in those places legally and publicly marked out as houses of arrest, of justice, or prisons.

14. "No guard nor jailer can receive or detain any man, but in virtue of a mandate, order of arrest, decree of accusation, or sentence, mentioned in the tenth article above, nor without transcribing them in his own register.

15. "Every guard or jailer is bound, and no order can release him from the obligation, to produce the person detained to the civil officer who superintends the police of the house of arrest, as often as it shall

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be required of him.—The production of the person detained, cannot also be refused to his relations and friends, who bring an order from a civil officer, who shall be bound always to grant it, unless the guard or jailor produce an order from a judge, transcribed in his register, to keep the person arrested secret.

16. " Every man, whatever be his place or occupation, except those to whom the law confides the right of arrestation, who shall give, sign, execute, or make to be executed, an order to arrest a citizen; or whoever, even in the cases of arrestation authorised by the law, shall conduct, receive, or detain a citizen, in a place of detention not publicly and legally marked out; and every guard or jailor who shall act in opposition to the disposition of the above 14th and 15th articles, shall be culpable of the crime of arbitrary detention.

17. " No man can be taken up, or prosecuted, on account of the writings which he has caused to be printed or published, whatever be their subject, if he has not defiedly provoked disobedience to the law, outrage to the established powers, and resistance to their acts, or any of the actions declared crimes or offences by the law.—The censure of all the acts of the established powers is permitted; but voluntary calumnies against the probity of public officers, and against the rectitude of their intentions in the exercise of their functions, may be prosecuted by those who are the subject of them.—Calumnies or injurious sayings against any kind of persons, relative to the actions of their private life, shall be punished by prosecution.

18. " No man can be judged, either civilly or criminally, for acts of writing, printing, or publishing, except it has been recognised and declared by a jury, 1st, that there is an offence in the writing denounced: 2d, that the person prosecuted is guilty of it.

19. " There shall be, for the whole kingdom, one only tribunal of annulment, established near the legislative body. Its functions shall be, to pronounce—On demands of annulment of judgments given in the last resort by the tribunals;—On demands of being remitted from one tribunal to another, for lawful causes of suspicion;—On regulations respecting judges, and suits against a whole tribunal.

20. " In questions of annulment, the tribunal of annulment shall never take cognizance of the affair itself; but after having annulled the sentence which shall have been pronounced in a process, and in which the forms have been violated, or which shall contain an express contradiction to the law, it shall remit the original affair to the tribunal which ought to decide on it.

21. " When, after being twice annulled, a sentence pronounced by a third tribunal shall be attacked on the same grounds as at first, the question shall no more be judged by the tribunal of annulment, without having been submitted to the legislative body, who shall pass a decree declarative of the law,

to which the tribunal of annulment shall be bound to conform.

22. " Every year, the tribunal of annulment shall be bound to send to the bar of the legislative body a deputation of eight of its members, to present a state of the decisions passed; on the margin of each of which shall be placed a short account of the affair, and the text of the law which shall have determined the decision.

23. " A high national court, formed of the members of the tribunal of annulment, and of high jurors, shall take cognizance of offences committed by the ministers and principal agents of the executive power, of those crimes which attack the general safety of the state, after the legislative body shall have passed a decree for accusation.—It shall not be assembled but at the proclamation of the legislative body, and at the distance of thirty thousand toises at least from the place where the legislative body holds its meetings.

24. " The orders issued for executing the judgments of the tribunals, shall be conceived in these terms:—' N. (the name of the king) by the grace of God, and by the constitutional law of the state, king of the French, to all present and to come, greeting. ' The tribunal of — has passed the following judgment: ' [Here shall follow a copy of the judgment, in which shall be mentioned the names of the judges.] —' We charge and enjoin all officers, upon the present demand, to put the said judgment into execution, our commissaries of the tribunals to enforce the same, and all the commanders and officers of the public force to be assisting with their force, when it shall be legally required: in witness of which, the present judgment has been signed by the president of the tribunal, and by the register.'

25. " The functions of the king's commissaries in the tribunals, shall be, to require the observance of the laws in the judgments to be given, and to cause them to be executed after they are passed.—They shall not be public accusers; but they shall be heard on all accusations, and shall require, during process, regularity of forms, and, before judgment, application of the law.

26. " The king's commissaries in the tribunals shall denounce to the director of the jury, either officially, or according to orders given them by the king;—Offences against the individual liberty of citizens, against the free circulation of provisions and other objects of commerce, and against the collection of contributions:—Offences by which the execution of orders given by the king, in the exercise of the functions delegated to him, shall be disturbed or impeded;—Infringements on the laws of nations; opposition to the execution of judgments; and to all executive acts proceeding from established powers.

27. " The minister of justice shall denounce to the tribunal of appeal, by means of the king's commissary, and without prejudice to the rights of the parties interested,

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interested, the acts in which the judges have exceeded the bounds of their power.—The tribunal shall annul these acts; and if they give ground for forfeiture, the fact shall be represented to the legislative body, which shall pass the decree of accusation if there be ground, and refer the parties informed against to the high national court."

OF THE PUBLIC FORCE.

1. "The public force is instituted to defend the state against external enemies, and to maintain internal order and the execution of the laws.

2. "It is composed,—Of the land and sea armies;—Of the troops specially destined for home service;—And, subsidiarily, of the active citizens, and their children of age to bear arms, registered in the roll of national guards.

3. "The national guards do not form a military body, or an institution in the state; they are the citizens themselves, called to assist the public force.

4. "The citizens can never embody themselves, or act as national guards, but by virtue of a legal requisition of authority.

5. "They are subject in this quality to an organization, to be determined by the law.—They shall be distinguished in the whole kingdom, by only one form of discipline, and one uniform.—Distinctions of rank and subordination subsist only relative to the service, and during its continuance.

6. "Officers are chosen for a time, and cannot again be chosen till after a certain interval of service as soldiers.—None shall command the national guard of more than one district.

7. "All the parts of the public force employed for the safety of the state from foreign enemies, shall act under the command of the king.

8. "No body or detachment of troops of the line can act in the internal part of the kingdom without a legal order.

9. "No agent of the public force can enter the house of a citizen, if it be not on purpose to execute the orders of police and of justice, or in cases formally provided for by the law.

10. "The requisition of the public force, in the internal part of the kingdom, belongs to the civil officers, according to the regulations provided by the legislative power.

11. "When any department is throughout in a state of commotion, the king shall issue, under the responsibility of ministers, the necessary orders for the execution of laws, and the re-establishment of order; but with the reserve of informing the legislative body, if it be assembled, and of convoking it, if it be not sitting.

12. "The public force is essentially obedient; no armed body can deliberate.

13. "The land and sea armies, and the troops destined to preserve internal security, are subjected to

particular laws, both for the maintenance of discipline, and for the manner of judgments, and the nature of punishments, on occasion of military offences."

OF PUBLIC CONTRIBUTIONS.

1. "Public contributions shall be debated and fixed every year by the legislative body, and cannot continue in force longer than the last day of the following session, if they are not expressly renewed.

2. "The funds necessary to the discharge of the national debt, and the payment of the civil list, can, under no pretext, be refused or suspended.—The salaries of the ministers of the Catholic religion, who are paid, preserved, elected, or named in virtue of the decrees of the national constituent assembly, form a part of the national debt.—The legislative body cannot, in any case, charge the nation with the payment of the debts of any individual.

3. "The accounts at full length of the ministerial department, signed and certified by the ministers or commissioners, shall be made public, by being printed at the commencement of the session of each legislature.—So shall also the state of receipts of the different taxes, and all the public revenues.—The state of receipt and expenditure shall be distinguished according to their nature, and shall express the sums received and disbursed, year by year, in each district.—The private expences of each department, and those relative to the tribunals, the administrative bodies and other establishments, shall also be made public.

4. "The administrators of department, and sub-administrators, can neither establish any public contribution, nor make any distribution beyond the time and the sums fixed by the legislative body; nor deliberate, or permit, without being authorized by it, any local loan to be charged to the citizens of the department.

5. "The executive power directs and superintends the collection and paying in of contributions, and gives all the necessary orders to this effect."

OF THE CONNECTION OF THE FRENCH NATION WITH OTHER NATIONS.

"The French nation renounces the undertaking of any war with a view to make conquests, and will never employ its forces against the liberty of any people.—The constitution no longer admits the *Droit d'Aubaine*.—Foreigners, whether settled in France or not, inherit the property of their parents, whether foreigners or Frenchmen.—They can contract, acquire, and receive, property situated in France, and dispose of it as well as any French citizen, in every mode authorized by the laws.—Foreigners in France are subject to the same criminal laws and regulations of police as French citizens, with a reserve for conventions agreed on with foreign powers. Their persons, effects, industry, and religion, are equally protected by the law."

OF THE REVISION OF CONSTITUTIONAL DECREES.

1. "The National Constituent Assembly declares, that the nation has an imprescriptible right to change its constitution; and nevertheless, considering that it is most suitable to the national interest to make use, only by means appointed by the constitution itself, of the right of reforming those articles which experience shall demonstrate the inconvenience of, decrees, that the assembly of revision shall proceed in the following manner:

2. "When three following legislatures shall have declared an uniform wish for the change of any constitutional article, the revision demanded shall take place.

3. "The ensuing legislature (that commencing in 1791) cannot propose the reform of any constitutional article.

4. "Of the three legislatures who shall successively propose any changes, the first two shall not occupy themselves relative to that object, but in the last two months of their last session, and the third at the end of its first annual session, or at the beginning of the second.—Their deliberations on that matter shall be subjected to the same forms as the legislative acts; but the decrees by which they shall have expressed their desires, shall not be subjected to the sanction of the king.

5. "The fourth legislature, augmented by two hundred and forty-nine members chosen in each department, by doubling the ordinary number which it furnishes for its population, shall constitute the assembly of revision.—These two hundred and forty-nine members shall be elected after the nomination of representatives to the legislative body shall have been terminated, and there shall be formed a separate *procez-verbale* of it.—The assembly of revision shall not be composed of more than one chamber.

6. "The members of the third legislature, who shall have demanded a change, cannot be elected in the assembly of revision.

7. "The members of the assembly of revision, after having pronounced all at once the oath, 'to live free or die,' shall individually swear, to confine themselves to decide on the objects which shall have been submitted to them by the unanimous wish of three preceding legislatures; and to maintain, in other respects, with all their power, the constitution of the kingdom, decreed by the National Constituent Assembly in the years 1789, 1790, and 1791; and to be in all faithful to the nation, to the law, and to the king.

8. "The assembly of revision shall be bound to occupy itself afterwards, and without delay, in the objects which shall have been submitted to its examination; and as soon as this task is finished, the two hundred and forty-nine new members, named over and above, shall retire, without taking a part in any case in the legislative acts."

"The French colonies and possessions in Asia, Africa, and America, although they make a part of the French empire, are not included in the present constitution.

"None of the powers instituted by the constitution have a right to change it in its whole, or in its parts, excepting the reforms which may be made in it by the mode of revision, conformably to the regulations contained in the articles respecting Revision of Constitutional Decrees.

"The National Constituent Assembly commits the deposit of it to the fidelity of the legislative body, of the king, and of the judges, to the vigilance of fathers of families, to wives and to mothers, to the attachment of young citizens, to the courage of all Frenchmen.

"The decrees passed by the national assembly, which are not included in the act of constitution, shall be executed as laws; and those interior laws which it has not altered, shall also be observed so long as they shall not be revoked or modified by the legislative power.

(Signed) VERNIER, President. POUGEARD, COUPEE, MAILLY, CHATEAURENARD, CHAILLON, AUBRY (Bishop of the Department of the Meuse) DARCIE, Secretaries."

On Sept. 3, 1791, the national assembly having heard the constitutional act above read, after approving of it, declared, that the constitution is finished, and that it can make no change in it; and that there shall be named immediately, a deputation of sixty members, to offer, the same day, the constitutional act to the king.

(Signed as before)

And on the 13th of the same month, the king, by a letter to the National Assembly, announced his resolution to accept the constitution; and on the following day he appeared in the assembly, introduced by a deputation of sixty members, and solemnly consecrated the assent which he had already given, concluding, with an oath, "To be faithful to the nation and to the law; and to employ the powers vested in him for the maintenance of the constitution, and the due execution of the law."

But since the death of the king, and the suppression of royalty, a committee has been appointed by the convention to draw up a new constitution, which has lately made its appearance; but whether it will be approved of by the representatives of the people, and, if it should, how long it will continue, are questions so extremely problematical, as in the present disturbed state of affairs, to render its insertion needless, if not improper.

Soon after this the second national council assembled, which was far inferior to the first in point of abilities.

About

About this time, the duplicity and undecided conduct of the emperor Joseph, and the refuge and protection afforded in the German empire to the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous resolutions; and a celebrated 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 and retreat from the frontiers: but the protection of the emperor and the Prussian king provided them with an asylum more remote and less obtrusive. Irresolution seemed to preside in the councils of the emperor, a monarch more distinguished for the mild virtues of peace than for the strenuous exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag; he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as absolutely free, while the league of Pilsnitz (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to secure Germany from such a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguish the dreaded source) and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend. His sudden death, on the first of March 1792, excited great consternation among the aristocrats, and inspired the supporters of the constitution with joy and exultation. Another event, no less unexpected, happened on the death of the Swedish monarch, on the 29th of the same month. Fresh spirits were diffused through the nation; and the superstitious vulgar imagined, that, in the removal of the two chief foes of France in one month, they beheld the peculiar interposition of heaven.

In the subsequent negotiations between the national assembly and the court of Vienna, the young Hungarian King, excited by the influence of Prussia, began to exhibit more enmity and severer terms. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his dispatches to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained the propositions of the imperial court—that satisfaction should be given to the German princes, proprietors of Alsace—that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, should be restored to the pope—and that the internal government of France should be invested with sufficient efficiency, that the other powers may have no apprehensions of being troubled by France. Those terms produced a declaration of war against Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the assembly on the 4th of April, and ratified by the French king.

The beginning of the operations on the part of France was stained with defeat, and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, who fell a prey to the suspicions and savage ferocity of some of the soldiers, who fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna, had, in the beginning of July, published a declaration, explaining the cause of the war, and retorting on the French nation some

of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany.

On the 26th day of the same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleads his alliance with the emperor; and that, as sovereign of a German state, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine, and the invasion of the territories of others: and he honestly concludes, by avowing that it is his intention to repress the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries.

At the same time the duke of Brunswick, general of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published at Coblenz a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms: he declared his intention of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards expresses his design not to interfere in the internal government! It is not necessary to dwell on the other insolent parts of this memorial, in which France is already regarded as a conquered country, and directions are given to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large: but the threat, that the city of Paris should be given up to military execution, in case the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is as vain as it is arrogant.

We relate with pain the excesses of the night between the 9th and 10th of August. The alarm-bell sounded at midnight in every quarter of Paris, the generale was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Thuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the hall of the national assembly. At first the Swiss guards (who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proscribed by repeated decrees of the assembly, the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled the populace; but these being reinforced by the Marseillois and federates from Breis, bodies which the Jacobins seemed to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiss, and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burst open. The artillery joined the assailants; and the consequences were, that the Swiss guards were exterminated, and the palace ransacked, after a slaughter of about four hundred on each side.

Unhappily the month of September seemed pregnant with the total ruin of French freedom; but the three following months reversed the scene, and exhibited a series of success, on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern history. We cannot without inexpressible concern direct the attention of our readers to the prison scene, which occurred on the 2d and 3d of September. The horrid massacre of the defenceless prisoners, and other aristocrats, which took place at that

period, stamps an eternal disgrace on the Parisian populace, who, in their fury, spared not even that gentle sex which all civilized nations hold in the highest respect. The number of the slain has doubtless been exaggerated, as usual; yet supposing that, by the most moderate account, only two thousand perished, the enormity of the deed remains the same. Some extenuation might be offered for the affair of the 10th of August, in which a people, who supposed themselves betrayed to slavery, and all its evils, so recently experienced and shaken-off, assumed their revenge and their cause into their own hands; but no defence can be offered for this unnecessary crime. Had the combined armies besieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thousand aristocrats, and many of these secured in chains, and confined in prison.

In order to determine on the charges brought against the king, a national convention had been called. They met on the 24th of September; and on the first day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed by acclamation; and the following day it was ordered that all public acts should be dated the first year, &c. of the French republic. But hardly was this convention constituted, when a violent faction appeared, headed by Marat*, Roberespierre, and others, who have repeatedly degraded their transactions by their violence and fanaticism; and, being supported by the Jacobins and Parisian populace, have proved too powerful for the convention to punish as it wished. Repeated instances have proved that the convention was not free, but compelled to vote as the mob of Paris dictated, the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauses and hisses of the gallery rabble.

The French arms were so rapid in their progress, and so great were the distresses in the combined armies, arising from a scarcity of provisions, from a long rainy season, and from a considerable mortality among the Prussians, estimated, by the French accounts, at one half, that the Prussians retreated from the dominions of France, and their example was soon followed by the Austrians.

* This furious zealot fell by the hand of female vengeance. Marie-Anne-Charlotte Corday, strongly impressed with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took a journey to Paris, in July 1793, on purpose to put a period to his existence. Meeting Marat as he was coming from the Bath, and entering into conversation with him (more certainly to identify his person) she plunged a dagger into his breast; upon which he fell, and soon expired. Glorifying in having exterminated a monster, she delivered herself up to the officers of justice, and with the utmost firmness submitted to her fate, in having her head severed by the guillotine, in the 25th year of her age.

The invasion of Savoy was ordered, even at the very time that Paris was in the greatest danger. On the 1st of September, general Montesquieu entered the Savoyard territories, seized on the frontier posts and castles without resistance, and two days after took Montmelian. Chamberry and all Savoy soon followed; but the conquest, not being resisted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itself with France, has created wonder.

After frequent declarations of the French, that they would enter into no war with any view to conquest, their conduct in this respect was absurd and impolitic. It subjected them to the merited reproach, that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the destructive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wishes to increase their territory, perhaps to subjugate Europe, remained the same. Admiral Truguet, commanding a squadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa Franca, and the fortrefs of Montalban, belonging to the king of Sardinia.

Most people regarded the conquest of Savoy 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 Dumourier. Spire yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms soon after followed; ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in these cities. Custine, pursuing his course along the left shore of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblenz, that noted seat of the counter-revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austrians at length indicating a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country, he relinquished that design.

The next grand object was the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands. Dumourier had promised to pass his Christmas at Brussels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt proved very modest; for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the first or second of that month, with an army of forty thousand men, since much increased, and with a most formidable train of artillery, the first five days were occupied with repeated engagements with the Austrian army commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teschchen, governor of the Austrian Netherlands, and by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not twenty thousand. At length, on the 6th of November, a decisive battle was fought at Jamappes, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The contest was very general; all the points of the enemy's flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almost every individual fought personally. The cannonade began at seven in the morning; Dumourier ordered the village of Carignan to be attacked, because he could not attempt the heights of Jamappes till he had

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taken that village: at noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. At two o'clock the Austrians retired in the utmost disorder, after an obstinate defence. Dumourier immediately advanced, and took possession of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren.

The tidings arriving at Brussels, the court was struck with an indescribable panic; and instantly fled to Ruremonde, whence it was again to be driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay surrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumourier, having refreshed his troops at Mons, advanced to Brussels, where, after an indecisive engagement between his van and the Austrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month.—Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines, or Mechlin, Louvain, Ostend, Namur; in short, all the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg, successively followed the example of the capital; and the conquests were not less rapid than those of Louis XIV.

The national convention having banished many of the priests, they came to England, and were received with great benevolence; this was followed by their decree against the emigrants, by which they are declared dead in law, their effects confiscated, and themselves adjudged to immediate death, if they return to France. Another decree of the 19th of November attracted the attention of every nation in Europe; it is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people who wish to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to send orders to the generals, to give assistance to such people, and to defend citizens who have suffered, or are now suffering, in the cause of liberty." By this decree, and others of a similar tendency, a political crusade against all the powers of Europe, seems to be instituted.

Antwerp had no sooner yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, shut up by the treaty of Munster in 1648, was projected, and ordered; notwithstanding this treaty, so far as it respects the shutting up of the navigation of that river, has been confirmed to the Dutch in succeeding treaties, guaranteed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The Dutch regarded this measure as injurious to their trade; for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam. The infraction of this treaty is one of the reasons which has induced the parliament of Great-Britain to oppose the unwarrantable pretensions of the French republic, and to join its forces with those of the allied powers, in defence of their common rights, and those of Europe in general.

On the 11th of December 1792, the memorable trial of the king commenced. The issue is 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 individual; and, therefore, and callous indeed must be the person who does not partake of the sympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this transaction; and we must add, that the records of mankind exhibit no instance of crimes deliberately committed, attended with so many circumstances of wanton, unrelenting cruelty, and so evidently pernicious to the cause of the unfeeling perpetrators.

EXECUTION OF THE FRENCH KING.

An hour after Louis had been informed of the fatal doom, two municipal officers repaired to the queen's apartment, to signify what was to happen. The queen advanced towards the officers, with her hands uplifted, and cried, "O ye murderers! O ye murderers!" for near ten minutes—then in convulsive hysterical fits dropped down on the floor: having recovered herself, she looked with a staring, significant eye at the officers, who stood in a distant corner of the room—then turning round to the dauphin, she shed a flood of tears, embraced him, and exclaimed, "My dear son, I do not know what I am doing—let us never confound the innocent with the guilty."

Soon after, the queen, madame Elizabeth, the king's sister, and the dauphin, were conducted to the king's dining-room, where the unfortunate monarch embraced them with great serenity; the officers withdrew, and a scene ensued of tenderness and grief, which none but heaven and the parties present witnessed.

Two hours after, the municipal officers were called in, and the king expressed a desire of seeing his wretched daughter, who was in a separate apartment. His demand was granted, and he and his family, under a proper escort, went to the spot. She was that day fourteen years and thirty-three days old. It is said that she expired soon after the king left her, but that is not true, she being still living; her devoted royal father embraced her; she clung close to him—he bedewed her with tears—she was wrested from him, and remained insensible for some time, when she exclaimed, "O my father! O my tender father!" Paternal heroism made the king depart from his beloved daughter. Maternal feeling retained the queen and her sister-in-law with the dauphin, who said to Louis, "We will see you by-and-by—Adieu, husband! Adieu, brother! Adieu, father!" The king waited a kiss to them with his right hand, but they saw him no more! Arrived in his room, the monarch prostrated himself, and said prayers with his confessor Edgeworth, an English priest, otherwise called De Fermond, for an hour and upwards, after which he had his beard shaved, and his hair turned up in a curl from behind, without powder.

In a previous decree made by the national convention, the place for putting their inhuman sentence into execution,

execution, was to have been the Caroufel, fronting the palace of the Thuilleries. This was changed by the ministers, to whom all the arrangements were confided, to the Place de la Revolution, heretofore the Place de Louis XV. The guillotine, or fatal instrument of execution, was placed upon a scaffold, between the Champ Elysee and the pedestal, which was formerly ornamented with the magnificent equestrian statue of Louis XV. his grandfather.

On Monday morning, the 21st of Jan. the king left the Temple, the mournful procession set out a little after eight o'clock. The royal victim sat in the mayor's carriage, with his confessor by his side, praying very fervently, and two captains of the national guard-horse on the front seat. The carriage was preceded by two black horses, preceded by the mayor, general Santerre, and other municipal officers. One squadron of horse, with trumpeters and kettle-drums, led the van of the melancholy convoy: three heavy pieces of ordnance, with proper implements, and cannoners, with lighted matches, went before the vehicle, which was escorted on both sides by a treble line of troopers.

The train moved on with a slow pace from the Temple to the Boulevards, which were planted with cannon, and beset with national guards, drums beating, trumpets sounding, and colours flying. The trotting and neighing of horses, the shrill found of the trumpet, and the continual beating of drums, pierced the ears of every body, and heightened the terrors of the awful scene.

The scaffold was high and conspicuous, and the houses surrounding the place of execution were full of women, who looked through the windows: the very slates which covered the roofs, were raised up for the curious and interred to peep through.

At twenty minutes after ten, the king arrived before the scaffold in the Square of the Revolution, which was covered with cannon, and crowded with cavalry. His confessor, Mr. Edgeworth, wanted to go up the steps of the scaffold with him, but this was rudely refused by colonel Santerre. Louis pulled off his stock, coat, and waistcoat, and, with his neck and breast bare, ascended the scaffold with intrepidity and undaunted fortitude; (it was only twenty minutes after ten o'clock) he wore a clean shirt and stock, white waistcoat, black florentine silk breeches, black silk stockings, and his shoes were tied with black silk strings.

Having taken leave of his confessor, who shed a thousand tears, he beckoned with his hand to be heard; the noise of the warlike instruments ceased for a moment; but soon after a thousand voices vociferated, with detestable ferocity, "No harangues!—No harangues!"—The unfortunate monarch wrung his hands, lifted them up towards heaven, and with agony in his eye and gesture, exclaimed, distinctly enough to be heard by those persons who were next the scaffold, "To thee, O God, I commend my soul!—I forgive all my enemies—I die innocent!" His head was immediately after severed

from his body; whereupon the people waved their hats in the air, exclaiming, "God save the nation!" and the body was immediately removed in a black coffin.

The short length of time in which he appeared on the scaffold, and the interval of the fatal blow, was no more than two minutes. Instantly the executioner lifted up his head, and amidst the flourish of trumpets, exclaimed, "Thus dies a traitor!" Some of the guards pushed forward to the scaffold, and dipped their pikes and their handkerchiefs in the blood, brandished their swords, and vociferated, "God save the Republic!—God save the Nation!"

The body was conveyed to the Thuilleries; the executioner cut off the hair imbrued in blood, which was sold for assignats, in small locks!—The guards, the federates, and others, again dipped their handkerchiefs in the gore, hoisted it on swords, pikes, and staves, and sold it; and the banditti mob carried it triumphantly through the streets till night, intoxicated, and hallooing—"Behold the blood of a tyrant."

The body was interred six hours after, in the churchyard De la Madelaine, adjacent to the place of execution, in a grave twelve feet deep, and filled with quick lime and mould, between the people who were stilled in the throng on the 19th of April 1770, when a brilliant illumination and fire-work were exhibited there in honour of his marriage, and the Swiss and other victims slain at the Thuilleries on the 10th of Angul.

Thus perished Louis XVI. king of France and Navarre, in the 39th year of his age. Thus one of the best of kings fell a dreadful sacrifice to the rage of the Brissots, the Marats, the Paines, and other disgraceful blots in the human creation! "The condemnation and execution of the king," said a great statesman in the British House of Commons, "is an act as disgraceful as any that history records; and I never can view, but with the greatest detestation, the injustice and inhumanity that has been committed towards that unhappy monarch. Not only were the rules of criminal justice, rules that more than any other ought to be strictly observed, overthrown; not only was he tried and condemned without any existing law to which he was personally answerable, and even contrary to laws that did actually exist; but the degrading circumstances of his imprisonment, the unnecessary and insulting asperity with which he had been treated, the total want of republican magnanimity in the whole transaction, added every aggravation to the inhumanity and injustice."

We shall continue our detail of the French transactions with another affecting account of

THE EXECUTION OF THE QUEEN OF FRANCE.

When, after the trial, the queen heard her sentence read, she did not shew the smallest alteration in her countenance, and left the hall without saying a single word to the judges or to the people. It was then

half past four o'clock in the morning, October 16. She was conducted to the condemned hole in the prison of the Conciergerie.

At five o'clock the generale was beat. At seven, the whole armed force was on foot; cannon were planted upon the squares, and at the extremities of the bridges, from the palace to the square de la Revolution. At ten, numerous patroles passed through the streets. At half past eleven in the morning, Marie Antoinette was brought out of the prison, dressed in a white deshabille. Like other malefactors, she was carried in a common cart to the place of execution: Her hair from behind was entirely cut off, and her hands were tied behind her back. Beside her deshabille, she wore a very small white cap. Her back was turned to the horse's tail. During her trial, she wore a dress of a black and white mixture. On her right was seated upon the cart the executioner; upon the left, a constitutional priest belonging to the Metropolitan church of Notre Dame, dressed in a grey coat, and wearing a bob-wig. The cart was escorted by numerous detachments of horse and foot. Henriot, Ronsin, and Boulanger, generals of the revolutionary army, preceded by the rest of their staff-officers, rode before the cart.

An immense number of people crowded the streets, and cried, "Long live the Republic!" The queen seldom cast her eyes upon the populace, and beheld with indifference the great armed force of 30,000 men, which lined the streets in double ranks. The sufferings which she sustained during her captivity had much altered her appearance, and the hair on her forehead appeared as white as snow. She kept speaking to the priest seated by her side. Her spirits were neither elevated nor depressed: she seemed quite insensible to the shouts of "Vive la Republique!" When she passed thro' the street called Rue St. Honoré, she sometimes attentively looked at the inscriptions of the words *liberty* and *equality* affixed to the outside of the houses. She ascended the scaffold with seeming haste and impatience; and then turned her eyes with great emotion toward the garden of the Thuilleries, the former abode of her greatness.

At half past twelve, the guillotine severed her head from her body. The executioner lifted and shewed the head from the four different corners of the scaffold.—The spectators instantly cried, "Long live the Republic!" The corpse was immediately after buried in a grave filled with quick lime, in the church-yard de la Madeleine, where her unfortunate consort was in like manner interred.

It will no doubt be acceptable to our readers, if we subjoin the following particulars relating to this unhappy princess:—Marie Antoinette, late queen of France, was the daughter of the emperor Francis I. who had succeeded his father, as duke of Lorraine; which duchy was ceded to France, and Tuscany was settled upon him in lieu of it. While Francis was duke of Lorraine, he married the archduchess Maria Theresa,

daughter of the emperor Charles VI. The emperor Charles, having no male issue, Maria Theresa succeeded to his hereditary dominions; and, in 1745, her husband Francis was elected emperor. Marie Antoinette was their eighth daughter, born at Vienna on the 2d of November 1755. She was married to the dauphin of France, the late king, on the 16th of May 1770. This marriage was attended with a very remarkable and melancholy circumstance. On Thursday the 30th of May, the grandest fire-works that ever were known were intended to have been exhibited, and in part were so, in the square of Louis XV. in honour of the marriage; but the disaster that followed dashed all the pleasure that could have been received from this most splendid spectacle. The astonishing multitude that had crowded to see the fire-works were blocked up on all sides, except one narrow street, through which they must all pass in order to disperse. Some obstruction happening in that street, and the people not knowing the cause, took fright, and every one pushing forward to get away, the confusion increased so fast, that one trampled over another, till the people lay in heaps; those who were undermost flatly pressed those who lay above them, in order to disengage themselves. The carnage was inexpressible. The accounts make the dead to amount to 1000, and the wounded to 2000 more. By some mistake in the engineer, the apparatus took fire; many hundreds were precipitated into the river in endeavouring to escape the flames; and the scaffold broke down which was erected for spectators, by which many more were killed. The superstitious in France said the affair was ominous. The dauphin, in the first transports of his grief, gave all the money allotted for his month's expences towards the relief of the sufferers, and in this he was followed by the dauphiness. His majesty was also greatly affected, and issued orders, that no expence might be spared to succour and assist the miserable. Louis XV. dying on the 10th of May 1774, the dauphin ascended the throne, by the name of Louis XVI.

We shall conclude this period of our work with some interesting remarks on the probable cause, together with the progress and present state, of the Revolution in France.

A variety of reflections naturally occur in reviewing the progress of the French revolution, and the conduct of the principal actors in those extraordinary scenes, which have attended it. The most intelligent persons have remarked, that no revolution which had liberty for its foundation or its pretext, was ever disgraced by so wanton an effusion of blood, by so many sanguinary executions, such inhuman massacres, so much rancour and persecution of every kind. To understand the nature and causes of these melancholy events, several considerations will demand our attention.

1. The revolution in France was at the first too suddenly effected. The change in the circumstances, habits,

bits, and opinions of the people was too violent, and they were too little prepared for the enjoyment of liberty. Had the court anticipated the assembling of the states-general by some salutary and useful reforms in favour of the people, they would not only have served to strengthen the connexion between the king and his subjects, and more firmly to attach the latter; but such a conduct would have been a proper initiatory process, and would have prepared all ranks of people to act as rational agents in the cause of freedom.

Had the king, by his own authority, abolished the odious tyranny of letters de cachet, the punishment of the rack, and every species of judicial cruelty, it would not only have endeared him to his subjects, but would have humanized them. Could he have ordered a revival of the judicial system, and, in particular, could he have established the trial by jury, it would have inured them to the practice of equity, and to the calm investigation of truth. If he had done in addition, what there is reason to believe he was not averse to, that is, if he had indulged the natural clemency of his temper in permitting a free toleration to religious opinions, he would have attacked the Protestants, and would have greatly lessened the acuteness of party animosity—and if he had favoured, to a certain degree, the liberty of the press, the free discussion of controverted points might have been advantageous to the cause of truth and moderation; while, on the contrary, the people, having been wholly unaccustomed to the liberty of the press, were not on their guard against its licentiousness, and were constantly imposed upon, and the dupes of the infamous journalists and their employers and adherents.

The court party appeared to have no system, no settled plan of proceeding, when the states-general assembled. They were undetermined what to retain or what to relinquish; whereas the plan of government ought to have been previously settled; every thing to be proposed to the states ought to have been well digested; and proper agents chosen to introduce each particular measure to the national assembly. On the contrary, nothing could be more absurd than the attempt, after the deputies of the nation were assembled in one common hall, and even while the metropolis was in a ferment, to restore or preserve the ancient regimen. With this unfortunate outset, the whole conduct of the king and of the court corresponded. The feast of the military at Versailles; the flight of the king; the obstinate exercise of his veto; all served to lay the designs of the court open to suspicion.

2. For a considerable time before the revolution, the French were the most profligate, corrupt, and unprincipled people in Europe. All of the higher orders were dissipated, they were consequently all venal. The lower classes were hardened by ignorance, by oppression, by the frequent horrid executions of which they were witnesses, and by other severities. The venality and corruption of some, who from time to time affected to

be the friends of the people, drew down a suspicion upon all of the higher orders; and the ferocity of the multitude, and their ignorance, and consequently want of principle, plunged them into excesses of the most fatal and sanguinary nature.

3. We have also to deplore, in connection with this circumstance, the irreligious principles which had unhappily made so fatal a progress in France. Nothing short of religion can impart an uniformity to the moral character. Where expediency is the only rule of conduct, the human mind will naturally indulge in too great a latitude on some occasions, especially where the passions are strongly interested. This perhaps, indeed, is the distinguishing circumstance which marks the two revolutions of America and of France. The Americans were possessed of a strong sense of religion; and consequently, though the instances of treachery which occurred among themselves were scarcely less numerous in proportion than those which happened among the French, the victims of popular fury were much fewer. They were under a necessity of defending themselves; but, independent of this circumstance, they could not forget that their religion taught them "to love their enemies:" but the majority of the French nation were either uninstructed in the truths of this religion, or had rejected its salutary restraints and precepts.

After all, if we would trace calamity to its source, we must be forced to confess, that the flimsy writings of the wretched caviller Voltaire have undone France. We venerate, and ever shall venerate, the cause of religious toleration. Every sect which acknowledges a future state of rewards and punishments is innoxious, if not respectable. But if this great foundation of morality is removed, there can be no dependence on the principle or integrity of the people. Let the Horsleys and the Priestleys freely indulge themselves in verbal contests concerning the disputed points of theology:—but let every impious scoffer, who presumes to aim his destructive shafts at any of the great doctrines of religion, be severely punished, and his writings strictly prohibited. No government can be safe, nor will it be possible to maintain order, or even common honesty among men, till this is established.

4. The league of Pilnitz, and the infamous conduct of the combined powers towards the republic of Poland, having, as already intimated, excited at once the apprehensions and the resentment of the French; it was no difficult matter to persuade the multitude that the court was immediately connected with the invaders; and this opinion was unfortunately countenanced by the publications of the combined powers, and particularly by the imprudent manifesto of the duke of Brunswick. The repeated dismissal of the popular ministers, and the obduracy of the king in other instances, confirmed the suspicion. Hence, and hence only, the republican faction were enabled to acquire so much credit with the people in the months of June, July, and August 1792.

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The avowed hostility of this faction might have driven the court in its turn into hostile measures, without imputing actual treachery to Louis. For we must observe, that this is a matter still involved in impenetrable obscurity; and it is impossible to determine, from the state of the evidence, either the nature or the extent of the king's connexions with the counter-revolutionists. Thus far is certain, that Paris was crowded with the *ci-devant* noblesse, and other disaffected persons, on the 10th of August. The fatal rupture, and the dreadful carnage of that bloody day, let loose at once all the demons of discord. Every bad passion was put in motion—revenge, party-rage, the desire of plunder, all that is depraved and abominable in human nature, was predominant in the breasts of different individuals, and prepared the way for the still deeper horrors of the 2d and 3d of September, and for all the calamities which have since happened to the nation.

5. We must also take notice of another circumstance, which is, that the excessive population of France is greatly calculated to perpetuate violence and anarchy in that country. Independent of the frequent alarms of famine from this circumstance, it is impossible that there should not exist in every considerable city immense multitudes of indigent and desperate persons, who are always ready to promote every species of mischief and disorder, and who when once excited cannot easily be reduced to peace and subordination. This again constitutes another remarkable shade of difference between the American and the French revolutions.

The American armies were composed in general of settled and industrious people, of farmers and mechanics, most of whom had families; they consequently embraced the first opportunity to return to their peaceable employments and habitations, to fit every man under his own vine, and his own fig-tree; and they regarded the affairs of state no further than as they served to secure them in the peaceable possession and enjoyment of their property. Every man at the conclusion of the war had something to do; every man had business of his own to attract his attention.

Not so the rabble of Paris, of Lyons, of Marseilles—many of them have no regular employment, and the numbers of banditti are increased by the total stagnation of the commerce and manufactures of France. They can acquire more by plunder and confiscation, than by sober industry; and thus it becomes at once their interest to be turbulent, unruly, sanguinary, and capricious. The disorder and the violence are always increased by the numbers; and in proportion to the numbers collected together, the passions of the multitude are inflamed.

After the 10th of August, the Gironde party, in vain, affected a tone of moderation; and when they had obtained their wishes, they exhorted in vain the populace to return to order and obedience. They had excited the fatal concussion; they had taught the multitude to know their own strength; they had disturbed the gene-

ral tranquillity, and absurdly flattered themselves that a spirit of insurrection would be as easily quelled as it was excited. Without wishing, therefore, to depreciate their slender claim to merit in attempting to save the life of the king, we cannot but regard this party as the immediate authors of the calamities which have befallen their country since the overthrow of the monarchical constitution.

The massacre of the 10th of August was scarcely less atrocious than that of the 2d of September; and when these men sell the victims of the very means which they had employed, and were murdered in their turn by the very mob which they had formerly excited, though our religion teaches us to pity even the guilty, and to lament the shedding of human blood upon any occasion, yet, in the dreadful event, it was impossible not to discern something of retributive justice.

Besides this, the Gironde had something to charge themselves with for wantonly engaging their country in one vain and fruitless war after another; and on the whole, we think they have been a pernicious faction. They were, perhaps, less sanguinary and cruel than their ferocious successors, but in point of real principle we see little room for preference.

6. The popular societies instituted throughout the kingdom, for debating upon political subjects, and that of the Jacobins in particular, had been a most fatal means of promoting bad dispositions among the people. In the first dawn of French liberty, such institutions might have their use; but they should even then have been restrained within moderate bounds, and as soon as possible dissolved. These have afforded a constant asylum to the profligate; and in these every absurdity, every measure of sedition and of cruelty in the national councils, have originated.

The above recited circumstances appear to have been the principal causes which have operated to give to the French revolution that sanguinary and horrid character by which it has been too fatally distinguished*; and which,

* It is with the greatest concern we record the following recent instances of the atrocities which the still existing sanguinary and merciless disposition of the French republicans has impelled them to commit towards their countrymen the Lionnois:

"On Friday December 20, 1793, a petition of the inhabitants of Lyons, imploring mercy, was presented to the convention, and referred to the committee of public welfare. The deplorable situation of these unfortunate people, may be somewhat better conceived from the following extract from this petition: 'Two commissions, the formidable instruments of the vengeance of the outraged republic, have been established: four hundred heads were struck off in one month, by virtue of their resolutions! Soon after, other judges appeared, who complained that the blood did not stream

which, as far as the circumstances may apply to other nations, may serve as a warning against hasty revolutions, and as a guide in the conducting of such plans of reformation as political exigences may seem to warrant or require, and as wisdom and moderation only can sanction and perpetuate.

The subjugation of France cannot be expected to result from any efforts used by the present combination, since it has been the uniform assertion of those who are best acquainted with the resources and the temper of the nation, that, whatever be the force of the external attack, she is invincible: and this sentiment derives some confirmation from the experience of two campaigns, unsuccessfully terminated.—On the restoration of peace, from whatever cause that may be effected, we look for a train of events very different from what the aspect of affairs at present may seem to promise.—The first circumstance which, in that case, we will venture to predict, is, that the present leaders will not long be able to retain their power. Whatever their abilities (and we must confess that they have displayed some energy, if not ability) they have not, even with a profligate and corrupted people, character enough to support their popularity long.

We think it highly probable that the experiment of establishing a republic will be continued for some time longer; but it will never be more than an experiment: and before many years the nation, wearied with faction and with contest, will certainly have recourse to some form of monarchy or aristocracy; and that that period would be hastened, were any one man particularly distinguished by his talents above his competitors to arise. No such has yet appeared; but it is amid the violence of political commotion that genius is

in sufficient abundance: and a revolutionary commission has been appointed. That new tribunal received orders to repair to the prisons, to judge in one and the same moment the great number of prisoners with which they were crammed. That commission punctually fulfilled its rigorous orders; and no sooner had it pronounced sentence than the cannon arrived, and a thunder of ease shot was discharged upon the condemned.—Struck by the fatal fire, the victims of the laws fell in heaps upon each other; and frequently, but mutilated, they were only half-killed by the first discharge. Those victims who had still breath left in them after that punishment, were dispatched with the sword or the musket. Even the pity of a weak and feeling sex has been construed into a crime: two women were dragged to the pillory, for having implored mercy for their fathers, husbands, and children!—All tears, all commiseration were rigorously forbidden. Nature has been forced to stifle her most generous emotions, under pain of death. Four thousand heads are now devoted to the same punishment, and will be struck off before the expiration of this day.”

called into action, and it would be contrary to all historical precedent if, on this occasion, no one was to present himself.

We cannot possibly doubt, that the present legislators of France, have it ultimately in view to abolish Christianity, or the very idea of religion. But in this they will be disappointed. The people must have a religion; and as none so good as the Christian can be offered them, some form of that religion will be the predominant faith of the French people. The most probable conjecture is, that the zealous professors of some of the least moderate of the Protestant sects will insinuate themselves among them, and effect a religious revolution not less stupendous than that which they have experienced in their civil state. This very circumstance may hasten the political crisis to which we alluded in the preceding paragraph. The imprudent measures of the convention, in unsettling the faith of the nation, in the foolish expectation of establishing atheism, has just prepared the public mind for such a change; nor shall we be surprised to see, in the course of a few years, the disciples of Whitefield, of Wesley, or perhaps of Swedenborg, usurp that authority which is at present possessed by the atheistical chiefs of the republic.

As to the war in which this country is at present (1794) engaged with France—we are willing, in common candour, to acquit the British ministry of the atrocious charge of having at all entered into the views of the combined powers in the absurd project for a partition of France; and we believe the accusation to be a gross and unfounded calumny. This will not, we confess, apologize for the want of prudence in our ministry in departing from that system of strict neutrality which was so entirely essential to our prosperity. From this concession it will be evident that we think our ministry was precipitate in hastening a rupture with France; and indeed we do not find the reasons for those measures which involved us in hostilities well founded.

Two causes were assigned by the British minister for breaking with the French nation; but these were surely quite inconsistent with each other. The first was the atrocity and villany of their conduct; the second, the fear that their example might be followed in this country. Surely we are correct in saying these two reasons were perfectly inconsistent. The more atrocious the conduct of the French, the less the danger that any other nation should copy their example; and the truth is, that though every society is liable to be infested with a few enthusiasts and visionaries, the example of France has operated as a complete warning to Britain, and as a decisive antidote to the extension of democratic principles, which the successful example of America had perhaps rather promoted.

Were we permitted to scrutinize into the secrets of cabinets, we might possibly find that the motive of the English ministry in provoking, and that of the French in declaring war, was on each side a vain-glorious and

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absurd hope of conquest. It is to be presumed, that both parties have learned a little wisdom from recent experience; and we should be happy to find that the result of that wisdom should be the re-establishment of peace. It is an insult upon common sense, to say there is no person with whom we can treat. No matter through what medium tranquillity is restored. Whoever is proclaimed by the public voice the agent of any people, with that person (whatever his moral character) it must be lawful to transact all necessary business, for promoting the welfare of the community, and the benefit and comfort of individuals.—We conclude therefore in earnestly recommending peace, by whatever means it may be achieved.

Let us leave the French to answer for their own sins. Whatever may be their code of faith, it is ours to believe in a providential Ruler, the avenger of injustice and of cruelty. A particular society does not trench on the divine prerogative, when it punishes individual crimes, committed in defiance of those laws which it has established for the security of its own members; but when one nation marches in warlike array to punish the sins of another nation, the attempt favours too much of Quixotism, and the only consequence is commonly the sacrifice of many innocent lives, and such as might have proved ornaments to their country.

Taking for granted the truth of all that has been alleged of the depravity of the French (and certainly we cannot be accused of any disposition to controvert it) still the question will not easily be answered, "What interest can Great-Britain have in the contest? What ultimate advantage are we to derive from it?" If the French are, as they are represented, "a worthless, depraved, and incorrigible people," are the blood and treasure of Britain to be lavished, are her manufactures and commerce to be sacrificed, for the purpose of fram-

ing a government for a people, who cannot upon these principles be worthy of the slightest exertion?

But, it will be said, "the whole nation is not to be blamed for the crimes of a faction; the majority may probably wish for a better arrangement."—Leave then the majority to reform their own government. "But the emigrants at least are deserving persons, and ought to be restored to their rights and property."—Bestow upon the emigrants but one half of the waste lands, which it is reported are shortly to be sold, and present them with but one half of one year's military expenditure, and you will do them a much more essential kindness than by instantly restoring them (were it even in your power) to their former situation, opulence, and grandeur.

To suppose that French principles can ever make an extensive progress in this country, is the grossest of absurdities; unless (which Heaven avert!) indeed the public distress should drive the people to desperation. We repeat it, the French have acted in such a manner, that the most despotic prince in Europe may slumber in security; since there is scarcely a people that would not be disposed to submit to the most oppressive mandates of authority, rather than fraternize with them, or imitate their dreadful example. In one word, it is not France for which we plead—we plead for ourselves. We plead for the sufferings of the poor, for the embarrassments of the manufacturer, for the lives of those who are most dear to us, for that blood which is much too precious to be shed in this fruitless, this thankless quarrel, this horrid and destructive war! which every lover of mankind must devoutly hope will be speedily and happily terminated, by an honourable and permanent peace; and that, by the over-ruling power and wisdom of Providence, the general advantage and benefit of contending nations, and distressed individuals, will take place of the miseries and devastations of war.

We reflect with unspeakable satisfaction on having been enabled, with the kind and united assistance afforded us, to fulfil the terms proposed at the beginning of this valuable work, which we have properly introduced by prefixing to our general SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY, circumstantial accounts of the NEW DISCOVERIES, made by various celebrated European navigators, which, we doubt not, will be peculiarly agreeable to our numerous readers. Great pains have been taken throughout to comprise a competent quantity of useful matter in a moderate compass, by avoiding tedious and antiquated details respecting places of trivial consequence to the judicious investigator of instruction and information;—at the same time that we have been extremely careful to insert a pleasing variety of RECENT DESCRIPTIONS of countries, handed down to us by voyagers and travellers of allowed credit,—we have moreover been happy to convey to our numerous readers the best and newest ideas of the present political state of France; and to close the whole with an accurate history of the remarkable REVOLUTION which has lately taken place in that kingdom;—which valuable and desirable acquisition has not hitherto appeared in any performance of this kind, and therefore presume it will prove highly acceptable to the public in general, and entitle us to the future countenance and encouragement of our generous friends, whose former favours we most gratefully acknowledge.

AN USEFUL GUIDE TO GEOGRAPHY AND ASTRONOMY.

P A R T I.

THE science of GEOGRAPHY consists in an accurate description of the earth, its surface, magnitude, and the positions of several parts of the surface of the terraqueous globe. This useful branch of knowledge, like all others of a practical nature, has advanced towards perfection by slow, and, in some periods, by almost imperceptible degrees; it cannot, however, be completely acquired without considering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a considerable distance from it. The other noble science, which treats of the planets and the rest of the heavenly bodies, is properly called ASTRONOMY, with an account of which, and of those celestial bodies, we have thought it necessary to begin this part of our work. The most conspicuous of these bodies is that glorious luminary the sun, the source of light and heat to the several planets which move round it; and which, together with the sun, as the centre, compose what is called by astronomers the solar system. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the sun, is called their orbit. There are six primary planets, each of which moves round the sun in its own orbit; these are, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The two first, as they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the sun) are called inferior planets, or, perhaps with greater propriety, interior or inner planets: the three last, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called superior, or, perhaps more properly, exterior or outer planets. The earth moves round the sun in the same manner as these primary planets do. We shall now consider the figure and motion of the earth.

In the infancy of the world, the figure of the earth was unknown: it was generally supposed to be a plane, circular surface, terminated by the heavens; that this plane was of no remarkable thickness; and that the regions below it were the habitations of spirits. The heavens, above our earth, 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; but several reasons, which it is needless to mention, concurred to render this opinion improbable. The figure of the earth is sufficiently ascertained, from the voyages of many navigators who have actually sailed round it; particularly, Ferdinand Magellan, who by his circumnavigation begun in 1519, and completed in 1524 days, demonstrated at once the sphericity of the globe, and the

existence of the antipodes, which had been so strenuously denied by the ignorant tongue of superstitious bigotry.

After thoroughly establishing the roundness of the earth, a way was naturally opened for the discovery of its motion: for while mankind considered it as a plane, they had but an obscure idea of its being supported, like a scaffolding on pillars, though they could not tell by what these latter were supported. This will evidently appear on considering that, if the earth did not move round the sun, not only that luminary, but all the stars and planets, must move round the earth. Philosophers have, by calculations founded on the most accurate observations, been able pretty nearly to discover the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, in like manner as every person that knows the first elements of mathematics can measure the height of a steeple, or any object placed on it; hence it appears, that if we conceive the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, their velocity and motion must be inconceivably great, 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, which causes the vicissitudes of the seasons, and to turn on its own axis once in the 24 hours, which occasions the different appearances of day and night.

In order to have a right conception of these two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table, or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by sliding along like a plane upon wood, or a slate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its surface on two points called the poles. Now the motion of the earth round its axis is from west to east, and consequently the heavenly bodies appear to move from east to west; and as the former is performed in 24 hours, so the latter appears to be completed in the same time; and all the celestial objects seem to describe circles in the heavens, which are greater or less, according as they are nearer to or further from the centre of those motions, that is, from the two poles of the world; and as they all appear to finish their revolutions in the same time, their motions will be slower in proportion to the smallness of the circle they describe.

It may be necessary to observe, before we exhibit a table of the planets, that, besides the six above-named, there are others which are called secondary, because they move round the primary planets. The secondary planets

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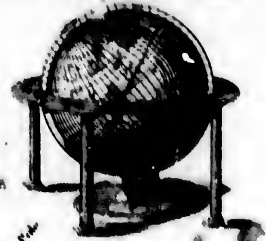
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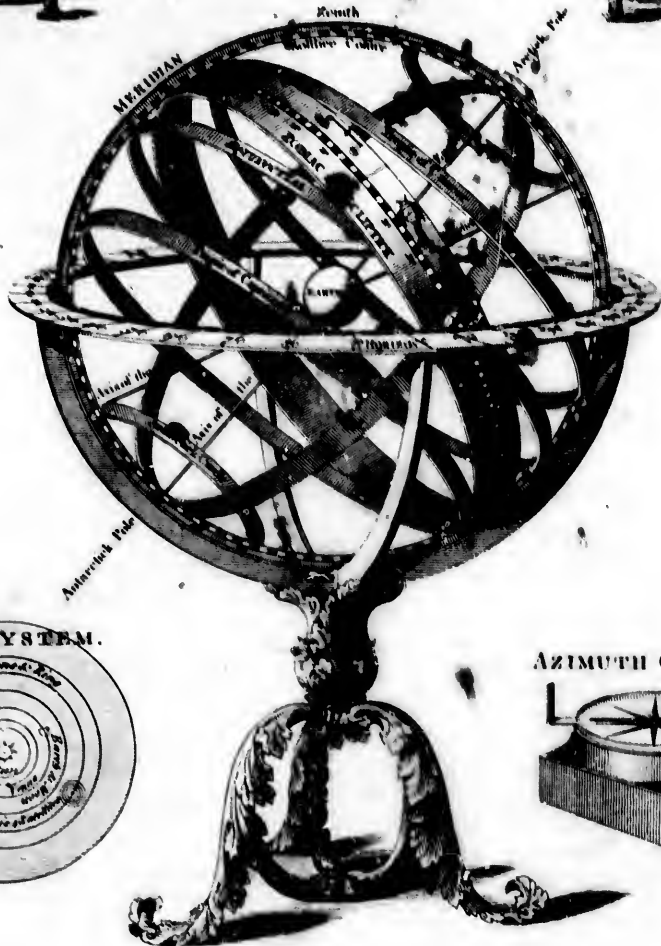
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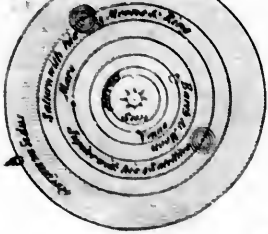
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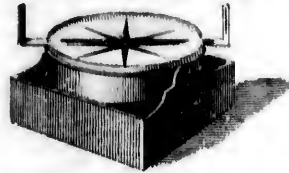
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planets are ten in number, and go under the general name of moons, from their agreeing with our moons; of these, one moves round the earth, four round Jupiter, and five round Saturn. These secondary planets suffer four kinds of eclipses: 1. When they are within the shadows of their principal. 2. When the primary planet is between them and us. 3. When they are between their primary one and us; for then it is difficult to distinguish of two luminous points one from the other. 4. When they interpose between one another and our eye, so as to hide themselves from our sight.

In the solar system are observed two principal laws, which regulate the motions of all the planets. These laws are the following:

1. "The planets describe equal areas in equal times." That is, the vector radius, in equal portions of time, describes equal areas or portions of the space contained within the planet's orbit.

2. "The squares of the periodical times of the planets are as their mean distances from the sun." That is,

as the square of the time which any planet takes to describe its orbit, is to the square of the time taken by any other planet to run through its orbit; so is the cube of the mean distance of the former from the sun, to the cube of the mean distance of the latter from the sun.

These are the two famous laws of Kepler, a great astronomer, who flourished about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and who deduced them from a multitude of observations; but the first who demonstrated these laws, was the incomparable Sir Isaac Newton.

By the second law, the relative distances of the planets from the sun are known; and was the real distance of any one of them determined, the absolute distances of all the others would be obtained. By the transit of Venus over the sun in 1761, we now know the real distances of the planets from the sun much better than before; these, together with other necessary particulars for forming a competent idea of the solar system, are exhibited in the following table:

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

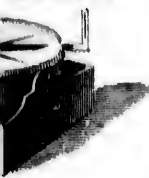
Names of the Planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Mean Distances from the Sun, determined by the Transit of Venus, 1761.	Annual Periods round the Sun.	Diurnal Rotation on its Axis.	Hourly Motion in its Orbit.	Hourly Motion of its Equator.	Inclination of Axis to Orbit.
				d. h. m.			deg. min.
Sun	800,000		y. d. h.	25 6 0		3,818	8 0
Mercury ..	3,000	36,814,468	0 87 21	unknown	100,600	unknown	unknown
Venus	9,300	68,891,386	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,205	43	76 0
Earth	7,920	95,175,000	1 0 0	24 0 0	68,247	4,049	23 29
Moon	2,180	Do	1 0 0	26 19 44	22,220	91	9 10
Mars	4,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 30	55,087	556	0 0
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 321 13	0 9 56	20,684	25,920	0 0
Saturn	28,000	927,256,430	29 107 6	unknown	22,101	unknown	unknown

The fixed stars, though they do not constitute a part of the solar system, must be mentioned here, as they are of infinite use in the practice of geography. They are readily known from the planets, by their continually exhibiting that appearance we call the twinkling of the stars. They are observed never to change their situations with respect to each other, and hence they obtained the name of fixed stars; they shine by their own light; and there is the greatest reason to think they are suns fixed in the centres of other systems, having planets and comets revolving round them like our sun. They appear of various sizes, owing to their different distances. These sizes are generally distinguished into six or seven classes, called magnitudes, the largest and brightest are said to be of the first magnitude; those of the next class, or degree of brightness, are called stars

of the second magnitude, and so on to the last, or those just visible to the naked eye. But, besides these, there are scattered in every part of the heavens, a prodigious number of others, called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of that instrument. Great part of the modern astronomy, indeed, owes both its rise and perfection to that admirable machine. The distance between the earth and the nearest fixed star is astonishing; the orbit of the earth is at least 160 millions of miles in diameter, yet this prodigious difference has no effect on the distance of the star, which appears so far from the earth when in the nearest as in the furthest point of its orbit. It has been computed, by some of the most able astronomers, that if a cannon ball continued to move with the same velocity as when first discharged from the piece, it would not reach the nearest

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fixed star in less than 700,000 years; the distance therefore is too great for the power of the human understanding to conceive: it is bewildered and lost in the computation. Mr. Huygens takes Sirius, or the Dog-star, to be about 27,000 times as far from us as the sun is; 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 200,000 millions of miles. The motion of light therefore, which, though so quick as to be commonly thought instantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the stars to us, than we do in making a West-India voyage. A sound will not arise to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with; and the cannon-ball above-mentioned, flying at the rate of 480 miles in an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years. Such indeed is the immense size of these heavenly bodies, and such their distance from us, that could we advance towards them 99 parts in 100 of the whole distance, and that there were but one hundredth part of the present distance remaining, they would appear very little larger to us than they do now; and if all the stars were to be extinct or annihilated this next night, we should not miss them till about six months after! for that stream of light flowing from them to our eyes, should the fountain be stopped, would be half a year before it would be run quite out, though it ran after the rate of above ten millions of miles in a minute; a motion almost as quick as thought itself.

The stars shine with their own native and unborrowed lustre, as the sun does; and since each particular star, as well as the sun, is confined to a particular portion of space, the stars must consequently be of the same nature with the sun; and it is not in the least probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, and does nothing in vain, should create so many glorious suns, adapted to so many important purposes, and place them at such distances from one another, 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 degrading opinion of the Divine Wisdom, whose works are, on the other hand, calculated to give us the most exalted ideas of the power and goodness of God! The milky way is crowded with infinite numbers of small stars, from whence, as is usually thought, its whiteness appears; which is a discovery entirely owing to the telescope; but whether the whiteness proceeds from the smallness of those numberless stars, their nearness to one another, or their immense distances, we cannot yet certainly determine, but must leave to time and future observations.

A sensible and discerning person, from what he already knows of the new system, will naturally be led to conclude, that all the rest are with equal wisdom

contrived, disposed, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants: for although there is an almost infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through, and connecting all the parts into one scheme, one design, one whole! What an august, what an elevated idea does the above specimen give us of the works of the Creator! Thousands of thousands of suns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immense distances from each other, attended by ten thousand times ten thousand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths prescribed them; and these worlds peopled with millions of intelligent beings formed for endless progression in perfection and felicity!—If so much power, wisdom, goodness, and magnificence is displayed in the material creation, which is the least considerable part of the universe, how transcendently wise, great, and good must HE be, who made, upholds, and governs the whole! and how far are we yet from knowing the bounds of the starry world, or the thousandth part of his works!

The shepherds who attended their flocks in the delightful plains of Egypt and Babylon, were the first people who paid a particular attention to the fixed stars; they were induced to observe the situation of these celestial bodies, partly for the sake of amusement, and partly with a view to direct them in their travelling during the night. Being possessed of a fertile imagination, they divided the stars into different companies or constellations, and supposed each of them to represent the image of some animal, or other terrestrial object. The same thing is done by the peasants in our own country, who distinguish that great northern constellation, which the philosophers call *Ursa Major*, by the name of *Charles's Wain*; and fancy four of the stars contained in it to be the four wheels of the wagon, and the one three they suppose to represent the three horses that draw it; some of the country people also give this constellation the name of the *Plough*, the figure of which it in some measure resembles. The constellations, however, have in general retained the names given them by the ancients, and are reckoned 21 northern, and 12 southern; but the number of the northern have by the moderns been increased to 35, and of the southern to 31. There are, besides these, 12 signs or constellations in the *Zodiac*, of which we shall speak hereafter.

The most famous systems, or hypotheses, are the Ptolemaic, the Tychoic or Brahean, and the Pythagorean or Copernican system.

The Ptolemaic system was so called from its inventor Claudius Ptolemaeus, a celebrated astronomer of Ptolemaea, in Egypt, and supposes the earth immovably fixed in the centre of the universe; and that the moon, the planets, and the stars, all move round it from east to west, once in twenty-four hours, in the following order: the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter,

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posed to be fixed in separate crystalline spheres, and to
be included in another, called the primum mobile,
which gives motion to all the rest.

This system owed its origin to the sensible ap-
pearances of the celestial motions. It was taken for
granted, that the motions which those bodies appeared
to possess, were real; and not dreaming of any motion
in the earth, nor being acquainted with the distinctions
between absolute, relative, or apparent motion, the
philosophers were incapable of forming adequate ideas
of these particulars, and thence reduced to the necessity
of being misled by their own senses, for want of that
assistance which after-ages produced. It is easy to ob-
serve, they had no notion of any other system but
our own, nor of any other world but the earth on
which we live. They were persuaded that all things
were made for the use of man; that all the stars were
contained in one concave sphere, and, consequently,
at an equal distance from the earth; and that the pri-
mum mobile was circumscribed by the empyrean
heaven, of a cubic form, which they supposed to be
the blissful abode of departed spirits. But modern ob-
servations and discoveries have sufficiently shewn the
absurdity of this system, so that it is now abandoned
by all the learned, and hardly ever mentioned but to be
exploded. Even in the infancy of astronomy, it was
found insufficient to account for all the motions of the
heavenly bodies, without having recourse to such ab-
surd suppositions, that a novice in literature would be
ashamed to propose.

Tycho Brahe, a nobleman of Denmark, and one of
the most eminent astronomers of his time, proposed
another system to account for the motion of the heavenly
bodies. This was called the Brahean system. Un-
willing to admit of the motion of the earth, and con-
vinced that the Ptolemaic hypothesis could not be true,
he contrived another, different from any thing before
offered to the world. In this hypothesis, the earth is
supposed to be at rest in the centre of the universe, and
that the sun, together with the planets and fixed stars,
revolve about the earth in twenty-four hours; and at
the same time all the planets, except the moon, revolve
about the sun. But this was even more absurd than
that of Ptolemy, and accordingly was soon exploded.

The Pythagorean, Copernican, or true solar system,
which is now universally adopted by all the learned in
Europe, supposes the sun to be at rest in the centre of
the system, and that all the planets move round him in
the following order: Mercury, Venus, the Earth, at-
tended by her secondary, the Moon; Mars, Jupiter,
Saturn. These, together with the comets, form the
constituent parts of the solar system.

About the year 1610, Galileo, a Florentine, intro-
duced the use of telescopes, which discovered new
arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and
confirmed the old ones. Learned men in different
countries began to cultivate astronomy, and adopted

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this hypothesis, and it would probably soon have been
universally received, had it not met with a formidable
opposition from an ignorant and bigotted clergy.
Nursed in the lap of indolence, and inveterate enemies
to every species of free and impartial inquiry, they
condemned the Copernican system under pretence of
its being repugnant to the sacred writings, and Galileo
was forced to renounce the Copernican system as a
damnable heresy. The thunder of the Vatican was
employed to silence the voice of reason, and the dread
of ecclesiastical censures almost deterred mankind from
thinking. At last, the happy reformation in religion
gave a fatal blow to superstitious tyranny; the rays of
learning broke through the night of ignorance, and
genuine philosophy triumphed over the chicanery of the
schools; mankind were now convinced, that the scrip-
tures were never intended to explain the systems of
philosophy, but to make us humane, virtuous, and
happy; that it is agreeable to the Great Author of our
being to contemplate his works, and display the won-
ders of his creating hand. From this fortunate æra
the sciences made rapid strides towards perfection, and
every day produced a discovery of some new truth, or
the detection of some ancient error. Proofs were mul-
tiple in confirmation of the Copernican system,
which is now established on a foundation not to be
shaken. The astonishing harmony which prevails
among the several parts prove it to have been the work
of a divine hand; and that nothing less than Infinite
Wisdom could have planned so beautiful a fabric.

After the blind prejudices of weak mortals were once
removed, noble discourses were made in all the branches
of astronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies
were not only clearly explained, but the general law
of nature, according to which they moved, was dis-
covered and illustrated by the immortal Newton. This
law is called Gravity or Attraction, and is the same
by which any body falls to the ground, when disen-
gaged from what supported it. This same law, which
keeps the sea in its channel, and the various bodies
which cover the surface of this earth from flying off
into the air, operates throughout the universe, keeps
the planets in their orbits, and preserves the whole
fabric of nature from disorder and confusion. To be
somewhat more explicit concerning this point: by the
law of Gravity, or Gravitation, all heavy bodies have
a tendency towards the centre of our earth, in such an
over-proportion, that the centripetal force, by which
bodies tend thither, is almost 300 times greater than
that by which they are forced off by the earth's
motion round its axis, or the centrifugal force, as they
call it; and this all-wise provision keeps all things to-
gether on the surface of the earth; and which, when
exactly adjusted, keeps also every planet in its proper
circle, and at its due distance from the sun, or from its
primary one; and this is so universal a law, that it
prevails universally.

There have been perceived, in the expanse of the
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universe, many other bodies, belonging to the system of the sun, that seem to have much more irregular motions than the planets and stars above mentioned. These are the comets, that, descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, surprize 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 to vast distances, and disappear. The ancients generally believed comets to be only meteors generated in the air, like those we see in it every night; and in a few moments vanishing; while some modern writers have placed them among the fixed stars. But subsequent observations, with good instruments, and the application of the laws of Motion and Geometry to astronomical inquiries, have now satisfied us almost to a demonstration, that they are a kind of planets, of solid and compact bodies, revolving in determinate periods round the sun: but the orbits of many of them are so very oblong, eccentric, or oval, as well as large and extended, that they can appear to us but very seldom.

That great comet, which appeared in 1680, went so near the sun, as to acquire a degree of heat above 2000 times as great as that of red-hot iron; and if its body was about the size of our earth, as it was judged to be, it will not be cooled again this million of years. This comet was seen before in our hemisphere, A. D. 1106; once before, about the year 532; and also 44 years before our Saviour's birth; and therefore they conclude the time of its periodical revolution round the sun to be 575 years. The time of the revolution of that comet, which appeared again in 1758, is 75 years; and another, which was calculated to be seen here again in 1789, makes its ellipsis round the sun in 129 years.

The middle distance of the great comet that appeared in 1680, was more than 5000 millions of miles from the sun; as its greatest distance was above twice as much; and yet its least distance was not above a 20,000th part of its greatest; so that in its whole revolution it would be subject to such extremities, as that its greatest degree of light and heat to its least, were above 400 millions to one: and yet notwithstanding this immense extension of its elliptic orbit, the great and all-wise Architect of the universe hath probably so adjusted the centrifugal and centripetal forces, that it doth not quite leave the sun, though it go so far from him, but returns again towards him, and revolves round him in a determinate period of years. None of the orbits of any of these comets yet known, are in or near the plane of the earth's ecliptic; and therefore, in their ascent from the sun, though heated never so much by him, yet it is thought they will not approach near enough to our earth to burn us, or affect us with any sensible heat. It ought, however, to be observed, that our earth was out of the way when this comet last past near her orbit; but it requires a more

perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always pass by us with so little effect; for it may be here observed, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, comes very near to the orbit of our earth; so that, in some revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very considerable, if not fatal effects upon it.

There are, it is believed, at least 21 comets belonging to our system, moving in all manner of directions; and all those which have been observed, have moved through the ethereal regions, and the orbits of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions, which sufficiently proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs.

OF THE DOCTRINE OF THE SPHERE AND THE GLOBE.

The ancients were persuaded that the earth was spherical, but were not able to ascertain its dimensions; the solution of that problem was reserved for the moderns, who at length, after various researches, obtained satisfactory proofs that the earth was of a spherical figure: they observed, that the first part that appeared of a ship at sea, was the top of the mast; and, as she approached gradually, she seemed to rise by degrees out of the water, till the whole ship was visible; the same appearances, but in an inverted order, attended a ship sailing from the spectator, she seemed to sink gradually; beneath the surface of the sea, till at last she totally disappeared. It being evident that this could result from nothing but the spherical form of the earth, and as these phenomena required no apparatus, they sufficiently established its globular figure.

The body of the earth is named a sphere, with regard to astronomical speculations; through the centre of this a straight line is supposed to be drawn, from one opposite point of the surface to the other, which line is called a diameter. There are two points in the heavens, which always preserve the same situation; these points are termed celestial poles, because the heavens seem to turn round them. The motions of the heavens are imitated by the Artificial Sphere, through the centre of which a wire or iron rod is drawn, called an axis, whose extremities are fixed to the immovable points called poles. But in order to render the following definitions more easy to be conceived, it may be proper to remark, that both the celestial and terrestrial sphere is supposed to be concentric to the centre of the earth, and to have correspondent circles described on both spheres, and these circles are either greater or lesser.

Great circles are those which divide either the celestial or terrestrial sphere into two parts. Lesser circles divide the sphere into two unequal parts.

The poles of any circle are those points on the surface of the sphere equally distant from that circle. Every circle, whether great or small, has two poles, or centres,

centres, and from which all others drawn to the circumference are equal.

The axis of any circle is a right line supposed to connect the poles.

The celestial axis is that right line about which the heavens seem to revolve; and the two points where this axis cuts the celestial sphere, are called the north and south poles of the world.

The Equinoctial, Equator, or Equaller, is that great circle of the sphere, which is every where equally distant from the poles of the world; and, consequently, divides the heavens into two equal parts. It is so called, because when the sun appears to describe this circle, the days and nights are of an equal length to all the inhabitants of the earth. It is divided into 360 degrees.

The meridian, hour circles, circles of right ascension, or circles of terrestrial longitude, are those great circles which intersect each other in the poles of the world, and cut the Equinoctial at right angles.

The ecliptic is a great circle of the sphere intersecting the equinoctial in two opposite parts, and forming an angle with it equal to 23 degrees 29 minutes, the sun's greatest declination. It is generally divided into twelve equal parts called signs, beginning from one of its intersections with the equinoctial. It passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a zone called the Zodiac, of which more hereafter.

The *Doctrine of the Globe* is designed to represent the different regions, countries, nations, islands, and cities, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball, called the Terrestrial Globe, on which they are described in that order and figure that they really appear in on the face of the earth itself. With respect to the figure of the earth, though we have considered it as a spherical or globular body, yet it has been discovered that this is not its true figure, which Sir Isaac Newton undertook to determine, and, according to his calculations, the diameter at the poles, or axis of the earth, and the diameter of the equator, are to each other as 229 to 230; by which it appears that the figure of the earth is nearly that of a sphere or ball, though not perfectly so.

But as all conclusions resulting from questions of the most abstruse kind, will ever leave some doubt on the mind, whether every necessary circumstance has been taken into the account, and as this matter had occasioned much dispute between the philosophers of the last age, particularly between Sir Isaac Newton and Cassini, a French astronomer, who were the heads of two different parties; it was determined to refer the decision to actual mensuration; it being sufficiently known, that if the earth was a true sphere, all the degrees of the meridian must be equal; but every one of them of different lengths, if the figure was that of a spheroid. It was also known, that if the length of the degrees increased from the equator towards the poles, the figure was that of an oblate spheroid; but if they

increased from the pole towards the equator, the figure was a prolate spheroid, or something in the form of a lemon. Consequently if the length of a degree at the equator, and the length of another near the arctic circle could be accurately measured, both the form and dimensions of the earth might be determined to a degree of accuracy sufficient to answer all the purposes of navigation and geography. In 1736, the matter was put to trial by the king of France, who, desirous of having this interesting problem solved, sent one company of mathematicians into Lapland, and another into Peru, in order to measure the length of a degree of the meridian in these distant places. The former finished their task the same year, and found that the length of a degree of the meridian where it cuts the arctic circle, contained 57437 $\frac{1}{10}$, or 57438 toises nearly. The latter, who went to Peru, also finished their operations in 1736, and found that the length of a degree at the equator, was 56767 $\frac{1}{4}$, or almost 56768 toises. These mensurations not only confirmed the theory of Sir Isaac Newton, but also demonstrated, that he had determined the figure of the earth to a great degree of exactness; the two diameters being to each other nearly as 267 to 266 $\frac{1}{2}$; and since that time the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The *circumference of the earth* is computed at 25,038 English miles. This space, for the convenience of measuring is subdivided into 360 parts or degrees, each containing 60 geographical miles, or 69 $\frac{1}{2}$ English miles.

The *horizon* is represented by the upper surface of the wooden circular frame encompassing the globe about its middle. On this wooden frame is a kind of perpetual calendar, contained in several concentric circles; the inner one is divided into four quarters of 90 degrees each; the next circle is divided into the twelve months, with the days in each according to the new style; the next contains the twelve equal signs of the Zodiac, each being divided into 30 degrees; the next is the twelve months and days according to the old style; and there is another circle containing the 32 winds, with their halves and quarters. Although these circles are all on the horizon, yet they are not always placed in the same disposition. Geographers distinguish the horizon into the *rational* and *sensible*. The sensible horizon may be conceived to be made by any great plain on the surface of the sea, which seems to divide the concave orb of the stars, or the sky into two parts or hemispheres, the one above, the other below the level of the earth. The rational or real horizon, encompasses the globe, exactly in the middle; its poles are called the *zenith* and *Nadir*; the first exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet.

The *meridian* is a great circle, consisting of 360 degrees, which divides the globe into the east and west hemispheres; it lies directly north and south, passing through the poles of the equator, which it cuts at right angles: it is a changeable circle, being properly that part

part of the heavens, where the sun is at noon; so that every place on the earth has a different meridian, if we move east and west; but it remains the same, when we pass north or south.

The *Zodiac*, which is a broad circle cutting the equator obliquely, is designed to shew us what we called the sun's place for every day in the year; and therefore, is divided into 12 parts, which are distinguished by 12 eminent signs or constellations; and which, because they are intended to sign or mark out a particular place in the heavens where the sun is, or appears to be, every month, have been called the Twelve Signs of the Zodiac: each of these signs is divided into 30 equal parts or degrees, which makes up the whole 360: they are as follow:

Aries, γ , Taurus, σ , Gemini, Π , Cancer, ♋ , Leo, ♌ , Virgo, ♍ , Libra, ♎ , Scorpio, ♏ , Sagittarius, ♐ , Capricornus, ♑ , Aquarius, ♒ , Pisces, ♓ .

The *Colures* are two great circles which are supposed to intersect each other at right angles in the poles of the world, and to pass through the solstitial and equinoctial points of the ecliptic. That which passes thro' the two equinoctial points, is called the equinoctial colure, and determines the equinoxes; and the other which passes through the poles of the ecliptic, is called the solstitial colure, because it determines the solstices.

The *Tropics* are two circles, supposed to be drawn on each side of the equinoctial, and parallel thereto.—That on the north side of the line is called the Tropic of Cancer, and the southern tropic has the name of Capricorn, as passing through the beginning of those signs. They are distant from the equinoctial $23^{\circ} 29'$, and are called tropics, because the sun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former course.

The *Polar Circles* are parallel to the equator, and at the same distance from the poles that the tropics are from the equator. The northern is called the Arctic, and the southern the Antarctic, because opposite to the former, from which it is distant only $23^{\circ} 30'$.

The surface of the earth is supposed to be divided into five unequal parts called *Zones*, each of which is terminated by two parallels of latitude. Of these five zones, one is called the torrid or burning zone; two are styled frigid or frozen; and two temperate: names adapted to the quality of the heat and cold to which their situations are liable.

The *Torrid Zone* is that portion of the earth over every part of which the sun is perpendicular at some time of the year. The breadth of this zone is forty-seven degrees; extending from twenty-three degrees and a half north latitude, to twenty-three degrees and a half south. The equator passes through the middle of this zone, which is terminated on the north by the parallel of latitude called the tropic of Cancer, and on the south by the parallel called the tropic of Capricorn. The ancients considered this zone as uninhabitable, on account of the heat, which they thought too great to be supported by any human being, or even by the vegetable

creation; but experience has long since refuted this notion. Many parts of the torrid zone are remarkably populous; and it has been found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail in almost every part of the torrid zone, render the earth not only inhabitable, but also so fruitful, that two harvests a year are very common.

The *Frigid Zones* are those regions round the pole where the sun does not rise for some days in the winter, nor set for some days in the summer. The two poles are the centres of these zones, which extend from these points to twenty-three degrees and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and southern parallels of latitude of sixty-six degrees and a half. The part that lies in the northern hemisphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel called the arctic, or polar circle; and that in the southern hemisphere, the south frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or polar circle.

The two *Temperate Zones* are the spaces contained between the tropics and polar circles. The greater part of Europe is situated in the northern temperate zone; the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, and Cape Horn in America, lie in the southern

The Europeans have not yet thoroughly discovered all these zones: they are best acquainted with the northern temperate, and torrid zones: their knowledge of the southern temperate and northern frigid zone is very scanty; and that of the southern frigid zone, still more so.

The term *Climate* is vulgarly bestowed on any country or region differing from one another, either in respect of the seasons, the quality of the soil, or even the manners of the inhabitants, without any regard to the length of the longest day. But, in a geographical sense, the word *climate* more properly implies a certain space upon the surface of the terrestrial globe, contained between two parallels; and so far distant from each other, that the longest day in one differs half an hour from the longest day in the other parallel. The difference of climates arises from the different inclination or obliquity of the sphere: the ancients took the parallel wherein the length of the longest day is twelve hours and three quarters for the beginning of the first climate: as to those parts that are nearer to the equator than that parallel, they were not accounted to be in any climate, either because they may, in a loose and general sense, be considered as being in a right sphere, though, strictly speaking, only the parts under the equator are so; or because they were thought to be uninhabited by reason of the heat, and were besides unknown. The ancients, considering the diversity there is in the rising and setting of the heavenly bodies, especially the sun, and, in consequence thereof, the difference in the length of the days and nights in different places, divided as much of the earth as was known to them into climates; and, instead of the method now in use, of setting down the

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latitude of places in degrees, they contented themselves with saying in what climate the place under consideration was situated. According to them, therefore, what they judged the habitable part of the northern hemisphere was divided into seven climates, to which the like number of southern ones corresponded.

Some of the moderns reckon the different climates by the increase of half an hour in the length of the longest day, beginning at the equator, and going on till they come to the polar circle towards the pole; they then count the climates by the increase of a whole natural day, in the length of the longest day, till they come to a parallel, under which the day is of the length of fifteen natural days, or half a month; from this parallel they proceed to reckon the climates by the

increase of half or whole months, in the artificial day, till they come to the pole itself, under which the length of the day is six months. Those between the equator and the polar circles, are called hour-climates; and those between the polar circles and the poles, month climates.

A parallel is said to pass through the middle of a climate, when the longest day in that parallel differs a quarter of an hour from the longest day in either of the extreme parallels that bound the climate: this parallel does not divide the climate into two equal parts, but the part nearest to the equator is larger than the other, because the further we go from the equator, the less increase of latitude will be sufficient to increase the length of the longest day a quarter of an hour.

A TABLE of CLIMATES, according to RICCIOLUS, wherein the Effects of the Fraction are allowed for.

Climate	Parallel	Latitude	Longest Day.	Climate	Parallel	Latitude	Longest Day.	Climate	Parallel	Latitude	N. Lat.		S. Lat.	
											Continual D. N.	Continual D. N.	Continual D. N.	Continual D. N.
I.	1	2° 59'	12h 45'	VIII.	15	46° 31'	15h 45'	XV.	29	66° 2'	15	12	14	13
	2 m	7 18	12 30		16 m	48 15	16 0		30 m	66 53	34	27	30	28
	3	11 29	12 45		17	51 14	16 30		31	67 43	45	41	44	43
II.	4 m	15 36	13 0	IX.	18 m	53 46	17 0	XVI.	32 m	69 30	62	58	60	59
	5	19 33	13 15		19	55 55	17 30		33	71 8	77	71	74	73
III.	6 m	23 8	13 30	X.	20 m	57 44	18 0	XVII.	34 m	73 0	93	87	89	88
	7	26 50	13 45		21	59 20	18 30		35	75 56	108	101	104	103
IV.	8 m	29 49	14 0	XI.	22 m	60 39	19 0	XVIII.	36 m	78 6	124	117	120	118
	9	32 48	14 15		23	61 47	19 30		37	81 10	139	132	135	134
V.	10 m	35 35	14 30	XII.	24 m	62 4	20 0	XIX.	38 m	84 0	156	148	150	149
	11	38 9	14 45		25	64 12	21 0		39	87 40	172	160	164	161
VI.	12 m	40 32	15 0	XIII.	26 m	65 10	22 0	XX.	40 m	90 0	188	180	178	177
	13	42 41	15 15		27	65 43	23 0							
VII.	14 m	44 42	15 30	XIV.	28 m	65 54	24 0							

THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF NAVIGATION.

THE origin of this useful invention is referred, in scripture, to God himself, who gave the first specimen thereof in the ark built by Noah: for the rallery the good man underwent on account of his enterprise, shews evidently enough, that the world was then ignorant of any thing like navigation; and that they even thought it impossible. However, the Phœnicians, especially those of Tyre, are represented in history as the

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first navigators. Tyre, whose immense riches and power are represented in such lofty terms, both in sacred and profane history, being destroyed by Alexander the Great, its navigation was transferred to Alexandria by the conqueror; and thus arose the navigation of the Egyptians, which was afterwards so cultivated by the Ptolemies, that Tyre and Carthage, which last was subdued by the Romans, were quite forgotten. At length Alexandria itself underwent the fate of Tyre and Carthage, being surpris'd by the Saracens, who, in spite of Heraclius, over-ran the northern coasts of Africa, &c. so

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that

that Alexandria has ever since been in a declining state.

Upon the fall of the Roman empire, the more brave among the Franks in Gaul, the Greeks in Spain, and Lombards in Italy, were no sooner settled than they began to learn the advantage and utility of navigation and commerce, and the methods of managing them, from the people they had subdued; and in a little time some of them became able to give new instructions for the practice of it.

The people of Italy, and particularly those of Venice and Genoa, were the first restorers of navigation and commerce in the mariny islands in the bottom of the Adriatic; the Veneti, who dwelt along the coasts of that gulf, retired, when Alaric king of the Goths, and afterwards Attila king of the Huns, ravaged Italy.

Each of the 72 islands of the Adriatic continued a long time under their respective masters, as distinct commonwealths; the commerce becoming considerable, they began to think of uniting into a body; and it was this union, first begun in the sixth century, but not completed till the eighth, that laid the foundation of the future grandeur of the Venetians.

From the time of this union the fleets of merchantmen were sent to all the ports of the Mediterranean, and at last to Grand Cairo, a city built by the Saracens on the eastern bank of the Nile.

Thus they flourished till the famous league of Cambrai in 1528, when a number of jealous princes conspired to effect their ruin; which was the more easily accomplished by the Portuguese getting one part of the East-India commerce, and the Spaniards another.

Genoa, which had applied to navigation at the same time with Venice, disputed with it the empire of the sea. Jealousy soon began to break out, and, the two republics coming to blows, it was three centuries almost continued war, before the superiority was ascertained; when, towards the end of the 14th century, the fatal battle of Chiozza ended the noble strife. The Genoese, who till then had always had the advantage, had now lost all; and the Venetians secured to themselves the empire of the sea, and superiority in commerce.

About the same time that navigation was retrieved in the southern parts of Europe, a new society of merchants was formed in the north, who framed a new scheme of laws for the regulation of commerce, called still the usages and customs of the sea.

In examining the reasons of commerce passing successively from the Venetians, Genoese, and Hanse-towns, to the Portuguese and Spaniards; and from those again to the English and Dutch; it may be established as a maxim, that the relation betwixt commerce and navigation, or rather their union is so intimate, that the fall of the one necessarily draws after it that of the other.

Hence so many laws, &c. for its regulation; and

particularly that celebrated act of navigation in England, which is the standing rule, not only of the English among themselves, but also of other nations with whom they traffick.

Till this act, all nations were at liberty to import into England all kinds of merchandizes, and that on their own bottoms. But Cromwell particularly passed an act prohibiting the Dutch from importing any merchandizes, except those of their own growth, which were very few. The first parliament of Charles II. after the restoration, passed an act, bearing date from the first of December 1666, for the encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation, which still subsists in its full latitude and vigour.

Latitude, in geography, is the distance of any place from the equator, measured in degrees, minutes, and seconds, upon the meridian of that place, and is either north or south, according as the place is situated either on the north or south side of the equator. The latitude of a place is always equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon. The complement of latitude is always equal to the elevation of the equator above the horizon, or the angle intercepted between the plane of the equator and the plane of the horizon. The latitude of a place, or of a ship at sea, is found by taking the meridian altitude of the sun, or of a star whose declination is known.

Parallels of latitude are lesser circles of the sphere parallel to the ecliptic, imagined to pass through every degree and minute of the colures. They are represented on the globe by the divisions on the quadrant of altitude, in its motion round the globe, when screwed over the pole of the ecliptic.

The *longitude* of a place is an arch of the equator intercepted between the first meridian, and the meridian passing through the proposed place; which is always equal to the angle at the pole, formed by the first meridian, and the meridian of the place. The first meridian may be placed at pleasure, passing through any place, as London, Paris, Teneriffe, &c. but among us is generally fixed at London: and the longitude counted from it will be either east or west, according as they lie on the east or west side of that meridian. The difference of longitude, between two places upon the earth is an arch of the equator comprehended between the two meridians of these places; and the greatest possible is 180 degrees, when the two places lie on opposite meridians. Since the parallels of latitude always decrease, the nearer they approach the pole; it is plain, a degree upon any of them must be less than a degree upon the equator, in the ratio of the co-sine of the latitude to the radius. Hence, as the radius is to the co-sine of any latitude; so are the minutes of difference of longitude between two meridians, or their difference in miles upon the equator, to the distance of these two meridians on the parallel of that latitude, in miles; and by this theorem, is the following table:

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A TABLE shewing how many Miles answer to a Degree of Longitude, at every Degree of Latitude.

D. L.	Miles.	D. L.	Miles.	D. L.	Miles.	D. L.	Miles.	D. L.	Miles.	D. L.	Miles.
1	59 99	16	57 67	31	51 43	46	41 68	61	29 9	76	14 51
2	59 97	17	57 37	32	50 88	47	40 92	62	28 17	77	13 50
3	59 92	18	57 6	33	50 32	48	40 15	63	27 24	78	12 48
4	59 86	19	56 73	34	49 74	49	39 36	64	26 30	79	11 45
5	59 77	20	56 83	35	49 15	50	38 57	65	25 36	80	10 42
6	59 67	21	56 1	36	48 54	51	37 76	66	24 41	81	9 38
7	59 56	22	55 63	37	47 92	52	36 94	67	23 44	82	8 35
8	59 42	23	55 23	38	47 28	53	36 11	68	22 48	83	7 32
9	59 26	24	54 81	39	46 62	54	35 27	69	21 50	84	6 28
10	59 8	25	54 83	40	45 95	55	34 41	70	20 52	85	5 23
11	58 80	26	53 93	41	45 28	56	33 55	71	19 54	86	4 18
12	58 68	27	53 46	42	44 59	57	32 68	72	18 55	87	3 14
13	58 46	28	52 97	43	43 88	58	31 79	73	17 54	88	2 9
14	58 22	29	52 47	44	43 16	59	30 90	74	16 53	89	1 5
15	57 95	30	50 88	45	42 43	60	30 00	75	15 52	90	0 00

In order to find the latitude and longitude of any place upon the terrestrial globe, we must bring the given place under that side of the graduated brazen meridian where the degrees begin at the equator, by turning the globe about: then the degree of the meridian over it shews the latitude; and the degree of the equator, under the meridian, shews the longitude. Thus Bristol will be found to lie in 51 degrees 28 minutes north latitude, and two degrees 30 minutes west longitude, and Dublin in 51 degrees 12 minutes north latitude, and six degrees 55 minutes west longitude.

The distance of places which lie neither south, east, north, nor west of each other, but in an oblique direction, may be readily measured by extending the compasses from one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. Example: Extend the compasses from Guinea in Africa to Brasil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and the distance will be 25 degrees, or 1500 miles, allowing 60 miles to a degree.

Quadrant of altitude is an appendage of the artificial globe, consisting of a lamina, or slip of brass, the length of a quadrant of one of the great circles of the globe, and graduated. At the end, where the division terminates, is a nut riveted on, and furnished with a screw, by means whereof the instrument is fixed on to the meridian, and moveable round upon the rivet, to all points of the horizon. Its use is, to serve as a scale in measuring of altitudes, amplitudes, azimuths, &c.

The hour-circle of a globe is a small brazen circle, fixed upon the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, having an index moveable round the axis of

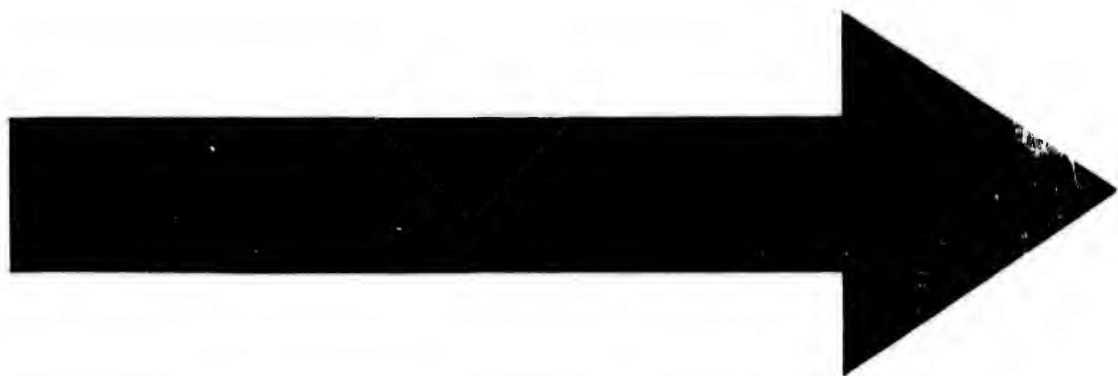
the globe, which, upon turning the globe 15 degrees, will shew what places have the sun an hour before or after us.

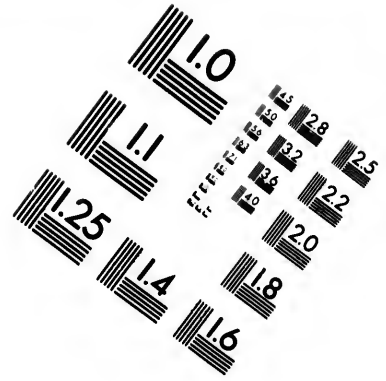
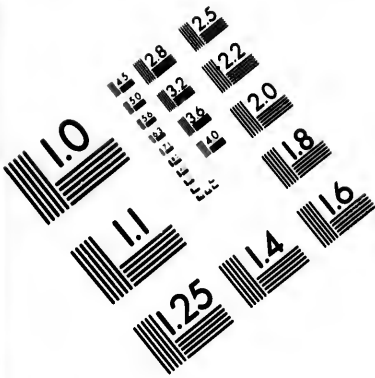
GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS.

PROB. I. To rectify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon.] Set the globe upon an horizontal plane, with its parts, answering to those of the world; move the meridian in its notches, by raising or depressing the pole, until the degrees of latitude cut the horizon, then is the globe rectified for the latitude. Reckon the latitude from the equator towards the elevated pole, then screw the bevil edge of the nut belonging to the quadrant of altitude, and the rectification is made for the zenith: bring the sun's place found in the third problem, to the meridian: set the index to the twelve at noon, or upper twelve, and the globe is rectified for the sun's southing, or noon.

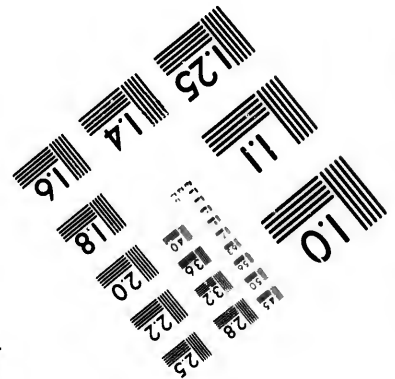
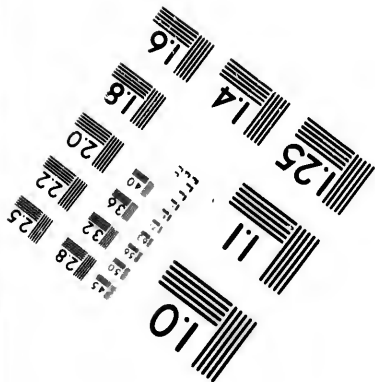
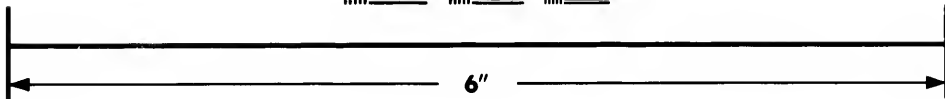
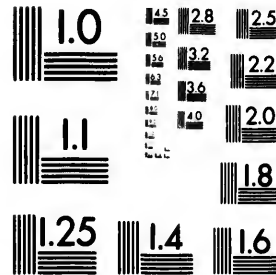
PROB. II. To find the distance and bearing of any two given places on the globe.] Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both places, the beginning or 0 degree being on one of them, and the degrees between them shew their distance; these degrees multiplied by 60; give geographical miles, and, by 69½, give the distance in English miles nearly. Observe, while the quadrant lies in this position, what rhumb of the nearest fly runs mostly parallel to the edge of the quadrant, and that rhumb shews nearly the bearing required.

PROB. III. To find the sun's place and declination on any day.] Seek the given day in the circle of months on





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on the horizon; and right against it, in the circle of signs, is the sun's place; by which means it will be found, that the sun enters Aries, March 20; Taurus, April 20; Gemini, May 21; Cancer, June 21; Leo, July 23; Virgo, August 23; Libra, September 22; Scorpio, October 23; Sagittarius, November 22; Capricorn, December 21; Aquarius, January 20; Pisces, February 18. Then seek the sun's place in the ecliptic on the globe, bring that place to the meridian, and the division it stands under is the sun's declination on the given day.—The ecliptic is readily distinguished from the equator on the globe, not only by the different colours wherewith they are stained, but also by the ecliptic's approaching towards the poles, after its intersection with the equator. The marks of the signs are also placed along the ecliptic, one at the beginning of every successive 30 degrees.

PROB. IV. *To find where the sun is vertical at any given time.*] Bring the sun's place, found for the given day, in the manner directed by the last problem, to the meridian; note the degree over it, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe till the index comes to twelve at noon, when the place under the said noted degree has the sun in the zenith at that time; and all the places that pass under that degree, by turning the globe round, will have the sun vertical to them on that day.

PROB. V. *To find, at any given time, all those places of the earth where the sun is then rising or setting; where mid. day, or mid. night.*] Find the place where the sun is vertical at the given time, according to the last problem, rectify the globe for the latitude of that place, and bring it to the meridian. Then all those places that are in the west half of the horizon, have the sun rising; and those in the eastern half have it setting. Those under the meridian above the horizon have the sun culminating, or noon; and those under the meridian, below the horizon, have midnight. Those above the horizon have day; those below it, have night.

PROB. VI. *To find any place on the globe whose latitude and longitude are given.*] Bring the given longitude, found on the equator, to the brazen meridian, and under the given latitude found on the meridian, is the place sought.

PROB. VII. *The latitude of any place, not within the polar circle, being given; to find the time of sun-rising and setting, and the length of the day and night.*] Rectify the globe for the latitude and the noon; bring the sun's place to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index shews the time of rising. The sun's place brought to the western side of the horizon, the index gives the setting; or the time of rising, taken from twelve hours, gives the time of setting. The time of setting being doubled, gives the length of the night. For instance, at London, on the 15th of April, the day is 13 hours and an half; the night ten and a half.

PROB. VIII. *To find the length of the longest and*

shortest days in any given place.] Rectify the globe for the latitude, bring the solstitial point of that hemisphere to the eastern part of the horizon, set the index to twelve at noon: turn the globe till the solstitial point comes to the western side of the horizon; the hours past over by the index give the length of the longest day, or night; and its complement to twenty-four hours gives the length of the shortest night or day.

PROB. IX. *A place being given in the Frigid or Frozen Zone, to find the time when the sun begins to appear at, or depart from, that place, also how many successive days he is present to, or absent from, that place.*] Rectify the globe for the latitude, turn the globe, and observe what degrees in the first and second quadrants of the ecliptic are cut by the north point of the horizon, the latitude being supposed north. Then find those degrees in the circle of signs on the horizon, and their corresponding days of the month, and all the time between those days the sun will not set in that place. Again, observe what degree in the third and fourth quadrants of the ecliptic will be cut by the south point of the horizon, and the days answering. Then the sun will be quite absent from the given place during the intermediate days; that day in the third quadrant shews when the sun begins to disappear, and that in the fourth quadrant shews when he begins to shine in the place proposed. Thus at the North Cape, in lat. 71. deg. N. the sun never sets from the 15th of May to the 28th of July, which is 74 days; and never rises from the 16th of November to the 24th of January, which is 69 days.

PROB. X. *To find what days the sun will be vertical at any given place in the torrid zone.*] Note the latitude of the given place on the meridian; turn the globe, and note what points of the ecliptic pass under the latitude noted on the meridian. Seek those points of the ecliptic in the circle of signs on the horizon, and right against them in the circle of months stand the days required. In this manner it will be found, that the sun will be vertical to the island of St. Helena on the 6th of November, and on the 4th of February; and at Barbadoes on the 24th of April, and the 18th of August.

PROB. XI. *The latitude, day of the month, and sun's altitude being given; to find the azimuth and hour of the day.*] Rectify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon. Turn the globe and quadrant until the sun's place coincides with the graduated edge of the quadrant. Then will that edge of the quadrant cut in the horizon the degrees of azimuth, reckoned from the north; and the index will shew the hour of the day.

PROB. XII. *The day and hour being given, to find those places on the globe, to which the sun is then rising, those to which he is then setting, those where it is noon-day, those which are actually enlightened, and those that are not.*] Find that place of the globe to which the sun is vertical at the given time, bring the same to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the said place. The globe being fixed in this position, observe what places are in the western semi-circle of the horizon,

horizon, for there the sun is then rising; and those places in the eastern semicircle of the horizon have the sun then setting. Those places exactly under the brazen meridian have noon-day; and lastly, all those above the horizon are enlightened; but those below it are deprived of the sun at that time.

PROB. XIII. *The day of the month being given, to find the sun's place in the ecliptic.*] Look for the day of the month in the calendar upon the wooden horizon, and over-against it you will find the sign and degree of the ecliptic which the sun is in at that time.

PROB. XIV. *The day and hour being given, to find those places in the globe, to which the sun is in the meridian at that time.*] The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the given place, bring that place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day; then turn the globe till the index point to the uppermost XII, and having fixed the globe in that situation, all those places under the upper half of the brazen meridian have the sun in their meridian at that particular time; so that with them it is noon-day.

PROB. XV. *To find the distances between any two given places upon the globe; and to find all those places that are at the same distance from any given place.*] Lay the quadrant of altitude over the two given places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them being reduced into miles will be the distance required. Or you may take the distance between the two places with a pair of compasses, and, applying them to the equator, you will have the degrees of distance as before.—If you rectify the globe for the latitude and zenith of any place, and bring the said place to the meridian; then turning the quadrant of altitude about, all those places that are not by the same point of it are at the same distance from the given place.

PROB. XVI. *To find the Antæci, Periæci, and Antipodes of any place.*] Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and having found its latitude, reckon the same number of degrees on the meridian from the equator towards the contrary pole, and where the reckoning ends is the place of the Antæci. Keeping the globe in the same position, set the hour index to twelve at noon; then turn the globe about till the index points to the lower twelve, and the place which lies under the meridian, having the same latitude with the given place, is that of the Periæci required.—As to the Antipodes, their place is found by counting 180 degrees upon the meridian from the given place, either north or south.

PROB. XVII. *To represent the appearance of the heavens at any time in a given place.*] Rectify the celestial globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon; and turn the globe till the index points at the given hour; then while those stars in the eastern half of the horizon are rising, those in the western are setting, and those in the meridian are culminating. The quadrant being set to any given star, will shew its altitude, and at the same time its azimuth,

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reckoned in the horizon. Then by turning the globe round, it will readily appear what stars never set in that place, and those which never rise; those of perpetual apparition never go below the horizon, and those of perpetual absence never come above it.

PROB. XVIII. *To find the latitude and longitude of any star.*] Put the centre of altitude on the pole of the ecliptic, and its graduated edge on the given star; then the latitude is shewn by the degrees between the ecliptic and star; and the longitude by the degrees cut on the ecliptic by the quadrant.

PROB. XIX. *To find the declination and right ascension of a star.*] Bring the star to the meridian, the degree over it is the declination, and the degree of the equator under the meridian is the right ascension.

PROB. XX. *The day and hour of a lunar eclipse being known, to find all those places upon the globe in which it will be visible.*] Find where the sun is vertical at the hour of the eclipse, and bring that place to the zenith; then the eclipse will be visible in all those places that are under the horizon. But if the Antipodes to the place where the sun is vertical be brought into the zenith, the eclipse will be seen in the places above the horizon.—But observe, that an eclipse of the moon being sometimes of a long continuance, it may be seen in more than one hemisphere of the earth, as she will rise in several places after the eclipse begins.

Note. When an eclipse of the sun is central, if you bring the place where the sun is vertical at that time into the zenith, some part of the eclipse will be visible in most places within the upper hemisphere: but by reason of the short duration of solar eclipses, and the latitude which the moon commonly has at such times, there is no certainty in determining by the globe where those eclipses will be visible, and therefore recourse must be had to calculations.

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

The two grand divisions of the terraqueous globe, are land and water. The land is divided into continents, islands, peninsulas, isthmus's, promontories or capes, and mountains. The water is divided into oceans, seas, gulfs, straits, lakes, and rivers.

A *continent*, terra firma, or main land, is a very large tract of country, comprehending several contiguous empires, kingdoms, countries, and states: there are generally reckoned four continents, Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; but the latter is commonly divided into two parts, called North and South America. An *island* is a smaller tract of land, entirely surrounded with water, as Great-Britain. A *peninsula* is a district of country encompassed with water, except a small neck which joins it to some other land, as the *Moræa* in Greece. An *isthmus* is a narrow neck of land connecting some peninsula to another tract of country, and forming the passage between them; as the isthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Asia, and the isthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory*, or *cape*,

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is a head-land, generally of considerable height, stretching itself some distance into the sea; as the Cape of Good Hope. Coasts, shores, mountains, vallies, woods, deserts, plains, &c. are too well known to require description.

An *ocean* is a vast collection of waters bounded by the coasts of different countries. Geographers generally reckon three extensive oceans, viz. the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian ocean. The Atlantic ocean lies between the continents of Europe and Africa on the east, and America on the west; it is usually divided into two parts, one called the North Atlantic ocean, and the other the South Atlantic, or Ethiopic ocean; that part of the North Atlantic ocean lying between Europe and America, is often called the western ocean: it is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific Ocean, or, as it is often called, the South-Sea, is bounded on the East by the western shores of America, and on the West by the eastern shores of Asia; it is computed to be 10,000 miles over. The Indian ocean washes the shores of the eastern coast of Africa, and the southern coasts of Asia; the Indian islands and New Guinea, bound it on the East; it is 3000 miles wide. A *sea*, properly speaking, is a lesser collection of waters than an ocean; as the Mediterranean sea, the Baltic sea, &c. A *gulf* or *bay* is a part of an ocean or sea contained between two shores, and is every where environed with land, except at its entrance; as the bay of Biscay: if a gulf be very small, it is called a creek, haven, station, or road for ships, as Milford-Haven. A *strait* is a narrow passage forming a communication between a gulf and its neighbouring sea, or joining one part of the sea or ocean with another; as the strait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. A *lake* is a collection of waters contained in some inland place, of a large extent; and every where surrounded by the land, having no visible communication with the ocean: as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. As rivers, canals, brooks, &c. are to be met with in most countries, every person therefore has a clear idea of what is meant by these lesser divisions of water.

OF THE WINDS AND TIDES.

Air is a fine invisible fluid surrounding the earth on which we move, and extending to several miles above its surface; and that collection of it, together with the bodies it contains, circumscribing the earth, is called the atmosphere. A small volume of air is capable of expanding itself, so as to fill a very large space; and also of being compressed into a much smaller compass. Cold has the property of compressing the air, and heat of expanding it. Hence if any alteration be made in any part of the atmosphere, either by heat or cold, the neighbouring parts will be put in motion, and either expanded or compressed. Wind is a stream or current of air put in motion, and capable of very different degrees of velocity, and thence called a breeze, gale, or storm. Winds are either constant or variable, general

or particular. Constant winds are such as always blow the same way, at least for a considerable length of time. Variable winds are such as frequently shift, or change from one point of the compass to another. A general wind, is that which blows the same way over a large tract of the earth, the greater part of the year. A particular wind is that which blows in any particular place, sometimes one way and sometimes another.—The trade wind is a current of air, blowing continually from the east, on the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean, between 30 degrees north, and 30 degrees south latitude.—The cause of this constant wind is the action of the sun in his apparent motion from east to west.

In some parts of the Indian ocean another species of trade winds, called monsoons, prevail. These blow six months one way, and six months the contrary way. These phenomena flow from the same cause. For the air that is cool and dense, must force the warm and rarified air in a continual stream upwards, where it must spread itself to preserve an equilibrium; consequently the upper course or current of the air will be contrary to the under current; for the under current must move from those parts where the greatest heat is; and so, by a kind of circulation, the north-east trade wind below will be attended with a south-west wind above; and a south-east below, with a north-west above. Experience has sufficiently confirmed the truth of this proposition; the seamen always finding that as soon as they leave the trade winds, they immediately find a wind blowing in an opposite direction.—Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitudes of Cape-Verd, and the easternmost of the Cape de Verd islands, is a tract of sea, which seems to be condemned to perpetual calms, attended with dreadful thunder and lightnings, and such frequent rains, that it has acquired the name of the Rains. This phenomenon seems to be caused by the great rarefaction of the air on the neighbouring coast, which causing a perpetual current of air to set in from the westward, and this current meeting here with the general trade wind, the two currents balance each other, and cause a general calm; while the vapours carried thither by each wind, meeting and condensing, occasions those frequent deluges of rain.

By the word *tide* is understood that motion of the water in the seas and rivers, by which they regularly rise and fall. The doctrine of the tides continued unknown till the latter end of the last century, when it was discovered by the illustrious and immortal Sir Isaac Newton, who explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. He demonstrated that this principle is universally diffused through the solar system: that the earth and moon gravitate towards, or attract each other; and both of them gravitate towards, or are attracted by the sun: also, that the gravitation of bodies towards the centre of the earth, will be less on those parts of its surface that are opposite to the sun and moon, than in the others; and this defect of gravitation or attraction

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tion in particular parts, is the true cause of the ebbing and flowing of the tide. If no such forces were exerted by the sun and moon, the oceans, being equally attracted towards the earth's centre on all sides by the force of gravity would continue in a state of perfect stagnation; but as these forces are really exerted, the waters in the oceans must rise higher in those places where the sun and moon diminish their gravity, or where the attraction of the sun and moon is greatest. Hence it follows that as the force of gravity must be diminished most in those places of the earth to which the moon is nearest, viz. in the zenith; therefore the waters in such places will rise higher, and consequently it will be full sea or flood in such places. From the same principles it follows, that the parts of the earth directly under the moon in the zenith, and those in the nadir, or those diametrically opposite, will have the flood or high water at the same time.

The tides are higher than ordinary twice every month, viz. about the time of the new and full moon; and those are called spring tides. When these two luminaries are in conjunction, or on the same side of the earth, they both conspire to raise the water in the zenith, and consequently in the nadir; and when the sun and moon are in opposition, that is, when the earth is between them while one makes high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the same in the nadir and zenith. Twice in every month, the tides are less than ordinary; that is, about the times of the first and last quarters of the moon; and these are called neap tides: for in the quarters of the moon, the sun raises the water where the moon depresses it; and depresses where the moon raises the water; the tides are made therefore by the difference of their actions. The spring tides happen not precisely at the new and full moon, but a day or two after, when the attractions of the sun and moon have acted in the same direction for a considerable time. The reason that the greatest spring tides do not happen on the 21st of March, and the 23d of September, but in February and October, is, because the sun being nearest the earth in December, his influence is then strongest, and so must quicken the time of the greatest vernal tides; and being weakest in June, the time of the autumnal tides will necessarily be retarded. The neap tides happen a day or two after the quarters, when the force of the moon's attraction has been lessened by that of the sun's for several days together. The above-mentioned phenomena of the tides would happen uniformly, if the whole surface of the earth was entirely covered with water: but as this is not the case, there being, besides the continents, a multitude of islands lying in the way of the tide, which interrupts its course, therefore in many places near the shores a great variety of other appearances arise, besides those already enumerated; these cannot be explained, without considering the situations of the shores, straits, shoals, rocks, and other objects, by which they are in some measure produced. In some

bays, and about the mouths of rivers, the tides rise from 12 to 50 feet; but about small islands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean they rise very little. There are also certain currents, or settings of the stream by which ships are compelled to alter their course or velocity, or both, and submit to the motion impressed upon them by the current. That between Florida and the Bahama islands always runs from north to south: a current runs constantly from the Atlantic through the straits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean: and 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. The knowledge of these currents is a necessary article of navigation; for if the current thwarts the course of a ship, then it not only lessens or augments her velocity, but gives her a new direction compounded of the course she steers, and the setting of the current.

A MAP is a plain or flat figure, representing the whole surface of the globe, or a part thereof, according to the rules of perspective. They are intended to shew us the forms and dimensions of countries, the courses of rivers, the situation of cities, towns, mountains, &c. They are distinguished into Universal and Particular. The first sort are those which exhibit the whole surface of the earth, or the two hemispheres, and are commonly called Maps of the World: the last sort are those which represent some particular country or part thereof.—Those which represent only the seas, and sea-coasts, are properly called charts. The principal things required in a map are, 1. That all places have their just situation with regard to the chief circles of the globe, as the equator, meridian, parallels, &c. because on these depend many properties of regions, as well as celestial phenomena. 2. That the magnitudes of the several countries have the same proportion as on the surface of the earth. 3. That the several places have the same distances and situation with regard to each other, as on the earth itself. There is usually a scale of miles in some vacant part of a map, by which the distance of one place from another is easily found. As to maps of the world, the degrees of longitude are numbered on the equator, and those of latitude round each hemisphere from the equator to the poles. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shades; sands and shallows are described by dotted beds; the depth of the water, near harbours, is expressed by figures representing fathoms; and roads are usually denoted by double lines.

With respect to the cardinal points; the north is considered as the upper part of the map; the south is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the right hand is east, the face being turned to the north; and the left hand, opposite, is the west; unless the compass, or flower-de-luce, which is generally placed in some part

of a map, shews the contrary; for that always points to the north.

Parallels, or circles of latitude, are lesser circles of the sphere, conceived to be drawn from west to east, through all the points of the meridian, commencing from the equator, to which they are parallel, and terminating with the poles. They are called *parallels of latitude*, because all places lying under the same parallel have the same latitude. The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles, the situation, distance, &c. of places may be found, as on the artificial globe. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west, from one another, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and, by turning those into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring.

We shall here give a table of the miles in use among the principal nations of Europe, in geometrical paces, 60,000 of which make a degree of the equator.

	Geometrical Paces.
Mile of Russia	750
— of Italy	1000
— of England	1250
— of Scotland and Ireland.....	1500
— of Poland	3000
— of Spain	3428
— of Germany	4000
— of Sweden	5000
— of Denmark	5000
— of Hungary.....	6000
Old league of France.....	1500
The small league, <i>ibid</i>	2000
The mean league, <i>ibid</i>	2500
The great league, <i>ibid</i>	3000

Note. The English statute mile is fourscore chains, or 1760 yards, that is, 5280 feet, or eight furlongs. The English marine league is three English miles.

The number of inhabitants computed at present to be in the known world, at a medium, taken from the most accurate calculations, are 953 millions, of which Asia contains 500, Europe 153, Africa 150, and America 150 millions.

PART II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Of the Origin, Laws, Government, and Commerce of Nations.

IN order to prepare our readers for entering upon the particular history of each country we describe, it was thought necessary to present them 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; wherein we shall give an account of the most interesting and important events which have happened among men, with their causes and effects. This undoubtedly constitutes the most useful branch of Political Geography; and it may not only be deemed a matter of high importance in itself, but indispensably requisite to the understanding the present state of commerce, government, arts, and manners in any particular country.

The best chronologers have placed the great event of the creation of the world in the year before Christ 4004; before which time, neither matter nor form of any thing appeared or existed. That the world was not eternal, has been fully determined by the sacred records, which have also ascertained the time of its creation with great precision; the Hebrew chronology being generally acknowledged to be of superior authority to the Julian, Samaritan, or Septuagint. The history of the patriarchs before the flood is very short, and principally confined to the creation of the world, and the fall of the first parents of mankind. The sacred historian has given us very few anecdotes of the inhabitants of those early times; and what is found in profane writers, is little more than a confused heap of the most palpable absurdities. It may however be gathered from the writings of Moses, that the world before the flood was extremely populous, that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and were become immeasurably vicious, both in their sentiments and manners, insomuch that nothing could stop the torrent of impiety which prevailed. They were not only addicted to every vice, and in love with every species of iniquity, but laughed at the preaching of Noah, and set the threatened vengeance of heaven at defiance. Regardless of the predictions of the prophet, they even ridiculed his building an ark for the preservation of himself and descendants. But they were

soon fatally convinced of their error: a deluge of water, which continued a whole year, swept away all the human race, except Noah and his family. This dreadful catastrophe not only destroyed the inhabitants of the earth, which is supposed to have been more populous then than at present, but in a great measure affected the soil and atmosphere of the globe, gave them a form less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body: hence followed the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which hath ever since made such havock in the world.

After the waters had subsided, and the surface of the earth was sufficiently dry, Noah, with his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japhet, left the ark, and a new generation for peopling the earth was raised from the ruins of the former. The sacred writings have preserved an account of the posterity of Shem, but very little with regard to Ham and Japhet. The memory of all of them was, however, preserved among their respective

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respective descendents. The name of Japhet, changed into Japetus, continued long famous among the western nations; and Ham was revered as a deity among the Egyptians, under the name of Jupiter-Ammon. The whole descendants of Noah remained some time in the plains of Shinar, afterwards called Babylonia, where they built a city, and a tower of enormous height as a land-mark, to prevent their being scattered abroad; or lost in the deserts of that wide and open country, then destitute of roads, and every natural accommodation: but their design was frustrated by the interposition of heaven. It was necessary, for peopling and cultivating the other parts of the world, that the sons of Noah should be dispersed, and separated from one another; this was effectually brought about by the confusion of their language: they no longer understood each other, and abandoned their design before the structure was finished. They then dispersed themselves into different parts of the world; and the various countries of the earth were gradually peopled by distinct families.

The new world abounded with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal fame; he became a mighty hunter, and chose Babel, or Babylon, for the place of his residence; there he fixed the seat of his kingdom, and founded there the first monarchy B. C. in the world. About the same time Assur, the second son of Shem, left Shinar, and built a city 2235 which he called Nine-veue, or Nineveh, which signifies, the habitation of his son. But though these kingdoms were founded so near the time of the deluge, we have no further account concerning them till several centuries after their foundation. The countries were indeed at that time very thin of people; and the descendents of Noah were dispersed according to their several languages and families; and therefore few remarkable transactions happened in the world. However, in Egypt, the four governments of Thebis, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity.

As mankind began to multiply on the earth, and to separate into different communities, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obscured. Ninus, the first Assyrian prince of whose actions we have any account, was a great and warlike prince. B. C. Warmed with ambition, and envying the success of his neighbours, he taught his subjects the use and exercise of arms, and inured them to martial discipline and dangers. War and destruction now laid waste the fertile provinces of Asia, and a final period was put to the peace which had hitherto prevailed among the nations. He added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of a powerful empire, which for many ages extended the yoke of slavery over the greater part of Asia. After the dispersion of Babel, Ham led a colony into Egypt; and it is plain, from the writings of Moses, that Abraham, who lived in the reign of Ninus, and was obliged by a dreadful

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famine to retire out of Canaan into Egypt, found that kingdom in the zenith of power. The monarch was surrounded by a train of courtiers; the people were governed by laws; had abandoned a wandering life, and were settled in cities. It became very populous; and the rudiments of the arts were known; structures for elegance as well as use were erected in various parts of the empire; and a commerce far from inconsiderable was carried on by the descendents of Ham.

In process of time, Javan, the son of Japhet, and grandson of Noah, led his colony into Asia Minor, and established himself in the islands on the western coast of the continent. As their numbers increased, they extended their settlements; many of them passed over into Europe; and part of Greece became peopled in very early times. But as there was still room B. C. sufficient for others, and the country very fertile, 2022 a colony from Egypt, known in history by the name of Titans, penetrated into Greece, and established the policy and arts of their country. Internal jars and commotions, however, stopped the progress of improvement: war succeeded, and soon demolished the Titan kingdom. The descendents of Javan, before the arrival of the Titans, were rude and barbarous; they inhabited dens and caverns like wild beasts; the reasoning faculty was debased, and hardly any thing but the form remained to distinguish them from the brute creation. The little progress they had made in refinement under the Titan government was soon for B. C. 1829 gotten; and when the colonies headed by Ogyges and Inachus arrived in that country, the inhabitants had relapsed into their former state of barbarity. Inachus exerted all his power to collect the wandering Greeks, and form them into a regular society. He succeeded in some measure; but the histories of those times are so dark and confused, that it is impossible to withdraw the veil of obscurity, or advance any thing with certainty.

The history written by Moses, is the only one on which we can rely with regard to the transactions of those early ages. The sacred writer, in giving B. C. an account of the calling of Abraham, and the 1808 settlement of the family of Jacob in Egypt, has given us a series of very remarkable events, which need not be mentioned here, as they are universally known at this period, when very little of the history of other nations is come to hand: the improvements of mankind in the necessary arts of life were advanced to a great degree of perfection; but it should also be observed, that all the nations of the earth were far from being equal in their mental qualifications. Some of them were sunk into the abyss of ignorance and wretchedness; while others lived under civilized governments, and enjoyed all the benefits of a well-regulated society: Noah, who was acquainted with all the learning of the antediluvian patriarchs, disseminated these seeds of science among his offspring. But those who wandered far from their native residence, and were wholly em-

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ployed in providing a subsistence for themselves and families, had neither time nor inclination to cultivate the tender shoots of knowledge: these were neglected and forgotten. While others, who continued near the Plains of Shinar, and long enjoyed the counsels and directions of their great ancestor, formed themselves early into regular societies, and wisely cultivated the arts of peace.

The antediluvian patriarchs were no strangers to agriculture; they were obliged to till the ground for their subsistence; and Noah himself was no sooner settled after the flood, than he planted a vineyard, which afforded a sufficient proof that the art of husbandry had been carried to some degree of perfection. Corn was cultivated in most parts of the east; the land of Canaan, where Jacob resided, produced large quantities: it was the principal food of the inhabitants; for when an unfruitful season had diminished the harvest, we find that Jacob was obliged to send to Egypt to purchase corn for the support of his family. Nor was the art confined to the cultivation of corn; the fig, the almond, and the olive-trees were well known in Palestine; and the present which Jacob sent to his son Joseph, consisted of balm, honey, myrrh, spices, nuts, and almonds. The cultivation of the ground gave rise to commerce; an exchange of commerce being the natural consequence of improvements. The shepherd will give a part of his flock for corn; and the husbandman is willing to exchange the produce of his fields for cattle. In this manner commerce must have been carried on in its infancy: it must have attained some degree of perfection before metals were introduced as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case so early as the days of Abraham, though the money then in use had not any stamp to ascertain either its value or fineness, but was delivered by weight. As commerce increased, this method was laid aside, and the pieces of silver were marked to ascertain their true value. It appears, that in the time of Jacob a regular commerce was carried on between Egypt and Arabia. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, to whom Joseph was sold by his brethren, were merchants going into Egypt with their camels loaded with spices, balm, perfumes, and other costly merchandize. This commerce was however only carried on by land, and must be distinguished from that carried on by sea. The former was known much sooner than the latter, though in all probability navigation was not unknown even to the antediluvians.

The inhabitants of Tyre were the first people who rendered navigation subservient to commerce. Situated in a barren soil, where agriculture could be of little advantage, they wisely endeavoured to render their situation more agreeable, by cultivating the arts of peace. Commerce opened the fairest prospect, and was pursued with great attention and success. The Tyrians were famous for their commerce even in the days of Abraham; and Jacob mentioned it in his last blessing

to his children. The arts will flourish wherever commerce is cultivated; nor can it be properly carried on without some knowledge of navigation and astronomy. In these early times the mariner's compass was unknown, so that the seamen had no other guide than the heavenly bodies, whose situations, positions, and revolutions were observed in very early times; astronomy being cultivated in the reign of Belus, and the Egyptian priests were assiduous observers of the stars. Greece was indebted to Egypt for the elements of the sciences; the celebrated philosophers of that country were instructed by the Egyptian priests, from whom also Pythagoras learnt the true system of the world. The Romans were indebted to the Greeks for many of the arts relative both to peace and war; and the inhabitants of Europe owe to the Romans their politeness and refinements. The origin of the sciences, therefore, has with great propriety been ascribed to Egypt.

Sesotria was one of the most celebrated kings of Egypt: during his reign, that kingdom arrived B. C. to an amazing height of power: it was adorned with the most splendid cities, and was extremely 1839. populous. This prince is said to have been possessed of 400 sail of large ships, with which he sailed down the Red Sea, subjugating all the islands and sea-coasts, as far as India: he had also an army of 600,000 foot, 24,000 horse, and 27,000 armed chariots. He conquered Ethiopia, Phœnicia, Syria, and all the Lesser Asia; passed over into Europe, where he subdued the Scythians and Thracians as far as the river Tanais. The successors of this great prince applied themselves to cultivate the arts of peace. They succeeded; and Egypt became the most flourishing kingdom then in the world. The number of inhabitants are said to have been no less than 27 millions; it had 18,000 cities; and the buildings were amazing; some of them are still considered with astonishment, particularly the pyramids.

During this period Europe was involved in the thickest cloud of ignorance. Fierce in their nature, and barbarous in their manners, the inhabitants lived in forests and caverns of the mountains: they sometimes fell a prey to wild beasts, and sometimes to the savage brutality of one another. Such were the ancestors of the Greeks, who afterwards became the patterns of politeness, and the great masters of every elegant art. But they owed their refinement and taste to the Egyptians, who now cultivated almost every species of literature with success. Cecrops landed in Greece at the head of an Egyptian colony, B. C. and laboured with the utmost assiduity to polish 1555. the manners, and reform the savage customs of the inhabitants.

They were, before his arrival, strangers to laws: even those relating to marriage were unknown. They propagated their species like the beasts of the forest, without forming the tender connexions that subsist in families, and which even the most savage nations cultivate

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tivate and esteem. Cecrops built Athens, so called from Athene or Minerva, one of the Egyptian deities worshipped at Sais, the city from whence he came into Attica. The wise measures of Cecrops, B. C. for reforming the manners of the Greeks, were 1508. pursued by Cranaus, who succeeded him in the kingdom of Attica. The council of Areopagus, so long famous in history, was founded in the first year of his reign.

By the exertions of these wise princes to reform different parts of Greece, that country soon became celebrated for learning and the polite arts : the rough manners of the inhabitants were polished and refined by successive colonies from Egypt and Phœnicia ; the rudest people became civilized and accomplished ; and the arts, which had their birth in Asia, were cherished B. C. with the most tender care in Greece. But the number of petty states, into which the country 1522. was divided, rendered the inhabitants incapable of withstanding a powerful enemy. Amphictyon, one of those superior geniuses, who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of posterity, formed a plan for uniting all the states of Greece in one grand confederacy. His eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preservation. Two deputies from each of these cities assembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what was called the Amphictyonic council, after the name of its founder. Experience sufficiently proved how well the measures were concerted ; and Amphictyon, in order to give a greater lustre to the councils, committed to their care the temple at Delphos, with all its riches. This council was the great spring of action in Greece, while that country maintained her independence ; and it was owing to this union that all the attempts of the Persian emperors were rendered abortive.

This shoot gradually improved in a vigorous plant, and it cannot but be pleasant to observe its progress. The Athenians had no written laws ; a proper subordination had not yet been established. This was reserved for the great Solon, a man formed by nature for a lawgiver. He began with dividing the citizens into four classes, proportioned to their wealth ; the lowest were incapable of holding any public employment. They had, however, a voice in the general council of the republic, and in the assembly all affairs of importance to the state were finally determined. But lest the people should become too powerful, the senate and areopagus were provided to prevent an anarchy from taking place. The senate consisted of 400 members, each tribe of the Athenians choosing 100. In this assembly every important concern intended to be laid before the people was prepared. The areopagus was nothing more than a court of justice ; but its decrees were so equitable, and its members so remarkable for their virtue and integrity, that its power in the republic was very extensive. Such was the plan on which the great

Solon founded the republic of Athens ; and upon the same principles, with some variations, all the other states among the ancients were constituted.

Some remarkable particulars occurred in the republic of Sparta or Lacedæmon. The great Lycurgus B. C. was the legislator of the Spartans, and his laws 884. extended equally to peace and war. In order to insure the youth of Lacedæmon to hardship, all kinds of luxury, all the arts of elegance or entertainment, in short, every thing that had the least tendency to soften the mind, and relax the nerves, was absolutely proscribed at Sparta. The use of money was forbidden ; they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare ; the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years ; and all ranks, capable of bearing arms, were daily accustom'd to the most painful exercises. Hence it happened, that war, which to all other nations became very fatiguing, was to the Spartans rather a relaxation than a hardship, and the behaviour of their troops was astonishing, and accompanied with a firmness and courage that was almost beyond conception or belief.

Let us now cast our eyes on Asia, and observe the events which happened in those empires of which we have long lost sight. Cyrus, the Persian, founded B. C. a new empire on the ruins of those of Babylon 536. and Assyria. He was one of the greatest princes that ever swayed an eastern sceptre, and extended his empire over the greater part of Asia. The æra of this prince is extremely remarkable, since, besides delivering the Jews from their captivity, the history of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be supposed to finish. During the reign of Cyrus, the Persians were a brave and warlike people, but luxury soon found its way into that country, effeminacy succeeded, and the Persians, who, under Cyrus, were almost invincible, were afterwards unable to face a handful of men, from the petty states of Greece. Mad with ambition, and the lust of universal empire, Darius led a numerous army into Greece. B. C. But the Persians had forgot to conquer. His army 520. consisted of no less than 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. This prodigious army was met in the plains of Marathon, by Miltiades, at the head of 10,000 Athenians ; and with this small army the Persians were put to flight. So great is the difference between an army enervated by luxury and depressed by tyranny, and forces animated by freedom and strengthened by virtue. Exasperated at the defeat of his father, Xerxes at the head of 2,100,000 men, entered Greece ; but B. C. he shared the same fate with Darius. He was 484. every where defeated both by sea and land ; reduced to the utmost extremity, and at last 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 round for happiness in vain.

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The limits we are confined to, will not suffer us to pursue the Persian history through its different periods; it will therefore be sufficient to observe, that though the Persian monarchs were masters of Asia and Egypt, yet as often as they carried their arms either against the Scythians or the Greeks, they were not only defeated, but found the utmost difficulty to defend themselves in Asia against the attempts of the latter, flushed with victory. The succeeding kings therefore, grown wise by the misfortunes of Darius and Xerxes, avoided an open war with the Greeks, contenting themselves with artfully fomenting dissensions among the Grecian states, and breaking their strength by assisting the weak against the powerful. Darius Codomanus, either B. C. 331: ignorant of this political stratagem, or disdainful to put it in practice, drew the whole power of Greece upon him; and an end was soon after put to the Persian empire by Alexander the Great, at the head of his Macedonian army.

The Persians were never remarkable for learning and the arts. Like the other inhabitants of the East, they were fond of the sublime. Their architecture was grand and noble. Their statues were gigantic, but proportion was often wanting, and the delicacy which the Greek sculptors afterwards gave to their works was unknown. The literati were divided into two sects, the Sabæans and the Magi. The former worshipped idols; maintained that the stars were gods, among whom the sun was chief, because he governed both the heaven and the earth. The Magi, on the contrary, rejected the worship of images, and adored the sun under the form of fire, as the supreme deity. Zoroaster, who flourished in the reign of Darius Hystaspes, reformed the religion of the Magi, rendering it more sublime and pure. He was so successful, that most of the nobles, and even the kings of Persia, embraced his tenets; and the Sabæan religion was but little regarded. The principal science cultivated in the Persian empire was astronomy; but they never carried it to any great degree of perfection. They were more assiduous in studying the ridiculous reveries of astrology, than in labouring to explain the phenomena of the universe. They were well acquainted with the face of the heavens, but never applied themselves to investigate the laws by which the motions of the heavenly bodies were regulated. Their philosophy was an absurd jargon of loose irregular thoughts, without the least foundation in nature. They were strangers to experiments, and never attempted to deduce causes from their effects.

While the Greeks continued to cultivate the virtuous principles they received from their great legislators, they were invincible; but their victories over the Persians rendered them proud and haughty; they quarrelled with one another, and weakened themselves by intestine division. Philip of Macedon (a country till this time little known, and less regarded) observed these commotions between the states of Greece, and, becoming important and powerful, resolved to turn them

to his own advantage. He artfully fomented their divisions; and when he had sufficiently exasperated them against each other, he became absolute master of Greece by the battle of Cheronææ. The Grecian states, having lost that virtue which formed the basis of their confederacy, would have fallen without a battle. The eloquence of Demosthenes was exerted in vain; his immortal Philippic had no power to inspire a people, already immersed in corruption and licentiousness, to a sense of their danger; they preferred luxury to virtue, and, dreading the chains of slavery less than a noble and timely exertion of their powers in the cause of liberty, they became an easy prey to the seductive arts of their insidious and aspiring foe.

The ambition of Philip, however, was not satisfied with the conquest of his country; he proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire far beyond the narrow limits of Greece. Accordingly, he made prodigious preparations for carrying on his designs against Persia; but died before they were completed. His son Alexander, who succeeded him on the throne, having no enemy to fear in Europe, passed into Asia at the head of 3000 foot and 5000 horse. With this handful of men, he conquered the whole force of Darius in three pitched battles, and overthrew the Persian empire: he afterwards penetrated into India, and reduced nations whose very name were then unknown in Europe. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon in the flower of his age. His captains, preferring power to virtue, and riches to gratitude, sacrificed all the family of their master, and divided his conquests among themselves. But this was not effected without violent struggles and dissensions; and while discord reigned among the Grecian leaders, the Parthians made themselves masters of the countries to the east of the Euphrates, and laid the foundations of a kingdom which at length became very powerful.

Alexander's empire was divided into four kingdoms: the Macedonian, the Asiatic, the Syrian, and the Egyptian. The Macedonian kingdom, which fell to the lot of Antipater, continued about 154 years; during which interval, ten successive princes swayed the sceptre. Perseus, the last Macedonian king, was totally defeated by Emilius, carried to Rome in triumph, and died in prison; and the kingdom was reduced to a Roman province. The Asiatic kingdom, which fell to Antigonus, comprehended that country now called Natolia, together with some districts beyond Mount Taurus. This kingdom was afterwards divided into three parts, namely, the kingdom of Pergamus, the kingdom of Pontus, and the kingdom of Armenia. Attilus, the last king of Pergamus, appointed the Roman people his heir; and accordingly at his death, that country became part of the Roman dominions. The kingdom of Pontus continued in a very flourishing state till the reign of Mithridates, who carried

on an obstinate war with the Romans twenty-six years. He was defeated by Sylla and Lucullus; but still supported his independence, till he was totally vanquished by Pompey, who annexed his kingdom to the Roman state. The kingdom of Armenia fell with that of Pontus. Tigranes, the last monarch, who joined Mithridates against the Romans, was, with that prince, defeated by Pompey, and left his kingdom to the conqueror.

Seleucus Nicanor obtained the Syrian kingdom; his successors were called Seleucidae, who long held the sceptre with honour. After the extinction of that family, the throne was filled by Antiochus Deus, Antiochus the Great, Antiochus Epiphanes, and Tigranes. The last governed both Syria and Armenia; but being conquered by the Romans under Pompey, both kingdoms were reduced to the form of a Roman province.

The throne of Egypt was usurped by Ptolemy Lagus, one of Alexander's generals; and from him all his successors were called Ptolemies. That kingdom flourished under twelve princes for near 240 years. Among these, Ptolemy Philadelphus was the most famous. To him we owe the Septuagint translation of the scriptures. He founded the celebrated Alexandrine library, which consisted of near 700,000 volumes. He was remarkable for encouraging the arts. The literati flocked to the city of Alexandria as to the seat of the muses. The celebrated Cleopatra was the last who swayed the sceptre of Egypt. She was vanquished by Augustus, and Egypt underwent the same fate of the other kingdoms; it was added to the dominions of the Romans.

Greece, particularly Athens, produced, during this period, every thing great in the arts. The very names of illustrious men who flourished there in that age of literature, would be sufficient to fill a moderate volume. All the improvements made by other nations formed only the dawn of that glorious day which now shone in its meridian splendor. The Egyptians, and many of the Oriental nations, had raised structures, celebrated at once for their magnificence and magnitude; but it was the Greeks who first added proportion to greatness, and elegance to grandeur: the orders of architecture had their birth in Greece. The pieces of sculpture executed by Phidias, Polyclethus, Myron, Lysippus, Praxiteles, and Scopas, have rendered their names immortal. Apollodorus, Zeuxis, Parrhasius, Pamphilus, Timanthes, Apelles, Aristides, and Protagenes, displayed the power of the pencil, and made the world acquainted with the magic of painting. The art of composition was carried to the highest point of perfection. Homer, Eschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, reached the true sublime in poetry. Prosaic writings acquired elegance and simplicity from the pen of Herodotus: Xenophon and Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was reserved for Thucydides and Demosthenes to display the full force of the Greek language.

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Nor were the studies of the Greeks confined to the polite arts, the more severe exercises of mathematics and philosophy were cultivated with success. The names of Pythagoras, Euclid, and Archimedes, are sufficiently known. The three scholars of the great Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of thought, and propriety of expression, be compared with the writers of any age or nation. It must however be confessed, that the Greeks were much better writers than philosophers. For though the operations of reason are prior to the first efforts of the imagination; yet the imagination when once at work proceeds much faster. It has the advantage of acting upon objects of its own creation; whereas reasoning being confined to the objects before it, is obliged to stop at every step, and often exhausts all its powers in fruitless researches. The universe and reflection are the most useful books of philosophers, and those were studied by the Greeks; but not taking experiments for their guide, they wandered into the regions of deception, and exhausted in subtle disputes that lively and penetrating genius which, if properly employed, would have enabled them to withdraw the veil from nature, discover the laws which regulate the universe, and form a system of morals for the general benefit of mankind. The statesmen and warriors of Greece were equally famous with those who applied their talents to the cultivation of the arts. The love of their country was deeply engraven on their minds, and rendered them superior to labour and fatigue. Their military virtue was eminently displayed in their wars against the Persians; of which the cause were the wife laws which Amphiarion, Solon, and Lycurgus had established among them.

Leaving this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable, we shall next turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are still more interesting, as well on their own account, as from the relation in which they stand to those of modern Europe. Romulus, the founder of the Roman state, was of a very martial disposition; and the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts, afforded a noble field for the display of his military talents. 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 enrich themselves, but even to subsist: yet they never blended cruelty with their conquests; the people they subdued were not extirpated. Romulus established a maxim which afterwards rendered his successors masters of the world; he united the nations he conquered to the Roman state. By this prudent conduct he became stronger by every victory; and the number of his subjects was increased by every addition to his territories: he took care at the same time not to oppress the people he had conquered. He changed indeed the form of their government, but he

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never

never imposed on them the yoke of slavery; they became members of a free state, and enjoyed all the privileges of his own people. The military discipline of his people always engaged the attention of Romulus; and he endeavoured to improve it by the experience of all the nations with whom he was at war. Whatever weapon, whatever motion, whatever stratagem he saw in use, or practised by the enemy, which was preferable to his own, he immediately adopted, and thought it no disgrace to learn wisdom and improvement from those he had conquered.

Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. Being himself no stranger to the art of government, he was sensible that no state could flourish without laws, and a proper subordination; that liberty without restraint would degenerate into anarchy; and that power without being nicely balanced, would terminate in tyranny. He was therefore desirous of securing liberty without licentiousness, and of placing the legislative power where it might not be abused to the prejudice of his subjects. Accordingly he instituted what was called the senate, a court originally composed of 100 persons, distinguished for their wisdom and virtue. He enacted laws for the administration of

B. C. justice, and for bridling the ferocious manners and passions of his followers. Under these institutions his infant state flourished in a most surprising manner: but gratitude was not one of the virtues of the first court of legislature; for Romulus, after a long reign spent in promoting the civil or military interests of his country, fell a victim to the treachery of the senate he had so lately founded, being, as it is thought, privately assassinated by some of its members.

Numa Pompilius, his successor, chiefly applied himself to cultivate the arts of peace; he instituted the religious ceremonies of the Romans, inspired the people with the highest veneration for an oath, which may be considered as the soul of military discipline; and added two months to the year, in order to render it more conformable to the course of the sun. Tullius Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, and Servius Tullius, the successors of Numa, laboured assiduously to promote the prosperity, and extend the power of Rome. But Tarquin the Proud, who murdered Servius Tullius, his father-in-law, and seized upon the throne, followed not the steps of his predecessors; he became a very cruel and infamous tyrant. He trampled on the laws of justice, and seemed pleased with the oppressions he heaped upon the people. He was at once the terror and detestation of Rome. The insolence of his son **B. C.** Sextus Tarquinius hastened his fate. He violated the chastity of Lucretia, a Roman lady, 510. and by that flagitious act affronted the whole nation. Tarquin was hurled from the throne, and his whole family expelled from Rome. This violent convulsion put a period to the regal government.

There was a necessity for a power equal to that pos-

sessed by their kings to resist (for where) they they placed in two consuls; who were nothing more than annual magistrates, though they enjoyed a sovereign authority. This form of government was wisely calculated to promote the grandeur of the Roman state. The short time allotted for the exercise of the consular power, animated them with a desire of signalizing their reign with some remarkable action; each laboured to eclipse the achievements of his predecessor; and the troops were continually led against some new enemy. It however required a considerable length of time before the Romans could make themselves masters of Italy, and they were more than once reduced to the brink of ruin, notwithstanding they were animated to deeds of valour by every motive that had a tendency to rouse the slothful, or inspire the brave. The citizens of Rome were all soldiers, who fought for their estates, their children, and their liberties. They all studied the **B. C.** art of war, and were all deeply interested in the 264. fate of every battle. Those who turned their backs upon an enemy were branded with ignominy; while any who saved the life of a citizen, received a civic crown.

But the petty princes of Italy were far from being the only enemies the Romans had to contend with. They were opposed in their ambitious schemes of empire by foreign states, who more than once reduced them to the brink of ruin. Among these the republic of Carthage was the most powerful. This republic was in the zenith of its glory when Rome had hardly any territories. Carthage was celebrated for her commerce and riches; she had extended her trade and the terror of her arms over the greater parts of Europe and Africa that were then known. The islands of Sardinia and Corsica were both in her possession, and she had planted powerful colonies in Spain. She reigned the undisputed mistress of the sea, and threatened all the neighbouring nations with the yoke of slavery.

The growing power of Carthage was beheld with a jealous eye by the Romans, who feared for their conquest. A war ensued between the two **B. C.** states, and for some time the advantage was 262. greatly on the side of Carthage; and had not luxury before found its way into that republic, Rome would have been no more. Fond of ease, and tenacious of power, the Carthaginians employed mercenaries to carry on their wars; while the armies of Rome were composed of citizens: the one served for pay only; the other fought for all that was dear to them. The Romans were convinced by the first war, which lasted twenty years, that Carthage could not be conquered while she remained mistress of the sea: her commerce must supply her with every necessary, and her **B. C.** fleet could at any time transport an army into 259. Italy, and land them on any part of the coast. A Carthaginian vessel, which was wrecked on the territories of the Romans, served that assiduous people as a model. A fleet was soon fitted out; and the consul

Dulcius,

Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. The Carthaginians were now roused from their slumber of security; they feared for their commerce, the true source of their peace, and the sinews of war. They began to tremble in their turn; and such was the spirit which then animated the Romans against their enemies, that Regulus, their general, being taken prisoner in Africa, 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 a certain death, which, with the fortitude and magnanimity of a true patriot, he accordingly submitted to.

Though corruption had at this time widely diffused itself in Carthage, yet she was not altogether deficient in great men; among whom Hannibal was the most celebrated. An eternal antipathy to Rome had been instilled into his breast while an infant. His father Hamilcar, one of the great generals that had raised Carthage to her present state of power, took his son when a child, to the temple of Jupiter, where having ordered a solemn sacrifice to be offered up to that deity, he led his son to the altar, and asked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition against the Romans? The courageous boy not only consented to go, but conjured his father, by the gods present, to form him to victory, and instruct him in the art of conquering. To this Hamilcar joyfully consented, and caused him to swear upon the altar to be an irreconcilable enemy to the Romans.

Hannibal being, at 25 years of age, appointed general of the Carthaginian forces, determined to attack his enemies in the very heart of their country. He crossed the Ebro, the Rhone, and the Alps, and in a moment descended like a torrent upon Italy. The Romans now trembled for their capital. Scipio advanced to meet the Carthaginian general, and defeated. Hannibal pursued his victory, crossed the Po, and encamped at Placentia. The Roman consul appeared at the head of his army. Hannibal offered him battle, which he thought proper to decline. Terrified at the expedition of Hannibal's pursuit, and the ardour of the Carthaginian troops, he abandoned his fortified camp, crossed the Trebia, and posted himself on an eminence near that river. Hannibal followed him, and encamped in the sight of the Romans on an opposite bank. A battle ensued, and the Romans were again defeated. Hannibal now crossed the Appenines, passed into Etruria, and laid waste great part of that fertile country. Provoked at the rapid progress of the Carthaginian general, Flaminius, one of the Roman consuls, imprudently advanced to give him battle. The two armies met in a large field near the lake of Trasymene, and the Romans were a third time defeated. These repeated misfortunes filled the city of Rome with terror and astonishment. The inhabitants expected Hannibal would shortly visit their city: even the

aged flew to arms, and appeared on the battlements with the weapons taken from their enemies in former wars, and which had long been hung up as trophies in their temples.

Hannibal, instead of marching directly to Rome, imprudently moved towards the territory of Adria. The allies of Rome were alarmed. Sicily sides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declares against the Romans, and almost all Italy abandons them. In this extremity Rome owes its preservation to the courage and conduct of three great men; among whom, Fabius Maximus was the first who contributed in a great measure to save Rome from destruction. He was chosen dictator in this alarming crisis, and led his troops against the Carthaginian general. Hannibal did every thing in his power to bring the dictator to a decisive engagement; but Fabius constantly declined the offer. Stratagems were used in vain: the Roman saw the snare, and carefully avoided it. He cut off the foraging parties of the Carthaginians; and perpetually harassed them in their march; the army of Hannibal was in danger of being destroyed without a battle. The recall of Fabius saved them from inevitable ruin. The new consuls Varro and Paulus wanted the abilities of Fabius; they determined to bring on a decisive engagement with the enemy. The two armies met in a large plain near the village of Cannæ. A dreadful battle ensued, in which the Romans were totally defeated. This was the greatest blow that people ever received; above forty-five thousand Romans, were left dead on the field of battle; and among them such a number of knights that Hannibal is said to have sent three bushels of their rings to Carthage.

Notwithstanding these misfortunes, Rome had still resources. The young Scipio revived the drooping courage of his country. Though then only twenty-four years of age, he led a powerful army into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives. But Scipio was not to be intimidated. He invested New Carthage, and took the city at the first assault. From Spain he passed into Africa, where the most powerful kings submitted to his arms. Carthage trembled in her turn, and saw with terror her armies defeated. Hannibal was recalled to defend his country; his conquests in Italy were abandoned, and the defence of Carthage was now the great object of that republic. But victory had now forsaken the standards of Hannibal. His forces were defeated: Carthage became tributary to Rome; and after the destruction of that powerful state, the Romans obtained victories with much less difficulty; there was no power able to contend for any length of time with their victorious armies.

The states of Greece, who had once more recovered their liberty, fell an easy prey to the Romans. Antiochus the Great sent an army to their assistance; but they were easily defeated; and

Antiochus

Antiochus himself was obliged to submit to an infamous treaty. But still the Romans pursued the maxims of Romulus, their great ancestor. They permitted the ancient inhabitants to possess their country, and respective estates: they did not even change the form of their government, and the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people. They were however the most abject slaves, under the specious title of allies. Mithridates, king of Pontus, was not indeed so easily reduced. He had great resources. His people were strong and vigorous, inured to hardships and fatigue. Fond of liberty, and true lovers of their country, they for many years supported themselves against the veteran armies of Rome. But continual wars depopulated their country: defeat succeeded defeat, till at last Mithridates in a decisive battle with Pompey, lost at once his kingdom and his life.

In Africa the wars were bloody and of long continuance. Marius, one of the greatest generals of Rome, at last, by conquering Jugurtha, put an end to the quarrels that had long wasted that country: Numidia was reduced under the Roman yoke. The southern parts being thus conquered, Marius led his victorious legions towards the north. He crossed the Alps, and was fortunate in every attempt. The barbarous nations fled before him, and sought refuge in their forests and bogs. The Roman standards were displayed in the kingdoms of the Gauls, the Cimbri, the Teutones, and other barbarous nations beyond the Alps.

While Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an internal war within her walls. After the expulsion of her kings, Rome enjoyed but a partial liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were distinguished by the name of Patricians, were invested with so many disgusting privileges, that the people felt for their dependence, and were determined to shake off the yoke. They plainly perceived there was no other method of healing the wounds of the republic, but by committing the supreme power to the care of a single person. Dictators were therefore created, and intrusted with the royal power: but as soon as the time of office expired, the alarming convulsions of the state returned. Before the Romans were acquainted with the luxuries of foreign nations; before the tide of conquest had rendered them haughty, and the wealth of Asia, insolent; these struggles were never carried to extremities: but when the delicacies of foreign nations had banished frugality, and a deluge of corruption had swept virtue from the state, Rome became a prey to her own children. The love of their country was now to the Romans little more than a specious name; the better sort were too wealthy and effeminate to submit to the rigours of military discipline; the army was now no longer a band of citizens, the legions were composed of the refuse of the people. The soldiers recognized no other power than that of their general: under his banners they con-

quered, and for him they were always ready to sacrifice their lives: he might, whenever he pleased, lead them against the senate, nobles, or people. But the federal armies, required to be kept on foot for securing the numerous conquests, retarded the subversion of the republic. Jealousy, together with a desire to preserve their own independence, prompted them to watch the conduct of each other with the most assiduous attention. Marius would have been master of Rome, had not the soldiers of Sylla defeated his ambitious designs; but at length a general appeared, whose actions eclipsed the glory of all his cotemporaries.

Julius Cæsar, who planted the Roman eagles in Gaul, had nothing left to conquer but his country. Fired with the ambition of becoming master of the world, Cæsar passed the Rubicon, and sat down in the capitol of Rome. Pompey, the only general capable of opposing the conqueror of Gaul, was defeated at Pharsalia; and with him fell the liberty of the Roman state. The senate was no more; its shadow only subsisted; the power remained with Julius Cæsar. Rome received him as her master, and all the conquered nations laid their sceptres at his feet.

But the love of liberty still subsisted in the breasts of some of the citizens of Rome. Brutus and Cassius undertook to free their country from the power of a tyrant. Cæsar was stabbed in the senate-house, and the patriots took up arms in defence of their liberties. But they gained not over to their interest the legions who had learned to conquer under the banners of Cæsar. Their army was defeated at Philippi, and three tyrants triumphed at Rome. These wanted both the clemency and abilities of Cæsar; they rivalled him only in ambition. A triumvirate of dictators could not long subsist. Mark Antony, who alone had any pretensions to the military talents of Cæsar, was soon enervated by the pleasures of the Egyptian court; he preferred the charms of Cleopatra to the glories of conquest; and suffered Octavius, at the battle of Actium, to wrest from his hand the sceptre of the world.

At this period, Rome had no patriots left to support her falling liberties: some fell at the battle of Philippi, and the rest by the bloody proscription of the tyrannical triumvirate. Octavius, under the name of Augustus, took the title of emperor, and sat down unmolested on the throne of Cæsar. These distractions of the empire had no effect on the military discipline of the Roman legions; they were the undisputed masters of the world, when Rome was without a chief. And no sooner was Augustus established on the throne, than ambassadors from all parts of the known world crowded to pay him homage, or court his friendship. Deputies from the burning sands of Africa, the soft luxuriant plains of Asia, and the frozen regions of the North of Europe, met at Rome to proclaim Augustus emperor of the world. The tumults of war ceased in every kingdom;

kingdom; the sword of desolation was sheathed, and harmony succeeded to the discord of nations. Augustus shut the temple of Janus, and the Saviour of the world, the Prince of peace, was born.

Let us now, before we proceed to the history of the emperors that succeeded Augustus, consider the state of learning and the arts in this period of Roman greatness. In the infancy of the republic, and even long after the consular government was established, learning and the arts made very little progress at Rome. Agriculture and the cultivation of arms principally engaged their attention. An adequate idea may be formed of the little value they placed upon works of art by the edict of Mummius, who, having destroyed the city of Corinth, ordered the pictures painted by the most eminent artists of Greece to be carried to Rome, with this remarkable caution, that if any were lost in the passage, they should be obliged to make up the number. Nor were the sciences in more request at Rome. In the time of Cato the elder, some of the ablest philosophers of Greece coming to Rome, he ordered them to depart the city, lest the minds of the youth should be enervated by philosophy, and rendered too fast for military achievements. For a long series of years there were no written laws at Rome; those of Solon, brought from Greece, were the first that were known in that city. They were generally called the laws of the twelve tables, because they were written in twelve departments: they were afterwards corrected by various decrees of the senate, orders of the people, and edicts of the prætors; and in them was contained the civil law of the Romans.

After the downfall of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to fear from abroad, began to taste the sweets of security, and to cultivate the arts of peace. The curious remains of the Grecian magnificence, which were sent to Rome, inspired them with a desire of imitating the perfect models of the Greek artists. Whatever was elegant, curious, and beautiful, might be consulted without trouble or expence. But the Romans, though undoubtedly great artists, never equally finished the works of their masters. Eloquence had been long studied in Rome; but it did not reach its greatest height till Cicero appeared; but his orations are inferior to those of Demosthenes. Cicero gave to eloquence all the graces of which it is susceptible, without learning its solidity and gravity. He gave cadence and harmony to the Roman language, and enriched it with beauties before unknown: he was to Rome what Demosthenes had been to Greece, the glory of his country; they both carried eloquence to the highest perfection it ever attained.

The poetry of Virgil is equal to any thing produced by the Greeks, except the Iliad of Homer. Like the prose of Demosthenes, the verses of Virgil are inimitable. Horace, in his satires and epistles, had no model among the Greeks, and stands to this day unrivalled in that species of writing. Rome abounded in his-

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torians; among whom, Livy possesses all the natural ease of Herodotus, and is more descriptive, more eloquent, and sentimental. Sallust is generally ranked with Thucydides, and some have not scrupled to consider him as the most excellent historian of antiquity. Tacitus did not flourish in the Augustan age; but he has acquired the greatest honour by his works, while they reflect ignominy on his country and human nature, whose corruption and vices he paints in the most striking colours. To write the life of Tiberius required the genius of Tacitus, who could unravel all the intrigues of the cabinet, assign the real causes of events, and withdraw the veil of deception, which concealed from the eyes of the public the real motives and springs of action.

The Romans never applied themselves greatly to philosophy. Lucretius, who delivered, in spirited versification, the opinions of Epicurus, is the only philosopher, except Cicero, whose writings have reached our times: a close and assiduous search into the operations of nature, was not perhaps agreeable to the genius of the Romans. In tragedy as comedy, the Romans never produced any thing that can bear the least comparison with the writers of Greece. The tragic poets hardly deserve to be mentioned. Plautus and Terence are justly placed at the head of the comic poets of Rome; but neither were possessed of the vis comica, or lively vein of humour, which is essential to comedy, and which distinguishes the writings of the comic poets of Greece.

We are now arrived at an æra which presents us with a set of monsters, under the name of emperors, who filled the throne of the Cæsars, and whose histories, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. The government of Rome soon degenerated into the most despotic tyranny: a people long celebrated for their liberty, were now reduced to the most abject state of slavery. The army was in reality the sovereign of Rome: and while the emperors inflicted the most inhuman cruelties on their subjects, they themselves trembled at the power of the legions: the emperors were at once the tyrants of the people and the slaves of the army. To keep the turbulent legions (who too well knew their own power) employed, they were led against the barbarous nations beyond the Alps. The Germans, the Britons, and other nations of the North, were subdued; and the Roman arts and learning were introduced among the nations of distant countries. But this required abilities and perseverance. Fond of their liberties, and strangers to every thing but the necessities of life, the ferocious inhabitants of the North long defended themselves against the power of Rome. In their struggles for liberty, their countries were laid waste, and famine assisted the Romans to plant their eagles in the countries inhabited by a barbarous people. Many kingdoms were depopulated; and the Romans marched to conquest through the blood of an innocent people, whose only crime was a love for their country: but conquest, which

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raised

raised the Roman power to the summit of glory, proved at last its destruction. Its boundaries were extended to so enormous a distance, that the springs which gave motion to the political machine of government, lost their force.

The northern tribes of barbarians who had been increased by the inhabitants of more southern climes, driven from their country by the Roman legions, multiplied in so rapid a manner, that the barren mountains of the North could not afford them subsistence. They returned in colonies towards the south, in search of a more fruitful soil. The soft, delicious climate of Italy excited their desires; they poured like a torrent from the Alps into the plains, sweeping all before them. They pursued a very different maxim from the Romans: they sought for a settlement, and therefore extirpated the inhabitants. The most dreadful scene of blood and slaughter marked the route of the barbarians. Before them the country exhibited the most lovely prospect, smiling in all the beauties of nature, populous, and full of cities and villages; behind them, smoking deserts, without inhabitants, and without a farm. The sword of destruction was drawn, and the barbarians severely retaliated on the Romans the miseries their conquering legions had carried into other climes. Perhaps a more dismal scene was never exhibited since the earth was peopled: cotemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, are at a loss for expressions by which to describe the horror of it: the Scourge of God, the Destroyer of Nations, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders, who spared neither age, sex, nor rank; all were swept away by those cruel invaders, and fell together in one undistinguished carnage; even Rome itself fell a victim to barbarity and fury. These calamities beset the Roman empire between A. D. 395 and 571, when the establishment of the Lombards in Italy commenced.

A. D. 328. Constantine, the emperor, who had embraced Christianity, transferred the seat of the empire from Rome to Constantinople. By this impolitic measure, the western and eastern provinces were separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The former was styled the western, and the latter the eastern empire. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the east, threw down the barriers of the western empire, and laid it open to the northern invaders, who laid all the glories of the empire, vainly deemed immortal, in the dust. The ancient military discipline of the Romans was so efficacious, that it must have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon

one favourite dish. The tyranny and deplorable licentiousness of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or Cæsars, as they are called, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations who overcame them. With respect to the eastern empire, that stood firm, and for a considerable time defied all the attacks of the northern invaders; but at length the followers of Mahomet effected what the Goths and Vandals had attempted in vain: they reduced the whole empire, and the family of the Othmans filled the throne of Constantine.

A dreadful revolution in the republic of letters succeeded this change of inhabitants. A tedious night of Gothic barbarity overpread the countries once famous for their learning. The arts and sciences were forgotten; they seemed to be buried under the ruins of the empire. The schools and academies were levelled in the dust, the libraries burnt, and literature considered as pernicious to society. Error usurped the place of truth, and superstition was placed upon the throne of wisdom. Many of the clergy did not understand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; some of them could scarcely read it: in short, the human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. Charlemagne, indeed, in the ninth century, made a noble attempt to dispel this cloud of Gothic barbarity; and Alfred the Great, in England, followed his worthy example; but all the endeavours of these princes were in vain: for the brutishness of the age was too powerful for the efforts and institutions of these champions of literature: so that the veil of darkness was again drawn over Europe, and ignorance resumed her sceptre.

Learning being thus driven from her favourite seat, took refuge in the plains of Arabia. The Mahometan princes grew polite in proportion as they grew powerful. The califs of Babylon, after a series of successful wars, spent their time in security, and revived the arts. The muses for a time fixed their seat on the banks of the Euphrates. Aaron Rachild was more respected than any of his predecessors, and was obeyed from Spain to the Indies. This prince revived the sciences, and cultivated the polite arts. The learned from all parts resorted to his court, where they were at once caressed and rewarded. Barbarism was banished from his extensive dominions, and her place supplied by politeness. Under his government the Arabians, who had before adopted the Indian method of computation by the nine figures and a cypher, brought the improvement into Europe. From them the Europeans learned the course of the stars, and the nature of eclipses. Benhoinai, the astronomer, translated the *Almagest* of Ptolemy from the Greek into Arabic; and made several astronomical observations, then of great importance. The calif Almamon caused a degree of the meridian to be measured, in order to determine the magnitude of the earth, above seven centuries before any thing of that kind was attempted in Europe.

Avicenna

Avicenna and Averroes, two celebrated physicians, translated the works of Aristotle into Arabic, when they were utterly unknown on this side of the Mediterranean. They cultivated physic and chemistry with great alacrity and success: the latter may be said to have been invented by the Arabians. The Christians were then instructed by the Mahometans.

A new species of government, now known by the name of the Feudal System, was introduced by the northern barbarians, who destroyed the Roman empire. The confederacies entered into by the inhabitants of the North, were rather military than civil, under different leaders, to whom they were strongly attached. When they established themselves in the empire, their chiefs distributed to the principal officers, under the burden of military service, a proportion of the conquered territories; and these made a new partition among their soldiers under the same tenure. These fiefs were substituted for pay, and were not considered as the property of their possessors. They were originally revokable at the pleasure of the grantor; but an attachment, which is naturally contracted for land, introducing the idea of property, the nature of these grants was insensibly altered; men were averse to relinquishing lands they had for some time cultivated, and for which they had acquired an affection. These fiefs were accordingly first changed into possessions for life, and afterwards became hereditary. The imprudence or weakness of sovereigns allowed themselves to be deprived of their territories. Their vassals rose in independence; and their subjects, who received protection from these, became more attached to them than to their sovereigns. A multitude of inferior vassals constituted a formidable body under the great tenants of the crown; and the advantages of this association were so great, that fiefs were considered as preferable to free possessions. Those, therefore, who were possessed of free lands, resigned them, either to the prince, or some powerful noble, in order to receive them back in the form of fiefs. The earls who administered justice (for the civil was not yet separated from the military power) finding their advantage in the fines and pecuniary emoluments resulting to them as judges, found means to render the judicial power hereditary in their families. Thus the official power of the magistrates was in a manner converted into fiefs, and the crown was weakened by new encroachments on its prerogatives. The sovereign, however, was still considered as the head of this vast fabric of political subordination. Obligated to protect his vassals, he had a title to demand their assistance, both for his own defence, and for that of the state. He summoned them to his court; and although their advice and concurrence was absolutely necessary in all matters of moment, yet their attendance, in consequence of his call, which, in one point of view, was a principal privilege, was, in another, considered as a burden, and a mark of their dependence. The inferior vassals were bound

to perform the same duties to the great barons, which these performed to the king; and thus a kingdom was considered as a great barony, and a barony as a small kingdom. It was the natural ambition of every baron to render his authority as independent of the crown as possible, and to acquire new force and authority over his particular vassals. The natural consequences of these Gothic institutions were jealousies, wars, and oppressions without number. The great baron took the advantage of granting his vassals the perpetual assistance they wanted, to acquire a despotic power over them. The manufacturer, and lower classes of men, languished under the most insupportable servitude; for valour and military qualities were then alone regarded.

An aristocracy, the most cruel mode of government, now prevailed, and stifled every principle of equity and of nature. The people perceived that they ought to exchange the dominion of several masters, for the limited administration of a single person. The European monarchs perceived the encroachment of the nobles, and the dreadful servitude of the subject. They saw the people were nothing better than slaves; and determined to support them against the tyranny of the barons. They declared, that as all men were born free, they should enjoy that liberty in reality as well as in name. But to effect this noble design, it was necessary to erect some intermediate power to counterbalance that of the barons, who enslaved the people, and aspired to give laws to the crown. A plan was therefore adopted, which fully answered the design. New privileges were conferred on towns, in consequence of which they became at once populous and rich. All marks of servitude were abolished; they were formed into bodies corporate, and governed by magistrates and a council, chosen by themselves. The very dawn of liberty roused all the powers of the human mind into action. A spirit of industry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and was cultivated with success by many of the powers of Europe. The invention of the mariner's compass greatly facilitated the communication between one nation and another, and consequently opened new sources of commerce.

The cities of Alexandria and Constantinople had long carried on a very considerable trade with Indostan; the precious commodities of India were not unknown in Europe. The Crusades, which robbed Europe of her inhabitants, were the cause of opening a trade between the states of Italy and the East. Venice became very powerful by her commerce: she for some time engrossed the commodities of India, and dispersed them all over Europe. The Genoese, by sending provisions to the crusaders along the coast of Asia Minor, became rich and powerful; at the same time they gained some knowledge of the Indian trade, which had been the great source of wealth to the Venetians. They opened a communication with the East, and became sharers in

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the advantageous commerce of Indostan. By the riches they drew from this source, these two rival states became formidable to all the powers of Europe. At last the Portuguese discovered a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, and wholly engrossed the trade of the eastern parts of Asia. Delirious of continuing to his country some part of the eastern commerce, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, proposed sailing to India by a western course. This offer, however, was rejected at Genoa, and Spain reaped the benefit of his discoveries. He failed in quest of the Indies, but he found a new world. Spain became mistress of a larger empire than that of Rome in the height of her glory.

The inhabitants of Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness in which they had been involved since the subversion of the Roman empire, a space of near twelve centuries. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts and sciences, history and philosophy, and, lastly the happy reformation of religion, all distinguish the 15th and 16th centuries as the first æra of modern history. The political principles and maxims then established, still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced; or rendered general, still influence, in some degree, the councils of European nations, and happily concur in securing the different empires from the encroachments of their ambitious neighbours, who, in contending for universal monarchy, cannot fail to weaken their own force, and may at length render themselves incapable of defending their just possessions.

The partial conquests aspiring monarchs may make, will rather tend to oppose, than promote their designs. A prince may form a deliberate plan of destroying, by slow degrees, the rights of his subjects, and his successor may follow his example; but external conquests are always less solid than brilliant, and commonly occasion more fear than hurt. The aspiring prince, who, has unfortunately been a conqueror, is commonly reduced in the end to the last extremities by the alarms his conquests excite, and the confederacies they give occasion to. How contrary soever this doctrine may be to the prejudices and views of a victorious and powerful nation, it is nevertheless well established in the science of politics, and has been confirmed by experience and examples both ancient and modern.

The truth of the above assertion will appear in a great variety of lights, if we take a retrospective view of the conduct of the Grecian states when delivered from the terror of the Persian invasions. The most inconsiderable of these little societies imbibed the frenzy of conquest, and by this frenzy was reduced, in its turn, to the utmost misery and distress; a full illustration of this subject, the reader will find in Isocrates's Oration on the Peace. If there be occasion to mention modern examples, France affords a very striking one. The humiliating circumstances that ambitious monarch Louis XIV. was reduced to, are well known, the cause of which himself lamented on his death-bed; and the

nerves of that kingdom have been since strained so far beyond their strength, by an unbounded thirst of acquisition, that it seemed hardly possible they should recover their natural tone in the course of this century. In the war of 1756, the debility of their efforts shewed the grounds of the evil, and the inefficacy of a sudden and precipitate remedy: but has not the British cabinet greatly contributed to restore and augment the navy of France, by agitating a civil war with the North Americans? Who does not know that the house of Austria excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great-Britain! That family, which had once been the object of fear, became at length the object of compassion. Charles V. of the house of Austria, was possessed of territories which exceeded in riches and extent the most powerful empires of antiquity, but these were not sufficient to gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign exhibited a scene of hostility against his neighbours. One of his successors, the late empress-queen, and the representative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only stripped of her dominions, but reduced so low as to be in want of necessaries; and contributions were actually raised for her in Great-Britain, whose king, George II. engaged in her cause, and reinstated her upon the imperial throne, at the expence of this nation.—Great-Britain enjoyed, for a series of years, the greatest degree of prosperity and glory; which should have induced her to be more attentive to preserve so brilliant an existence; but as a great empire cannot be continued in a flourishing situation unless governed by moderation and wisdom; so the unhappy contest of Great-Britain with her colonies in America, through the folly, arrogance, or arbitrary designs of her then ministers of state, has plunged her into the greatest difficulties; her national debt has been augmented to an enormous sum, her taxes increased so as to become an almost insupportable burden, and her trade sensibly diminished. That this once flourishing kingdom may be again restored to her former splendor and tranquillity, in consequence of the late peace with America, and the other belligerent powers, is an æra more devoutly to be wished for, than expected.

PART. III.

OF RELIGION.

THE attention and capacity of mankind have in all ages been as it were on the stretch in order to form adequate conceptions of the Supreme Being; but experience has evinced all their inquiries concerning the Deity to be fruitless, for "who by searching can find out God?" Men, in general, being unable to elevate their ideas to all the sublimity of his perfections, have too often brought them down to the degrading level of their own ideas. This observation may be more directly applied to those nations whose religion was founded

found partly on their own natural feelings, the faint glimmerings of unenlightened reason, but more frequently the irregular passions of the human heart, and who had moreover received no light from heaven, respecting this important, this awful object.

In giving the history of religion, a proper distinction should always be attended to; we must separate what is human from what is divine; what had its origin by particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unassisted operations of the human mind. Hence we find, that the religion of the eastern nations was, in the most early ages, pure and luminous: it originated from a divine source, and was neither obscured nor disfigured by the caprice or inventions of men. But we find that in process of time these began to take effect, inasmuch that the ray of tradition was not only obscured; but totally obliterated from the minds of those tribes who separated at the greatest distance, and in the smallest numbers, from the more improved societies of men.

Depraved and ignorant as the generality of mankind were respecting the nature and perfections of God, their dependence upon, and obligations to him; yet the most barbarous nations have always paid their homages to some deity, although they have been under great mistakes in their notions and conclusions about him. In this situation, God selected to himself a peculiar people to be the depositaries of his laws and worship; but left the rest of mankind to form confused and erroneous hypotheses upon these subjects.

Polytheism, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods, was the most common religion of antiquity; and this prevailed the longest, and spread the widest. The ancient polytheism does not appear to be the fruit of philosophical speculations, nor of disfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the Divine Being; but to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were subject to the tyrannical influence of passion and the wild dreams of imagination. Their religion, therefore, was founded solely upon sentiment; each tribe of men had not only their favourite heroes, but their gods likewise: those heroes who led them forth to battle, who had the chief rank in their councils, whose image was inscribed on their fancy, and whose exploits were impressed on their memory, enjoyed, even after death, an existence in the imagination of their followers and adherents. They had also two orders of gods, the propitious, and the hostile, the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared.

The heathens had also a celebrated division of their gods into *dii majorum gentium*, and *dii minorum gentium*; that is, into the superior and inferior gods. Another division was taken from their place of residence; thus there were celestial, terrestrial, infernal, marine, and sylvan gods. They were also divided into animal and natural gods; the animal gods were mortals who had been raised to divinity by ignorance and superstition,

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such as the heroes above-mentioned; and the natural gods, the parts of nature, such as the stars, the elements, mountains, rivers, &c. There were also deities who were supposed to preside over particular persons; some had the care of women in childbirth; others, the care of young children and young persons; and others were the deities of marriage. Each action, virtue, and profession had also its particular god: the shepherds had their Pan; the gardeners, their Flora; the learned, their Mercury and Minerva; and the poets, their Apollo and the Muses. The ancients, in general, made their gods subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many instances discovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not indeed eat and drink the same substances with men, but they lived on nectar and ambrosia; they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates.

It is, however, thought by most learned men, that the Pagans acknowledged but one God; and that the many different divinities worshipped by them, were but attributes and actions of one and the same God. This may probably be true of the wiser heathens; and indeed there are many strong and beautiful passages in pagan authors, to prove that they acknowledged but one God. Anaxagoras, who flourished 430 years before the Christian æra, was the first, even in Greece, that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and Governor of the Universe. Pythagoras likewise taught the unity of God, and defined him to be a mind penetrating and diffusing itself through all the parts of the universe, from which all animals receive life; and Plato called God the being which is; and whenever he mentioned the Deity, it was always in the singular number.

But, of all others, the Christian religion is demonstratively of divine original, from the sublimity of its faith, excellency of its morals, and the purity of its precepts. It consists not in idle philosophical speculations, or perpetual grimace and affectation, but in a steady practice of the duties it requires, without the least view of recompense from men; it neither seeks their admiration, nor attempts to dazzle their eyes and deceive them: there is no religion which so much excites a man to the love and practice of virtue, and hatred of vice, or that prescribes greater rewards for the one, or punishments for the other. The religion, in regard to the practice of it, consists in the most exact imitation, that can possibly be conceived, of the infinite perfections of the Supreme Being: from hence we may derive that solid virtue, that power (resulting from a divine principle implanted in the mind) which it gives to subdue our passions, and that satisfaction which we receive from the observance of those laws which God has prescribed to mankind. The characters of Christianity are perfectly conformable to the attributes of the Divine Majesty. The moral part never

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indulges the passions, it has no other view than the preservation and happiness of mankind; nor have the most inveterate enemies of the Christian faith ever invented any thing but what was much inferior to it, both in practice and speculation.

In time, however, Christianity became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, very inconsistent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy; which at length occasioned the elevation and exorbitant claims of the bishop of Rome. The power of the pope, as universal bishop, and head of the church, or, in other words, the papal supremacy, owed its origin to the world of men; was procured by the basest means, by flattering a tyrant (Phocas) in his wickedness and tyranny; and, according to the judgment of Gregory the Great, was in itself antichristian, heretical, blasphemous, and diabolical. The bishops of Rome, by availing themselves of every circumstance which fortune threw in their way, slowly erected the fabric of their antichristian power, at first an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The causes of its happy dissolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The scandalous lives of the Popish clergy, their ignorance, and tyranny, together with the desire natural to sovereigns, of delivering themselves from a foreign yoke; the op-

portunity of applying to national uses the immense sums which had been diverted to the service of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conspired with the ardour of the first reformers, and hastened the progress of the Reformation, which began by Luther in Germany in the year 1517, and took place in England in 1534; for when once the eyes of the public were opened, they could plainly perceive the unreasonableness of the claims of the church of Rome; that many of her doctrines were unscriptural, corrupt, and irrational, and after a very fair and impartial examination, most of her absurd mummeries and superstitions were justly condemned and exploded both by argument and ridicule. The services of the reformers in this respect, demand our admiration and gratitude; but, involved as they had been in the darkness of superstition, it was not to be expected but that they should still retain some errors, an attachment to some absurd doctrines, and too much of the intolerant spirit of the corrupt and arbitrary church from which they had separated themselves; but since, with all their defects, these pious and learned men were honoured in being the instruments, through Divine Providence, of bringing about an event highly favourable to the civil and religious rights of mankind, they have certainly a just claim to our veneration and esteem.

A NEW GENEALOGICAL and CHRONOLOGICAL ACCOUNT of the SOVEREIGNS of the WHOLE WORLD.

A S I A.

TURKEY. Selim II. grand signior, born in 1761; enthroned April 7, 1789.

TARTARY. The empress of Russia is supreme sovereign of the western part; and the Chinese are masters of the south and east parts.

CHINA. Kien-long, emperor.

INDIA. Ahmed-Abdallah, emperor, or great mogul.

ARABIA is annexed to the Turkish empire.

PERSIA. Kerim Khan, shah or emperor, crowned in 1763.

JAPAN. Tsinajor, emperor, being the last of whom we have any account.

When this monarch appears abroad, he is attended by 5 or 6000 of his guards; and he maintains an army of 20,000 horse, and 100,000 foot, probably with a view to keep his tributary princes or vassals in awe.

A F R I C A.

MONEMOTAPA. The sovereign is styled emperor.

SOFALA is subject to a king.

ZANGUEBAR is governed by a king.

BRAVA is under the dominion of a Mahometan sovereign.

WHIDAH, in Guinea, subject to an idolatrous king.
GOLD-COAST is divided into petty sovereignties, under their respective kings.

AGONNA, governed by a king.

GRAIN-COAST, subject to a king.

CONGO, in Lower Guinea, has a king.

ANGOLA, is subject to a king.

LOANGO is under kingly government.

JAGGAS country. Their sovereign is styled the Great Jagga.

ETHIOPIA, or **NEGROLAND**, is divided into petty kingdoms and states.

BURRE, near Sierra Leone, governed by a king.

ZAARA, or the **DESERT**. Chiefly occupied by illiterate and savage Arabs. The country is flat and barren, and the inhabitants Mahometans.

ABYSSINIA. Subject to a despotic and powerful emperor; a late sovereign was named David.

GALLAS. These people are distinguished into tribes, each governed by a chief.

ABEX. Is subject to a king.

NUBIA. Governed by a despotic monarch.

EGYPT.

EGYPT. Partly monarchical, being subject to the grand signor, whose viceroy is a pacha; and partly republican, and governed by the Mamluks and Sangiacs.

ALGIERS. Subject to a dey.

TUNIS. Governed by a bey.

TRIPOLI. Subject to a bey.

MOROCCO. Under the dominion of an emperor.

A M E R I C A.

SOUTH-AMERICA. Almost all its nations are governed by kings; under whom are appointed chiefs or caciques, as viceroys.

UNITED STATES of North America, being thirteen, are a sovereign and independent republic, of whom George Washington is president. They are under the government of Congress, composed of delegates from each state.

E U R O P E.

DENMARK AND NORWAY. CHRISTIAN VII. king of Denmark, born Jan. 29, 1749; hath issue by his late queen, Carolina-Matilda of England,

Prince Frederic, born Jan. 27, 1768.

Princess Louisa-Augusta, born July 7, 1771.

SWEDEN. GUSTAVUS, king of Sweden, born Jan. 21, 1746. Married Oct. 1766, to the Princess Sophia, Magdalene of Denmark, born July 3, 1746. Their issue,

Prince Augustus-Adolphus, born Nov. 2, 1778.

RUSSIA. CATHARINE II. daughter of Christian-Augustus, prince of Anhalt-Zerbitz, born May 2, 1729; married Sept. 1, 1745, Peter III. grandson of Peter I. On his being deposed July 9, 1762, she was proclaimed sole Empress of all the Russias. Their issue,

Prince Paul Petrowitz, born Oct. 1, 1754, and a daughter. Paul is married, and has issue three children.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND. GEORGE III. king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, born June 4, 1738. Succeeded his grandfather king George II. on Oct. 25, 1760. Married Sept. 8, 1761, to the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, born May 16, 1744; crowned Sept. 22, 1761. His issue by the said princess are,

1. George, Prince of Wales, born Aug. 12, 1762.

2. Frederic, Duke of York, Bishop of Osnaburgh; born Aug. 16, 1763. Married Sept. 29, 1791, Frederique-Charlotte-Ulrique-Catharine, eldest daughter of the king of Prussia.

3. William Henry, Duke of Clarence, born Aug. 21, 1765.

4. Princess-Royal, Charlotte-Augusta-Matilda, born Sept. 29, 1760.

5. Edward, born Nov. 2, 1767.

6. Augusta-Sophia, born Nov. 8, 1768.

7. Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.

8. Ernest-Augustus, born June 5, 1771.

9. Augustus-Frederic, born Jan. 17, 1773.

10. Adolphus-Frederic, born Feb. 24, 1774.

11. Mary, born April 25, 1776.

12. Sophia, born Nov. 3, 1777.

13. Amelia, born Aug. 7, 1783.

THE KING'S BROTHER AND SISTER ARE,

1. Augusta, Duchess of Brunswick.

2. William-Henry, Duke of Gloucester, Earl of Connaught, born Nov. 25, 1743; married Sept. 6, 1776, to Maria, Countess Dowager of Waldegrave, daughter of Sir Edward Walpole, K. B. by whom he has one son and two daughters.

HOLLAND. Prince WILLIAM, of Orange-Nassau, Stadtholder, born March 19, 1748; assumed the government, March 8, 1766; married Oct. 4, 1767, to Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, sister to the king of Prussia, born Aug. 7, 1751. Their issue, William Frederic, born Aug. 2, 1771; married to the second daughter of the king of Prussia. William George-Frederic, born Feb. 15, 1774. Frederica-Louisa-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 28, 1770.

GERMANY. LEOPOLD II. Emperor of Germany, born May 5, 1747; crowned Aug. 9, 1790; married Aug. 5, 1766, to Mary Louisa, infanta of Spain, born Nov. 24, 1745; and have issue, Francis, married Aug. 14, 1790, to Maria-Teresa, eldest daughter of the king of Naples; Ferdinand (see TUSCANY), Charles, Alexander, Joseph, Antony, John, Ren-Joseph, Louis-Joseph, Rodolphus; Maria, Maria-Anne, Maria-Clementina, and Maria-Amelia.

The Emperor has living two sisters, an 'one brother, unmarried. Those married are, the Princess of Parma, the Queen of the Two Sicilies, the late Queen of France, the wife of the uncle of the elector of Saxony, and Prince Ferdinand, born June 1, 1754.

Archduke of Austria, married, 1774, the only daughter and heiress of the Duke of Modena, by whom he has issue two sons and two daughters.

Adolphus-Frederic IV. Duke of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, born May 5, 1738, brother to the Queen of Great-Britain.

Charles-William-Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick-Lunenburg, and late General in the king of Prussia's army, born Oct. 9, 1735; married Jan. 16, 1764, to the Princess Augusta of England, born Aug. 12, 1737, and has issue, three sons and three daughters.

PRUSSIA. FREDERIC-WILLIAM, king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg, born Sept. 25, 1744; proclaimed king, Aug. 19, 1786. Hath issue by his first consort, Elizabeth-Ulrica, of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttel, Charlotte, born May 7, 1767, married to the Duke of York. He was married July 14, 1769, to his second consort, Frederica-Louisa, of Saxe-Darmstadt. Hath issue by her,

Frederic-William, born Aug. 3, 1770. Frederic-Charles-Louis, born Aug. 3, 1773.

Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 11, 1774; married Aug. 1, 1791, to the hereditary Prince of Orange.

Frederic-

Frederic-Christian-Augustus; born May 1, 1780.
Another Prince, born December 20, 1781; and another, in July 1783.

Queen-Dowager, Elizabeth-Christina of Brunswic-Wolfenbuttle, aunt to the present Duke, and sister of his present Prussian Majesty, as well as of the Queen-Dowager of Denmark, born Nov. 8, 1715.

Louisa-Amelia, of Brunswic-Wolfenbuttle, born Jan. 29, 1722; married Jan. 6, 1742, to William-Angustus-Prince-Royal, who died June 12, 1758. Their issue, the present King.

Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, married to the present Prince of Orange.

POLAND. STANISLAUS-AUGUSTUS (formerly count Poniatowski) born Jan. 17, 1732, elected king Sept. 7, 1764.

SWITZERLAND. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction; but those of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are aristocratical, or under the sovereignty of the nobles, with a certain mixture of democracy, where the sovereignty is lodged in the people, Berne only excepted. Those of Uri, Schwetz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy, or popular government.

SPAIN. CHARLES IV. King of Spain, born Nov. 11, 1748; succeeded his father Charles III. in Dec. 1788; married Sept. 4, 1765, to Princess Louisa of Parma, born Dec. 9, 1751, and has had issue, six children. The surviving issue are,

Ferdinand-Antony, present king of Naples. Antony Pascal, born Dec. 31, 1755. The other surviving issue of the late king is, Maria-Louisa (see TUSCANY.)

PORTUGAL. MARIA-FRANCES-ISABELLA, Queen of Portugal, born Dec. 17, 1734; married June 6, 1760, to the late king, her uncle, by whom she has issue,

John-Maria-Joseph-Louis, Prince of Brasil, born May 13, 1767; married to Charlotta-Joaquina, daughter of the Prince of Asturias, born April 25, 1775.

Marianna-Victoria, born Dec. 15, 1768; married to Gabriel-Antony, third son to the king of Spain.

Issue of king Joseph. Her present majesty, and two other daughters.

ITALY. Pope Pius VI. born Dec. 17, 1717; elected pope Feb. 15, 1775.

FERDINAND IV. king of Naples and both Sicilies, born Jan. 11, 1751; ascended the throne Oct. 4, 1759, on his father's becoming king of Spain; married April 7, 1768, to the Princess Mary-Caroline, a sister of the Emperor, born Aug. 13, 1752, by whom he has had issue eight children, of whom seven are living.

TUSCANY. ARCHDUKE-FERDINAND, son of the emperor, born May 6, 1769; married Aug. 14, 1790, Maria-Louisa, second daughter of the king of Naples.

MODENA. HERCULES RENAUD, born Nov. 22, 1727; married April 16, 1741, to the Princess of Massa-Catara. Their issue, Mary Beatrix, born Apr. 25, 1750; married the archduke of Austria 1771.

FERDINAND-MARIE-LOUIS, duke of Parma, born Jan. 20, 1751; married to the archduchess Maria-Amelia, June 27, 1760. Their issue, a Prince and three Princesses.

SARDINIA AND SAVOY. VICTOR-AMADEUS-MARIE, born June 26, 1726; married in 1750, the late Maria-Antoinetta-Frederica, sister to the emperor Leopold, by whom he has living issue, four daughters: Maria-Josepha-Louisa; married in 1771, the Count of Provence, brother to the king of France; Maria-Theresa, married in 1773, the Count of Artois, another brother of the king of France, and has issue two sons and a daughter; the eldest, Charles-Emanuel, Prince of Piedmont, born May 14, 1751; married in 1775, Maria-Adelaide, sister of the late king of France.

FRANCE. LOUIS XVI. late king of France and Navarre; born Aug. 23, 1754. Married April 19, 1770, to Marie-Antoinetta, the emperor's sister, born Nov. 2, 1755. Their issue, a Princess, Maria-Teresa-Charlotta, born Dec. 19, 1778; and the Dauphin, born March 27, 1785.

Note. Royalty was abolished in this kingdom by the National Convention, the king and queen beheaded, and a republican government set up.

A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL LIST of REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, and INVENTIONS.

Bef. Christ.

4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve, Gen. i. ii.

4003 The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman, Gen. iv. 1.

2318 The old world is destroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days, Gen. viii.

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, Gen. xi.

2234 The celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences. 2188 Misraim,

- 188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years.
- 2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years.
- 1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, established when he entered Canaan.
- 1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire from heaven, Gen. xix.
- 1856 Inachus founds the kingdom of Argos, in Greece.
- 1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents the letters.
- 1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flints.
- 1574 Aaron, high-priest of the Israelites, born.
- 1571 Moses, law-giver of the Israelites, born in Egypt, Exod. ii.
- 1556 Cecrops founds the kingdom of Athens.
- 1546 Scamander begins the kingdom of Troy.
- 1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece.
- 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children, which completed the 430 years of sojourning, Exod. xii. 41.
- 1453 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
- 1452 The Pentateuch, or five first books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died the year following, aged 110.
- 1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the Wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives; and the period of the sabbatical year commences, Joshua i.
- 1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods of mount Ida.
- 1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave rise to the Trojan war, and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
- 907 Homer, the illustrious inventor of epic poetry, flourished.
- 906 Hesiod, the Greek poet, flourished.
- 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 established.
- 753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
- 720 After three years siege, Samaria taken, and the kingdom of Israel finished, by Salmanasar, king of Assyria, who carries the ten tribes into captivity. The first eclipse of the moon on record.
- 658 Byzantium (the modern Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
No. 48.
- 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sailed from the Red Sea, coasted round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
- 600 Thales, of Miletus, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy in Egypt; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that all its motions are regulated by an only supreme intelligence. Anaximander, the scholar of Thales, invents maps, globes, and the signs of the Zodiac.
- 599 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, was in great repute.
- 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months, 2 Kings xxv.
- 562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
- 559 Cyrus, the first king of Persia, reigns.
- 538 The kingdom of Babylon finished; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews from captivity.
- 534 The first tragedy was acted at Athens, on a wagon, by Thespis.
- 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded there.
- 515 The second Temple at Jerusalem completed under Darius.
- 509 Tarquin, the seventh and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, till the battle of Pharsalia, being a space of 461 years.
- 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.
- 486 Æschylus, the Greek poet, first gained the prize of tragedy.
- 481 Xerxes the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against the Greek states.
- 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years before our Saviour's crucifixion.
- 454 The Romans send to Athens for the laws of Solon.
- 451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the Twelve Tables ratified.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament was finished about this time, by Malachi, the last of the prophets.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, introduces a belief of the immortality of the soul and a state of rewards and punishment, for which he is put to death by the Athenians.
- 331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Persia, and other nations of Asia. 323, Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.

- 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.
- 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
- 277 Euclid of Alexandria, the celebrated mathematician, flourished.
- 269 The first coinage of silver at Rome.
- 264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles composed.
- 237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.
- 218 The 2d Punic war begins, and continues 17 years.
- 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antiochus brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
- 163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
- 146 Carthage, the rival to Rome, is razed to the ground by the Romans.
- 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
- 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated. The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
- 45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself. The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
- 44 Cæsar, the first Roman conqueror, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, is killed in the senate-house.
- 31 The battle of Actium fought.
- 30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.
- 8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms. The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace, and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born on Monday, December 25, but, according to many, in September during the Jewish feast of tabernacles.
- Anno Christi.
- 33 JESUS CHRIST is crucified on Friday, April 3, at three o'clock P. M. Matt. xxvii. His Resurrection on Sunday, April 5; his Ascension, Thursday May 14, Matt. xxviii.
- 26 St. Paul converted. ACTS ix.
- 39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel. Pontius Pilate kills himself.
- 40 The appellation of Christians first given to the followers of Christ at Antioch.
- 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.
- 44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
- 45 Paterculus, the Roman historian, flourished.
- 49 London is founded by the Romans.
- 51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.
- 52 The council of the apostles held at Jerusalem.
- 55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.
- 59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death. He persecutes the Druids in Britain.
- 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
- 63 The Acts of the Apostles written. Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.
- 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.
- 67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death. Titus, the Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 83 The philosophers banished from Rome by Domitian.
- 85 Julius Agricola, governor of South-Britain, to protect the civilized Britons from the incursions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde.
- 96 St. John the evangelist wrote his Revelation, and his Gospel in 97.
- 121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle.
- 139 Justin writes his first Apology for the Christians.
- 222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight; and the Barbarians begin their irruptions.
- 260 Valerius is taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and slayed alive.
- 274 Silk first brought from India; first worn by the clergy of England, 1534.
- 291 Two emperors and two Cæsars march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
- 306 Constantine the Great began his reign.
- 308 Cardinals were first ordained.
- 313 The tenth and last persecution ends by an edict of Constantine.
- 314 Three bishops, or fathers, are sent from Britain to assist at the council of Arles.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, against Arius, where was composed the famous Nicene Creed.

- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which was then called Constantinople.
- 331 Constantine orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 363 Julian the Apostate endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital).
- 400 Bells invented by bishop Paulinus, of Campania.
- 404 Fergus revived the kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland.
- 406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, ravage France and Spain.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths.
- 412 The Vandals set up their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
- 426 The Romans reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns, ravage the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, against the Scots and Picts.
- 455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire finished, by the irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other Barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned destroyed.
- 496 Clovis, king of France, baptized.
- 508 Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
- 513 Constantinople besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet Archimedes burned by a speculum of brass.
- 516 The computation of time by the Christian æra, introduced by Dionysius the monk.
- 557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continued near fifty years.
- 581 Latin ceased to be a living language.
- 596 Augustine the monk comes into England with forty of his fraternity.
- 606 The popes began to assume very extensive power, by the concessions of Phocas, emperor of the East.
- 622 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the Flight.
- 637 Jerusalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
- 640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by Omar, the calif, and the grand library there burnt by his order.
- 664 Glass invented in England by Benalt, a monk.
- 685 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally subdued by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
- 713 The Saracens conquered Spain.
- 726 The controversy about images began, and occasioned many insurrections in the east.
- 748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ, introduced into history.
- 762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris, is made the capital for the caliphs.
- 800 Charlemagne, king of France, began the empire of Germany; and endeavoured to restore learning in Europe.
- 826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects, for embracing Christianity.
- 828 Egbert, king of Wessex, united the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
- 838 The Scots and Picts fought a decisive battle, in which the former prevail.
- 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought fifty-six battles by sea and land) composes his body of laws; and divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county courts, and founds the university of Oxford.
- 915 The university of Cambridge founded.
- 936 The Saracen empire is divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.
- 975 Pope Boniface VII. deposed and banished.
- 979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.
- 991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia.
- 996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
- 999 Boleslaus, the first king of Poland.
- 1000 Paper fabricated of cotton rags first in use.
- 1005 The ancient churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
- 1015 Children in England forbidden by law to be sold by their parents.
- 1017 Canute, king of Denmark, obtains possession of England.
- 1040 The Danes, after various defeats, are expelled from Scotland.
- 1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
- 1043 The Turks become formidable, and take possession of Persia.
- 1054 Leo IX. the first pope that kept up an army.
- 1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunlinane.
- 1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
- 1066 The battle of Hastings fought, between Harold and William duke of Normandy, in which Harold is slain, after which William becomes king of England.
- 1070 William I. introduces the feudal law. Musical notes invented.

- 1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, in penance, walks barefooted to the pope, towards the end of January.
- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1080 Doomsday-Book began to be compiled by order of William, and finished in 1086.—The Tower of London built by ditto, to curb his English subjects.
- 1091 The Moors get possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land.
1110. Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in a private flight in England.
- 1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1163 London-Bridge of 19 small arches, first built of stone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights instituted in Germany.
- 1172 Henry II. king of England, takes possession of Ireland.
- 1176 England is divided by Henry II. into six circuits.
- 1180 Glass windows began to be used in private houses in England.
- 1181 The laws of England digested by Glanville.
- 1182 The kings of England and France held the stirrups of Pope Alexander III. while he mounted his horse.
- 1186 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in Sept.
- 1192 The battle of Ascalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* first used as a motto by Richard I. on a victory over the French.
- 1200 Chimnies were not known in England. Surnames now began to be used; first among the nobility.
- 1208 London incorporated, and obtained their first charter from king John.
- 1215 Magna Charta is signed by king John and the barons of England. Court of Common-Pleas established.
- 1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, over-run all the Saracen empire.
- 1233 The Inquisition, begun in 1204, is now intrusted to the Dominicans. The houses of London, and other cities of England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alonzo, king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars took Bagdad, and finished the empire of the Saracens.
- 1264 According to some writers, the commons of England were not summoned to parliament till this period.
- 1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.
- 1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
- 1284 Edward II. born at Caernarvon, is the first prince of Wales.
- 1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward, king of England.
- 1293 A regular succession of English parliaments commenced.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia, under Ottoman. Silver-hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury. Tallow candles so great a luxury, that splinters of wood were used for lights. Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1302 The mariner's compass invented, or improved by Givina, of Naples.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.
- 1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1310 The society of Lincoln's-Inn established.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce. The cardinals set fire to the conclave, and separate.
- 1320 Gold first coined in Europe; 1344 in England.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III. "may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects."
- 1337 The first comet described with astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressly; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented. Oil painting first made use of by John Vaneck. Herald's college instituted in England.
- 1344 The first creation to titles by patent used by Edward III. Gold first coined in England.
- 1349 The order of the garter instituted in England by Edward III.
- 1352 The Turks first entered Europe.
- 1354 The money in Scotland till this period the same as in England.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the Black Prince.
- 1357 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.—John Wickliffe, an Englishman, begins about this time to oppose the er-

- rors of the church of Rome with great acuteness and spirit. His followers are called Lollards. Law proceedings changed from French to English.
- 1386 Windsor castle built by Edward III.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and Douglas.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster-Abbey rebuilt and enlarged. Westminster-Hall, ditto. Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.
- 1410 Guildhall, London, built.
- 1411 The university of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt gained by Henry V. of England.
- 1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France.
- 1430 Laurantius of Haerlem invented the art of printing, which he practised with separate wooden types. Gutenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Corfellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but William Caxton introduced into England the art of printing with fust types in 1474.
- 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome. The sea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which ended the eastern empire, 1193 years from its dedication by Constantine the Great, and 2206 years from the building of Rome.
- 1454 The university of Glasgow, in Scotland, founded.
- 1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
- 1477 The university of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
- 1483 Richard III. king of England, and last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the Houses of York and Lancaster, after a contest of 30 years, and the loss of 100,000 men.
- 1486 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
- 1489 Barth. Columbus first brought in maps and sea-charts to England.
- 1491 William Groeyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford. The Moors are entirely subdued by Ferdinand king of Castile, and driven from Spain to the opposite coast of Africa.
- 1492 America first discovered by Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. South America discovered by Americus Vespufius, from whom it has its name.
- 1499 North America discovered for Henry VII. by Cabot.
- 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
- 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were till then imported.
- 1513 The battle of Flodden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
- 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation. Egypt conquered by the Turks.
- 1520 Henry VIII. for his writings against Luther, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spire in Germany.
- 1534 The Reformation commences in England, under Henry VIII. who suppresses religious houses, 1537.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorized.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561 — Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers.
- 1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.
- 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
- 1546 First law in England establishing the interest of money at ten per cent.
- 1549 Lords-licutenant of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Horse-guards instituted in England.
- 1555 The Russian company established in England.
- 1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
- 1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
- 1569 Royal-Exchange first built, by Sir T. Gresham.
- 1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris, on St. Bartholomew's-Day.
- 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke. English East-India-Company incorporated — established 1600. Turkey company incorporated.
- 1580 Sir Francis Drake returned from his voyage round the world. Parochial register first appointed in England.
- 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy.
- 1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
- 1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years imprisonment.

- 1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake, &c.— Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantz, tolerating the Protestants. The manufacture of paper first established in England, at Dartford.
- 1589 Churches first introduced into England.
- 1590 Band of Pensioners instituted in England.
- 1591 Trinity-College, Dublin, founded.
- 1597 War-ches first brought into England from Germany.
- 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
- 1603 Queen Elizabeth dies, and is succeeded by James VI. of Scotland.
- 1605 The gunpowder-plot at Westminster discovered.
- 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
- 1608 Galileo, of Florence, first discovers the satellites about the planet Saturn.
- 1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravillac, a priest.
- 1611 Barons first created in England, by James I.
- 1613 Napier, of Marchelton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms. Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
- 1616 The first permanent settlement in Virginia.
- 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, discovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
- 1620 The broad silk manufactory introduced into England.
- 1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
- 1625 King James dies, and is succeeded by his son, Charles I. The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West-Indies, is planted.
- 1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
- 1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore. Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c. The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English Protestants were killed.
- 1642 Charles I. impeaches five members, which begins the civil war in England.
- 1643 Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by parliament.
- 1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
- 1654 Cromwell assumed the protectorship. About this time George Fox began to preach the doctrines held by the people called Quakers.
- 1655 The English, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
- 1660 King Charles II. is restored, after an exile of 12 years. The people of Denmark, being oppressed by the nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes absolute.
- 1662 The Royal-Society established in London 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, and 400 streets. Tea first used in England.
- 1667 The peace of Breda concluded.
- 1668 The peace of Aix la Chapelle acceded to.
- 1670 The English Hudson's-Bay-Company incorporated.
- 1672 Lewis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country. African-Company established.
- 1678 The peace of Nimeguen concluded.
- 1680 A great comet appeared, and, from its nearness to our earth, greatly alarmed the inhabitants. It continued visible from Nov. 3. to March 9. William Penn receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
- 1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
- 1685 The edict of Nantz infamously revoked by Louis XIV. and the Protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1688 The Revolution in Great-Britain, Nov. 5.
- 1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16. The land-tax act first passed in England, and the toleration act passed.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bank of England established by king William. The first public lottery was drawn this year.
- 1694 Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1696 The peace of Ryswick concluded.
- 1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign. King James II. dies at St. Germain's, in the 68th year of his age.
- 1701 Prussia erected into a kingdom. Society for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts established.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards, by admiral Rooke. The battle of Blenheim, won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, against the French. The court of Exchequer instituted in England.
- 1706 The treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, signed July 22. The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1707 The first British parliament held.
- 1708 Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
- 1710 The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals. The English South-Sea company began.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht concluded.
- 1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is succeeded

- ceded by George I. Interest reduced to five per cent.
- 1715 The rebellion in Scotland began, in favour of the Pretender.
- 1716 An act passed for septennial parliaments.
- 1719 Lombe's silk throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby.
- 1727 Inoculation first tried on criminals with success. Russia first erected into an empire.
- 1738 Westminster-Bridge, consisting of fifteen arches, begun; finished 1750. at the expence of 389,000*l.* defrayed by parliament.
- 1739 War declared against Spain, October -3.
- 1744 War declared against France.
- 1745 The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1746 British linen company erected.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
- 1749 British herring fishery incorporated.
- 1751 Antiquarian-Society at London, incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great-Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
- 1753 The British museum erected at Montagu-House. Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, instituted in London.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1756 Marine-Society established at London.
- 1759 General Wolfe killed in the battle of Quebec, in the moment of victory.
- 1760 Black-Friars-Bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expence of 152,840*l.* discharged by a toll.
- 1762 War declared against Spain. Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
- 1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great-Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris.
- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000*l.* to Mr. Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1766 April 21, a spot or macula of the sun, more than thrice the bigness of our earth, passed the sun's centre.
- 1768 Royal academy of painting established in London.
- 1770 George Whitefield, the celebrated founder and patron of the Calvinistic Methodists, died in America, Sept. 30.
- 1772 The king of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom to a limited monarchy.
- 1773 The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, Aug. 25.
- 1774 Peace proclaimed between the Russians and Turks.
- 1775 May 20, articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces. June 17, a bloody action at Bunker's-Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.
- 1776 The Congress declare the American colonies free and independent states, July 4. December 25, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners at Trenton. Torture abolished in Poland.
- 1777 Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, October 17.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, Feb. 6.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France. The inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena's dominions. London abandoned by its magistrates to the fury of a lawless mob.
- 1781 Admiral Parker defeated the Dutch fleet. Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Grasse, near Dominica, in the West-Indies, April 12.
- 1783 The order of St. Patrick instituted, Feb. 5. Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior, and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28. The first air-balloon let off in Paris, by M. Montgolfier, Aug. 27. Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great-Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sept. 3.
- 1784 The definitive treaty of peace between Great-Britain and Holland, May 24. Mr. Lunardi ascended in a Balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the first attempt of the kind in England, Sept. 15.
- 1785 A treaty of confederacy to preserve the indivisibility of the German empire, entered into by the king of Prussia, the elector of Hanover, Saxony, and Mentz, May 29. The toll was taken off Black-Friars-Bridge, Jan. 22.
- 1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the act of torture in his dominions.
- 1787 Nova Scotia erected into a bishop's see.
- 1789 Revolution in France, capture of the Bastille, and its demolition; execution of Launay the governor, &c. July 14.
- 1791 The celebrated John Wesley died, March 3.
- 1792 Gustavus III. king of Sweden, died by assassination, March 29. The French nation form themselves into a republic, Sept. 22.
- 1793 Louis XVI. king of France, beheaded by his subjects, Jan. 21. Queen of France beheaded, Oct. 16.
- 1794 Edward Gibbon, the celebrated historian, died.

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