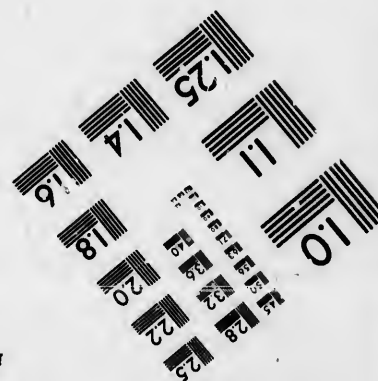
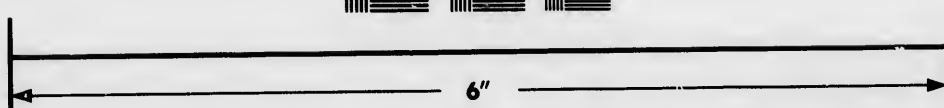
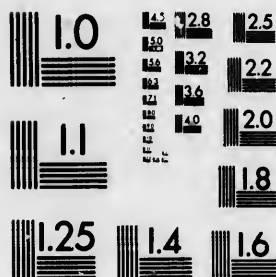


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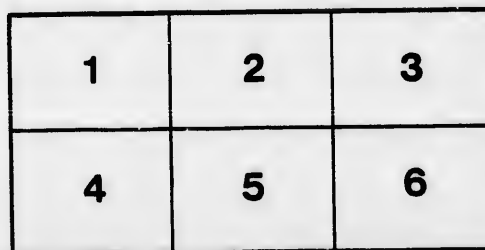
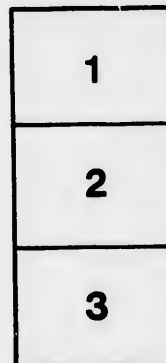
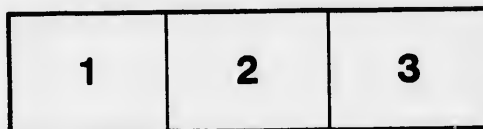
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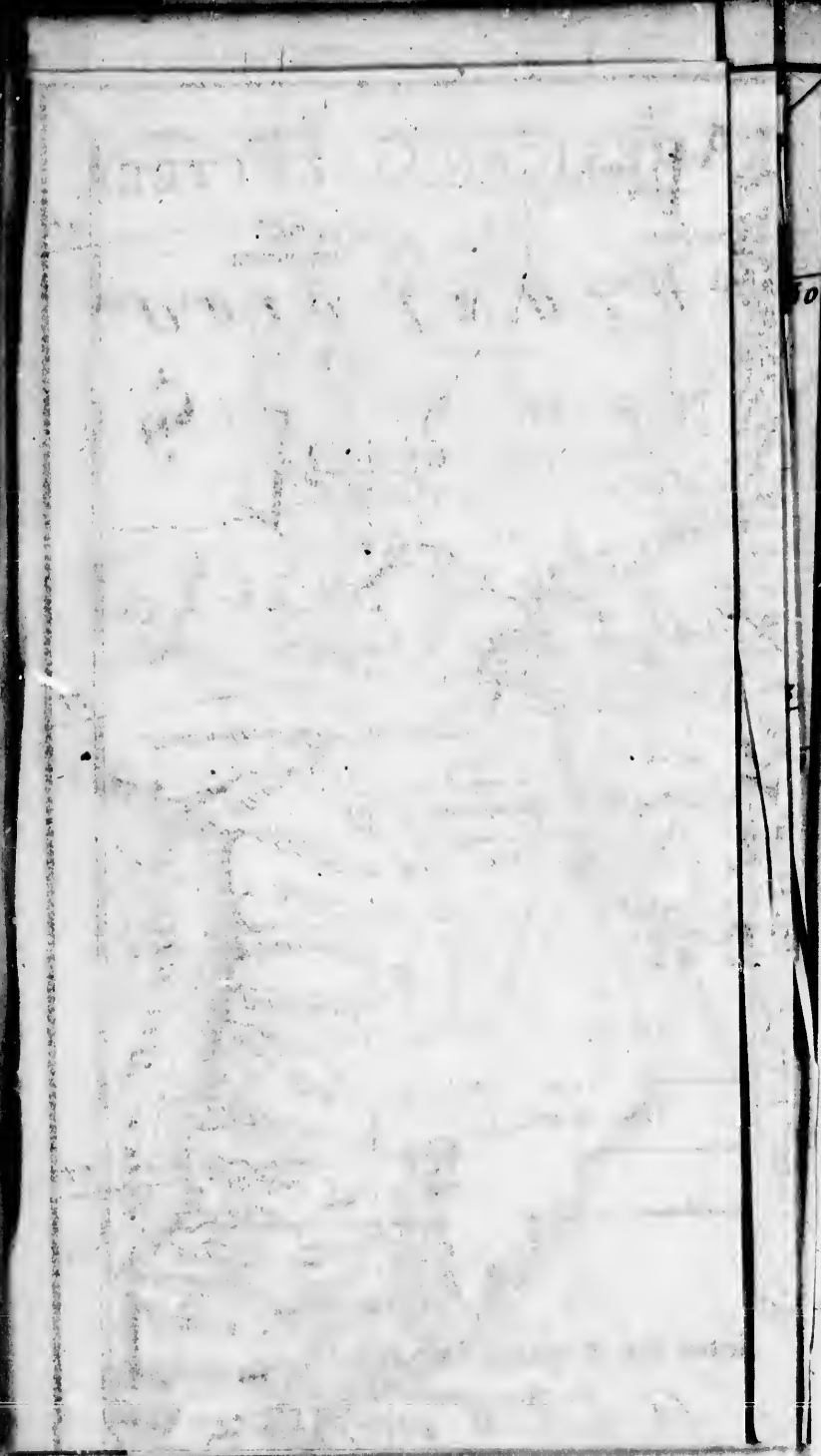
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A Scale of British Statute Miles. 0 20 40 60 80 100 120

Messesages, subdued by the Troquois and United with them making the 8th Nation in that League.

The Six Nations have been in possession of these Territories about 100 years & it is now Ours

The Troquois according to and other Geographers



OHIO INDIANS

PENNSYLVANIA



76 74 72 70 68 66

50

48

46

44



ATLANTIC OCEAN

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA

FRANCE

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ONARIO

NEW ENGLAND

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Latitude West 76 from London 74 72 70 68 66

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T H E

AMERICAN GAZETTEER

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G A L

**G**ABRIEL, St. an island in the great river de la Plata, in the empire of Peru, belonging to South America. It was discovered by Sebastian Gabot in the year 1526.

**GABORI, BAY OF**, is situated on the S. E. coast of Cape Breton, in North America. The entrance into it, which is 20 leagues from the isles of St. Pierre, is a league in breadth, and lying between islands and rocks. To every one of the former, vessels may approach very near; some stretch themselves into the sea about a league and a half. The depth of this bay inland is two leagues, and here is good anchorage.

**GALETTE, LA**, a neck of land in the river St. Laurence, belonging to Canada in North America. From the point opposite to l'isle de Montreal a road might be made to Galette, by which means 40 leagues of navigation would be avoided, which the water-falls render almost impracticable, and always very tedious. The land about

VOL. II. B la



## G A L

la Galette is very good ; and in two days time a bark may sail from la Galette to Niagara with a good wind. La Galette is a league and a half above the fall called les Galots.

**GALOTS**, a water-fall so called, which lies in the river St. Laurence in Canada, in North America. It is the last of the cascades here. Betwixt the neck of land la Galette and les Galots is an admirable country, and no where can be seen finer forests.

**GALOTS, L'ISLE AUX**, an island in the river of St. Laurence in Canada, in North America. It is situated three leagues beyond l'isle aux Chevres, in lat. 43. 33. N.

**GALLAPAGO, ISLANDS OF**, a great number of small uninhabited islands in the Pacific ocean, lying under and on both sides of the equator. The eastermost is about 110 leagues from the Terra Firma, or Main, that is in long. 85. W. from London: and the others between that and long. 90. W. Here ships frequently refit, and take in water and provisions: but the Spaniards have never sent any colonies thither; yet they, being the first discoverers, report them to be very numerous, stretching N. E. from the line as far as 5 degrees N. but Dampier says he saw not above 14 or 15. Some of them are 7 or 8 leagues long, and 3 or 4 broad; most of them being flat and even a-top: 4 or 5 of the eastermost are rocky, barren, and hilly, producing neither tree, herb, nor grass, only a few dildotrees, except by the sea-side. The dildotree is a large prickly shrub, growing about 10 or 12 feet high without fruit or leaf. From the root to the top it is as large as a man's leg, and full of sharp prickles, growing in thick rows from top to bottom;

## G A L

tom ; but it is good for nothing, not so much as to burn. In some places, close by the sea, grow bushes of burton-wood, which is very good fuel. This last sort of wood is to be met with in many places of the West Indies, especially Campeachy-bay and the Samballoe. Dampier says he saw none in the South-Seas but here. On these barren islands water is found in ponds and holes among the rocks. Some others of these islands are more plain and low, and the soil more fertile, producing trees of several sorts unknown in Europe. Some of the westernmost of these islands are 9 or 10 leagues in length, and 6 or 7 in breadth, with a deep and black mould. These produce trees of large tall bodies, especially mammee-trees, which grow here in large groves. The mammee is a large, tall, and straight-bodied tree, clear, without knots or limbs, for 60 or 70 feet and upwards. The head spreads abroad into many small limbs, which grow pretty thick and close together. The bark is of a dark grey colour, thick and rough, full of large chinks or chops: the fruit is larger than a quince; it is round, and covered with a thick rind of a grey colour. When the fruit is ripe, the rind is yellow and tough, and will peel off like leather; but before it is ripe, is brittle; the juice is white and clammy, but not so when ripe. The ripe fruit is yellow like a carrot; and in the middle are two large rough stones, flat, and each of them much bigger than an almond. The fruit smells very well, and its taste is answerable.

In these large islands are some pretty considerable rivers, and in many of the smaller ones are brooks of good water. The Spaniards, upon

## G A L

the first discovery of these islands, found multitudes of guano's and tortoises, or land-turtles; and Dampier says, he believes no place in the world is so plentifully stored with them. The guano is an animal like the lizard, but much larger, and of the bigness of a man's leg, with a tail tapering to the end, which is very small. They lay eggs, as most of these amphibious animals do, and are very good to eat. Their flesh is much esteemed by privateers, who commonly dress them for their sick men, and they make very good broth: they are of divers colours; and they all live as well in the water as on land. Some of them are continually in the water and among rocks; these are commonly black: others that live in swampy wet grounds are commonly on bushes and trees; these are green; but such as live on dry ground are commonly yellow; yet these also will live in water, and are sometimes on trees. The Gallipago guano's are very large and fat; and so tame, that one may knock down 20 in an hour's time with a club.

The land-turtles are here very numerous; they are extraordinary large and fat, and eat as delicate as the flesh of a pullet. One of the largest among these will weigh 150, or 200 weight; and some of them are two feet, and two feet and a half over the challapee, or belly. Of these are three or four species in the West Indies: one is called by the Spaniards hecatee; these live mostly in fresh-water ponds, and seldom come on the land, weighing about 10 or 15 pounds, with small legs, flat feet, and long slender necks. Another sort is called tenapen, which is a great deal less than the hecatee. The shell on their backs is all naturally carved, finely wrought,  
and

## G A L

and well clouded. They delight to live in wet swampy places, or on land near such: both are very good meat. The Gallipago tortoises are more like the hecatees, only they are much larger, and have very small long necks and little heads.

On these islands are some green snakes, but no other land-animals that Dampier ever saw. Here is great plenty of turtle-doves, so tame that four or five dozen of them may be killed in a forenoon with a stick: they are something less than a pidgeon, are commonly fat, and very good meat.

Between these islands are good wide channels fit for ships to pass, and shoal water in some places, producing plenty of turtle-grass; and therefore these islands are plentifully stored with sea-turtles of that sort, called the green-turtle. The trunk-turtle is commonly bigger than the other, their flesh rank, and not wholesome. The loggerhead, so called on account of its great head, is much larger than the other sorts; its flesh is very rank: they feed on moss growing about rocks. The hawks-bill-turtle is the smallest sort, and so called as having a mouth like the bill of a hawk. On the backs of these grows that shell which is so much esteemed for making cabinets, snuff-boxes, combs, &c. The largest may have three pounds and a half of shell; but commonly a pound and a half, or two pounds: these are but ordinary food, but generally sweeter than the loggerhead. The hawks-bills are in some places unwholesome, causing the persons who eat them to purge and vomit excessively, especially those between the Samballos and Porto Bello. They are in many places in the West Indies, have islands and places peculiar to themselves, where

they

## G A L

they lay their eggs, and seldom come among any other turtles.

The green turtle, so called from its shell being greener than any other, and which is used only for inlays, being very thin and clear, will sometimes weigh 2 or 300 pounds: these are the sweetest of all the kind; but of them are degrees, both in regard of their flesh and magnitude. At Blanco in the West Indies, the green turtle, which is the only sort there, is larger than any in the North Seas, weighing commonly between 280 and 300 pounds: their fat is yellow, their lean white, and extraordinary sweet. At Boca-toro, W. of Porto Bello, they are not so large, their flesh is not so white, nor the fat so yellow. Those of Honduras and Campeachy are still smaller; their fat is green, and their lean darker than in those of Boca-toro. Green turtles live on grass growing in the sea from three to six fathom water: this grass is different from the manatee sort, which has a small blade; but this is a quarter of an inch broad, and six inches long.

These, and all other turtles, lay their eggs in the sand between May and July, and this three times in a season, and at each time 80 or 90 eggs, which are as big as those of a hen, but very round, and only covered with a white tough skin. When the she-turtle finds a place above high-water mark fit for her purpose, she makes a hole with her fins in the sand where she lays her eggs, then covers them two feet deep with the same sand, and this is all done at least in an hour's time, when she returns to the sea again. At breeding time these creatures leave their common haunts for two or three months, during which it is thought they eat little or nothing. The most  
re-

## G A L

remarkable places for their breeding are Caimanes, an island in the West Indies, and the Isle of Ascension, in the Western ocean; where, when the breeding time is over, not one remains. They doubtless swim some hundreds of leagues to come to those two places. The south-quays of Cuba are about 40 leagues from thence, which is the nearest place these creatures can come from; and it is certain that so many could not live there as come hither in a season. Those that go to lay at Ascension-isle must swim much further, no land being nearer it than 300 leagues. In the South-Seas, the Gallipagos are the islands where they live the greatest part of the year, yet they go from thence over to the main to lay their eggs; which is 100 leagues the nearest place. These creatures live to a great age, and the Jamaica-turtles observe that many years pass before they come to their full growth.

The air of the Gallipagos is temperate enough, considering the climate. Here is constantly a fresh sea-breeze all day, and cooling refreshing winds in the night: the heat, therefore, is not so violent here as in most places near the equator. The time for the rains is in November, December, and January; in which months there is often very hard tempestuous weather, mixed with a deal of thunder and lightning: some time before and after are moderate refreshing showers: but in May, June, July, and August, the weather is always very fair.

GALLO, an island in the province of Popayan, belonging to the Terra Firma, in South America. It is situated in a deep bay, in lat. 2. 40. N. Captain Dampier says, that off this island is not above four or five fathom water;

## G A N

but at Segnetta, which is on the N. side, a vessel may ride safe in deep water, and free from any danger. This island is pretty high, and well provided with good wood, and several springs of excellent water. Here are several good sandy bays, where a ship may be cleaned. It is pretty shoal water almost round the island; and at both the N. and S. points are several rocks, some of which look like a barn, others like a ship under sail. To the N. E. on the main land, distant three leagues, is a large river called Tomaco; and about a league and a half within the river is a town of the same name. This is a little Indian town, whose inhabitants commonly supply vessels with provisions that often come here for refreshment. At this river begins a large wood which extends 10 or 12 leagues to the southward. All along this coast are several rivers, at whose sources both the Spaniards and Indians wait for gold, which washes down from the mountains. This is a very rainy place, especially from April to October, which is the winter season here; at which time, from hence northward all along the coast of Mexico is continual thunder, lightning, and rain, with many hard tornados, or whirlwinds. The bearings here are, that the land is higher than the coasts of Gorgona, and very full of hills and trees; particularly it has one mount which is very high.

GANOS, a place in Canada, in North America, where the Ohio, or Fair river, joins that of St. Laurence. It is 60 leagues above the mouth of the latter, and 10 leagues more by land to the right hand, before one comes to the Ohio. At Ganos is a spring, the water of which is like oil, and tastes ferruginous. A little further is  
another



## G A S

another of quite the same nature, which the savages make use of against all sorts of pains.

**GASPE, or GACHEPE, THE BAY AND HEADLAND OF,** lies a little to the S. of Cape des Roitiers, in Canada, in North America. Such as pretend that the river of St. Laurence is 40 leagues broad at its mouth, apparently measure it from the eastern point of Gaspe. Below this bay one sees a sort of island which, in reality is no other than a steep rock, about 30 toises long, 10 high, and 4 broad: One would take it for the point or slope of an old wall; and it is assured that it formerly was joined to Mount Joli, which lies opposite to it on the continent. This rock has in its middle an opening in the form of an arch, through which a Biscayan chaloupe may pass under sail; and on this account it has had the name of *l'isle Percée*. Sailors acknowledge that they are near each other, upon perceiving a flat mountain which rises above several more, and this is called by them *La Table a Roland*, i. e. Roland's round table. The natives of the district of Gaspé are commonly distinguished by the names of the rivers along whose banks they live, the three principal of which are, St. Jean, Ristigonetie, and Mizamiche, or Miramichi, and by the French *St. Croix*. They are tall and well shaped, civil and hospitable, and their women handsome and chaste, except in some parts along the coasts, where the abuse of the French *aqua vitæ*, or brandy, hath given occasion to their losing that precious virtue, as it hath the men that of their affability. For these drink it to such excess as to become quite cruel and brutal, insomuch, that upon the least dislike, with, or even without an

occasion



## G A S

occasion given, they fall foul not only on their friends as well as strangers, but even on their wives and children, massacring all that come in their way: and, if not prevented, they make attempts on their own lives. One singularity observed by Clerc, a monk that lived among the Gaspesians, especially along the river Miramichi, is, that though they shew no sign of religion, except bowing to the rising sun, yet even a long time before the Europeans came among them, they have had a great veneration for the cross which they used to carry about them as a powerful preservative; whence the French called them at first cross-bearers, and their river La Croix. They are also represented as having been more expert mariners than their neighbours; to have had a knowledge of the greater and lesser bear, and to have divided their compass into five different parts, or winds; besides several other particulars relating to their reckoning of time, sailing, &c. See the same author's *N. Relat. de Gaspesie*, Paris 1691.

With regard to Gaspé itself, it is not remarkable for any thing, only that it takes its name from the bay on which it is situated, and which lies between the Cape des Rosiers, and l'Isle Percee, or the Hollow island, above-mentioned. Besides this bay are two other noted ones upon this coast, namely, des Chaleurs and Campsieus; all which are mostly frequented by fishermen, who commonly catch salmon, jack, cod, porpoises, and the like.

The savages, with whom treaties have been made in the parts confining on the gulph of St. Laurence, are the same with those of Acadia; but in these regions they have been called Gaspesians,

## G E M

pefians, from Cape de Gaspe, where most of the shipping moored. They are very tractable; but stay so short a time in a place, that in spite of the labours of the missionaries, they have not been able to instruct them in the truths of religion. By a letter written by F. Julian Perrault, in 1635, we learn that these savages took a pleasure in imitating whatever they saw the Europeans do; that having in particular observed that the latter frequently made the sign of the cross upon themselves, they used the same also; and when they met with any body, they drew the sign of the cross on different parts of their bodies; but without having at first the least idea of its being a mark or symbol of religion. This usage, which was already ancient from the time that F. le Clerc resided among the Gaspefians, and probably from that time had come into superstitious practice, might have persuaded this religious that it was so in its original; and it might possibly happen also, that having, on this head, asked some of these savages, such barbarians, as often confounding all their traditions, might seem to him to have ranked this among the most ancient of their customs: and thus through mistake they have been called Portecroix.

**GASPE**, the capital of a territory called Gaspefia, in Canada Proper, in North America, extending itself along the eastern coasts of this province from the Cape des Rosiers, at the mouth of St. Laurence river, to another promontory which lies opposite to Cape Breton, about 110 leagues, and stretches much further inland.

**GEMESIE, FORT OF**, in the river of St. John, in North America, after the taking of Pentagoet, in 1674, by 110 men under the command

## G E M

mand of an Englishman in a Flemish corsair, by surprise, fell easily into our hands soon after. And thus, says Mr. Charlevoix, Acadia, the whole defence of which consisted in these two forts, lay open to the incursions of the English. The author of this hostility, in the time of a profound peace subsisting between both crowns, had no lawful commission, continues he, and his proceedings were disavowed by his court. It was besides well known that he had an English pilot given him at Boston, and it was assured that the people of that place were very uneasy that the French should continue masters of Peutageot and Fort St. John. In 1680 both these places were restored; for the fourth time, to the French by the English, and afterwards a small town was erected at Port Royal; which from that time became the capital of the government, which, besides Acadia, comprehended all the southern coast of New France; but always, says Charlevoix, subject to the governor-general. The English, on the contrary, made continual encroachments, and after the restitution of Peutageot, they built between this post and Kinibequi, a good fort in a place called Penkuit. The Abenakis, to whom this territory belonged, were very much displeas'd at it; and the English soon found troublesome neighbours to these savages. They thought, that in order to have nothing to fear, they should set these at variance with the Iroquois, who did not require much entreaties to enter into a war with the Abenakis; and those being too weak to oppose the English and Iroquois at the same time, were oblig'd to enter into an accommodation with the former. The governor of Fort Penkuit carried his pretensions

## G E O

tensions further, and found no obstacle in his way: thus Acadia was not supported either on the part of Quebec, or that of France: so that Pentageot, and the fort in the river of St. John, were taken without striking a blow. The inhabitants of Port Royal, who saw the storm ready to burst upon their heads, resolved to enter into a treaty with the English, without M. de la Valliere, their commander, being able to hinder them: and thus the English, says the same French author, became masters, the fifth time, of Acadia, and all that tract which separates it from New England.

GEORGIA, a large tract of land in Carolina, on the borders of Spanish Florida, in North America. It is separated from South Carolina by the river Savannah on the N. has the Atlantic ocean on the E. is bounded by Indian Florida on the W. and parted from Spanish Florida on the S. by the river Alatamaha. Its extent is 170 miles from N. to S. near the sea, but widens in the more remote parts to above 150, and is 300 from the middle part of the sea-coast to the Apalachian mountains, or not much short of it, and stretches out on the N. W. even as far as the river Mississippi.

In 1732, some persons distinguished not only by their families and fortunes, but by their public spirit, and universal benevolence, pitying the distresses of great numbers of people in these kingdoms, who had no means of subsistence, bent their thoughts to consider how they might be employed, both for their own good, and that of the public; and being fully convinced, that this country, inferior to none of our possessions on the continent of North America for climate and situation,

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situation, was the most capable of becoming a fruitful, populous, and useful tract, though then lying entirely waste, and over-run with vast woods, which sheltered a few Indians, runaway negroes, and other banditti: being moreover convinced, that when these woods were in a great measure cleared, there could not be a more pleasant or fruitful country in the world; that a colony planted here would also be of unspeakable advantage to our settlements in Carolina, by becoming an effectual frontier against the Spaniards and French, or the incursions of the Indians instigated by either; the want of which security they had greatly complained of. The government had it likewise in their view to raise wine, oil, and silk, and turn the industry of this new people for the timber and provision trade, which the other colonies had carried on too largely, into channels more advantageous to the public. From these, and many other important reasons, these gentlemen were induced to apply to his present majesty George II. who was pleased to grant them a charter, dated the 9th of June 1732, constituting them a corporation under the name of Trustees for establishing a colony in Georgia; which included all that country situated in South Carolina, which lies from the most northern stream of the river Savannah, along the coast, to the most southern stream of the Alatomacha, and W. from the sources of the said rivers, respectively in direct lines, as far as the South, or Pacific sea. The charter granted the corporation the term of 21 years from its date, during which they were empowered to appoint all such governors and other officers, both by sea and land, as they thought fit, (the custom-  
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house officers excepted) provided that every such governor be approved of by his majesty: and that the militia of the country be subject in the mean time to the governor of South Carolina: but that after the expiration of the 21 years, the governor and all other officers should be nominated and appointed by the crown, and the property in chief revert to it. The said charter having impowered them also to have a common seal, the trustees had one with the following devices, namely, on one side two figures of rivers resting upon urns, and representing the Alatomacha and Savannah, the N. and S. boundaries of Georgia; and between these the genius of the colony, sitting with the cap of liberty on her head, a spear in one hand, and a cornucopia in the other, with this motto, 'Colonia Georgia Augusta;' on the reverse are silk worms at work with this motto, 'non sibi sed aliis.' The trustees being impowered also by their charter to collect benefactions, and lay them out in cloathing, arming, sending out, and supporting colonies of poor people, whether subjects or foreigners, till they could build houses, and clear lands; they not only subscribed liberally themselves, but obtained considerable sums from other well disposed people, and had a grant of 10,000*l.* from the parliament. All this the trustees employed in the proper necessities for transporting a colony into a country; of which they had previously published a most exaggerated and flattering description. In reality the country differs little from South Carolina, only that the summers are hotter, and the soil in general of a poorer kind. The colony was sent over under the care of Mr. Oglethorpe, who  
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very generously bestowed his own time and pains without any reward, for the advancement of the settlement; in November following went over with 116 poor people, mostly husbandmen, carpenters, bricklayers, and other workmen; who were not only furnished with their working tools, but instructed in military discipline, well fitted out with small arms and stores; besides tools for erecting fortresses, and 74 pieces of cannon for defending them. They were besides furnished with 12 tons of Parsons's best beer, and were also to stop at the Madeiras to take in wine. Large sums were afterwards collected, and 25,000*l.* at one time granted by parliament for the support of the planters. The Swiss, Saltburghers, and other foreign protestants, as well as the British planters, were furnished by the trustees with necessaries, till by their labour, and the produce of the country, they were able to subsist themselves.

The trustees having resolved upon the laying out of towns, assigned to every inhabitant a lot of 25 acres of land, as near as possible to his town. But having very well observed that many of our colonies, especially that of South Carolina, had been very much endangered, both internally and externally, by suffering the negroes to grow so much more numerous than the whites, an error of this kind they judged, in a colony which was not only to defend itself, but to be in some sort a protection to the others, would have been inexcusable: they for that reason forbid the importation of negroes into Georgia. In the next place they observed that great mischiefs happened in the other settlements from making vast grants of land, which the planters jobbed out again, to  
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the discouragement of the settlers; or what was worse, suffered to lie idle and uncultivated. To avoid this mischief, and prevent the people from becoming wealthy and luxurious, which they thought inconsistent with the military plan upon which this colony was founded, they allowed in the common course to each family but 25 acres, as has been said: and none could, according to the original scheme, by any means come to possess more than 500: neither did they give an inheritance in fee simple, or to the heirs general of the settlers; but granted them the lands inheritable only by their male issue. They likewise forbid the importation of rum into the province, to prevent the great disorders which they observed to arise in the other parts of North America. These regulations, though well intended, and meant to bring about very excellent purposes; yet might at first, as it afterwards plainly appeared, that they were made without sufficiently consulting the nature of this country, or the disposition of the people which they regarded. For in the first place, as the climate is excessively hot, and field-work very laborious in a new colony, as the ground must be cleared, tilled, and sown, all with great and incessant toil, for their bare subsistence, the load was too heavy for the white men, especially men who had not been seasoned to the country: the consequence of which was, that the greatest part of their time, namely, all the heat of the day, was spent in idleness, which brought certain want with it. It is true that all our colonies on the continent, even Virginia and Carolina, were originally settled without the help of negroes. The white men were obliged to the labour, and they



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they underwent it, because they then saw no other way: but it is the nature of man not to submit to extraordinary hardships in one spot, when they see their neighbours on another, without any difference in the circumstances of things, in a much more easy condition. Besides, no methods were taken to animate them under the hardships they endured. All things contributed to dispirit them.

A levelling scheme in a new colony is a thing extremely unadvisable. Men are seldom induced to leave their country, but upon some extraordinary prospects. The majority of mankind must always be indigent; but in a new settlement they must be all so, unless some persons are on such a comfortable and substantial footing as to give direction and vigour to the industry of the rest. Persons of substance found themselves discouraged from attempting a settlement, by the narrow bounds which no industry could enable them to pass; and the design of confirming the inheritance to the male line was an additional discouragement. The settlers found themselves not upon a par with the other colonies. There was an obvious inconvenience in leaving no provision at all for females, as in a new colony the land must be, for some time at least, the only wealth of the family. The quantity of 25 acres was undoubtedly too small a portion, as it was given without any consideration of the quality of the land; and was therefore in many places of very little value: add to this, that it was clogged, after a short free tenure, with a much greater quit-rent than is paid in our best and longest settled colonies. Indeed, through the whole manner of granting land, there appeared I know not what  
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low attention to the trifling profits that might be derived to the trustees or the crown by rents and escheats, which clogged the liberal scheme that was first laid down, and was in itself extremely injudicious.

The entailed male grants were so grievous, that the trustees themselves corrected that error in a short time. The prohibition of rum, though specious in appearance, had a very bad effect. The waters in this unsettled country running through such an extent of forest, were not wholesome drinking, and wanted the corrective of a little spirits, as the settlers themselves wanted something to support their strength in the extraordinary and unusual heat of the climate, and its dampness in several places disposing their bodies to agues and fevers. But what was worse, this prohibition in a manner deprived them of the only vent they had for such few commodities as they could send to market, namely, lumber and corn, which could sell no where but in the sugar islands; and under this restriction of negroes and rum, they could take very little from them in return.

These and several other inconveniencies in the plan of this settlement, raised a general discontent in the inhabitants; they quarrelled with one another, and with their magistrates; they complained; they remonstrated; and finding no redress, many of them fled out of Georgia, and dispersed themselves, where they deemed the encouragement better, to all the other colonies: so that of above 2000 people who had transported themselves from Europe, in a little time not above 6 or 700 were to be found in Georgia. The mischief grew worse and worse every day,  
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till the government revoked the grant to the trustees, took the province into their own hands, and annulled all the particular regulations that had been made. It was then left on the same footing with Carolina.

Though this step has probably saved the colony from entire ruin, yet it was not perhaps so well done to neglect entirely the first views upon which it was settled: these were undoubtedly judicious; and if the methods taken to compass them were not so well directed, this was an argument not against the designs themselves, but a reason for some change in the instruments designed to put them in execution. Certainly nothing wants a regulation more than the dangerous inequality in the number of negroes and whites, in such of our provinces where the former are used. South Carolina, in spite of its great wealth, is really in a more defenceless condition than a knot of poor townships on the frontiers of New England. In Georgia, the first error of absolutely prohibiting the use of negroes might be turned to very good account; for they would have received the permission for employing them under what qualifications soever, not as a restriction, but as a favour and indulgence: and by strictly executing whatever regulations we should make in this point, by degrees we might see a province fit to answer all the ends of defence and traffic too: whereas we have let them use such a latitude in that affair, which we were so earnest to prevent, that Georgia, instead of being any defence to Carolina, actually stands in need of a considerable force to defend itself.

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With regard to the scheme of vines and silk, we were extremely eager in this respect in the beginning; and very supine ever since. At that time such a design was clearly impracticable, because a few people seated in a wild country must first provide every thing for the support of life, by raising of corn, and breeding of cattle, before they can think of manufactures of any kind: and they must grow numerous enough to spare a number of hands from that most necessary employment, before they can send such things in any degree of cheapness or plenty to a good market: but now little is said of either of these articles, though the province is longer settled, and grown more populous.

At present Georgia is beginning to emerge, though slowly, out of the difficulties that attended its first establishment. It is still but indifferently peopled, though it is now upwards of 28 years since its first settlement. Not one of our colonies was of so slow a growth, though none had so much of the attention of the government, or of the people in general, or raised so great expectations in the beginning. They export some corn and lumber to the West Indies; they raise some rice, and of late have gone with success into indigo. It is not to be doubted but in time, when their internal divisions are a little better composed, the remaining errors in the government corrected, and the people begin to multiply, that they will become an useful province. But in order to see the justness of some part of the above reflections, it will be necessary to resume the thread of history, with regard to the settlement of Georgia. Before Mr. Oglethorpe's arrival in this country with the first colony,

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lony, in January 1732-3, (having in February following fixed at a town on the banks of the river Savannah, and given it that name) it was by the natives called Yamacraw, from an Indian nation, whose chief, Tomo-chichi, who had been banished with others from his own country, readily admitted and entered into a close friendship with him: which was the more agreeable to both parties, as there was no other Indian nation within 50 miles. About this time also the chief men of the Lower Creek nation, consisting of eight tribes, who are allied together, and speak the same language, though each under a distinct government, came to the number of 50 persons with their attendants, (some of them after a journey of five days) to make an alliance with this colony. These Indians laid claim from the Savannah river as far as St. Augustine, and up Flint river, which falls into the bay of Mexico: They addressed Mr. Oglethorpe by one of their monarchs, whom the English called Long King, as being tall; in which speech he first claimed all the land to the S. of the river Savannah; and concluded with saying that they freely gave the English up their right to all the land they did not use themselves. Then the chief men laid before Mr. Oglethorpe a bundle of buck-skins, being one from each of their eight tribes, which they said was the best present they had to make, and which they gave with a good heart. The long king did not forget to thank him for his kindness to his cousin Tomo-chichi and his Indians; saying, that though he was banished from his nation, he was a good man, and had been a great warrior, and that

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that the banished men had chose him their king for his wisdom and justice.

Next Tomo-chichi advanced with the Yam-macraw Indians, who were of the Creek nation and language, as did other chiefs, when articles of alliance and commerce were agreed on; and they were dismissed with presents, besides eight cags of rum for their respective towns. By this treaty the rates of goods were settled; reparation to be made for injuries on both sides; criminals to be tried and punished by the English law; the trade was to be withdrawn from any Indian town offending against the treaty. Finally, the Indians promised, with true hearts and love to the English brethren, to encourage no other white people to settle in their country: and to all this they set the marks of their respective families.

Next year also an alliance was made with another Indian nation in this country, called the Natchees; which tended very much to the security of the colony. And the same year the planters reaped their first crop of Indian corn, which yielded them 1000 bushels.

Mr. Oglethorpe, in a letter to a person of honour in London, gives the following character of the Creek Indians, with whom, especially their chiefs, he had some time conversed.

Their morals, says he, were so good, that I thought nothing was wanting to convert them to christianity, but a divine who understood their language. They abhor murder and adultery; they disapprove of polygamy, and know nothing of theft; though it is frequent, and even reckoned honourable by their neighbours the Natchees. Revenge and drunkenness seem to be their most favourite vices: though they do not think that

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any injury, except murder or adultery, deserves the former. As to adultery, they think the injured husband has a right to revenge by cutting off the adulterer's ears : and if he cannot do this, to kill him the first time he can do it with safety. As to murder, the next in blood is obliged to kill the murderer, else he is treated by his nation as infamous. And so weak is the executive power among them, that there is no other way to revenge the shedding of blood. For their kings can do no more than persuade, all the power they have being to assemble their old men and captains for their advice, in which they generally come to some unanimous resolution, or else break up the conferences without determining any thing. They seem, both in expression and action to be thorough masters of the oratory which we so much admire in the Greeks and Romans : their speeches are generally adorned with similies and metaphors : but in the conferences among the chief men, they are more laconic. In fine, they generally address themselves to the passions of the youth, and the reason of the old men. For instance, says Mr. Oglethorpe, Tomo-chichi in his first speech said to me among other things, ' here is a small present : ' and then he gave me a buffalo's skin, painted on the inside with the head and feathers of an eagle, which he desired me to accept, because the eagle denoted speed, and the buffalo strength : that the English were as swift as the bird, and as strong as the beast : since, like the first, they flew from the utmost parts of the earth over the vast seas ; and, like the second, nothing could withstand them. That the feathers of the eagle were soft, and signified love : the buffalo's skin warm, and signified



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protection; and therefore he hoped, that we would love and protect their little families.

Mr. Oglethorpe returning to England, in 1734, with Tomo-chichi, his wife queen Senauki, their son Tooana-kowki, one of their war-captains, and five other Indian chiefs, Tomo-chichi had an audience of his majesty at Kensington on the first day of August, when he made a speech, in which he told the king, 'that he was come for the good of the whole nation called the Creeks, to renew the peace which subsisted long ago with the English. I am come over, continued he, in such old days, that I cannot live to see any advantage of it to myself: I am come for the good of the children of all the nations of the Upper and Lower Creeks. These are the feathers of the eagle, which is the swiftest of birds, and fieth all round our nations: these feathers are an emblem of peace in our land, where they have been carried from town to town: and we have brought them over to leave with you, O Great King, as a sign of everlasting peace. O Great King, whatsoever words you shall say unto me, I will tell them faithfully to all the kings of the Creek nations.' His majesty returned a most gracious answer, as did likewise the queen, whom he addressed as follows.

'I am glad to see this day, to have the opportunity of beholding the mother of this great people. As our people are joined with your majesty's, we do humbly hope to find you the common mother and protectress of us, and all our children.'

The attendants of Tomo-chichi would willingly have appeared at court, as they commonly



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go in their country, which is quite naked, except a covering round their waist; but were dissuaded from it by Mr. Oglethorpe. However, their faces were variously painted, after their country fashion; some half black, others with triangular figures, and others with bearded arrows instead of whiskers. Tomo-chichi and his wife were dressed in scarlet trimmed with gold. They dined soon after with the lady Dutry at Pultney, and then waited on the archbishop of Canterbury; but his grace being very weak, Tomo-chichi only desired his blessing; and in a conference with his son-in-law Dr. Lynch, he expressed great joy to him, as believing that some good persons would be sent among them, in order to instruct their youth.

These Indians, particularly Tomo-chichi, shewed, during their stay here, that they were men of good sense, and besides hearty well-wishers to a friendly correspondence betwixt this nation and theirs; and desired of the trustees, that the weights, measures, prices, and qualities of goods to be purchased by them with their deer and other skins might be settled; and that no body might be allowed to trade with the Indians in Georgia without a licence from the trustees; that the Indians, in case of injury or fraud, might know where to complain. They further desired, that there might be but one storehouse in each Indian town, from which the traders might supply them with goods at the fixed rates, because they said the traders had often arbitrarily raised the prices of their goods, and given them short weight and measures; and, by their impositions of this kind, created frequent animosities between the English and the Indians; which

which had often ended in wars prejudicial to both of them. Upon these remonstrances the trustees prepared the following acts, which being laid before the king and council in January 1735, were, after a report from the board of trade, ratified by his majesty. 1. An act for maintaining the peace with the Indians in the province of Georgia. 2. An act to prevent the importation and use of rum and brandy in that province, or any kind of spirits, or strong waters. 3. An act for rendering the colony more defensible, by prohibiting the importation of negroes.

October 30, 1734, Tomo-chichi, &c. being conducted in the king's coaches to Gravesend, embarked for their own country, after four months stay in England; during which time they were allowed by his majesty 20l. a week for their subsistence, and were very magnificently entertained, not only by the court, but by several persons of distinction: and every thing remarkable in London and Westminster shewn them, in order to give them a just idea of English politeness, and of our nation's regard for the Creeks; in return for which they promised inviolable attachment and fidelity to the British nation. They carried presents from hence to the value of 400l. and the duke of Cumberland, then but 13 years of age, presenting the young prince Tooana-kowki with a gold watch, told him at the same time to call upon Jesus Christ every morning when he looked upon it; which he promised to do. In the same ship went with them 56 Saltzburghers, who, with another body of them that followed not long after, settled in a town by them called Ebenezer, upon the river Savannah:

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and by their sobriety and industry have become a thriving settlement.

In 1735, a ship from Georgia brought over to England a speech made there by one of the Indian kings of Cherrickaw, &c. It was curiously written in red and black characters on the skin of a young buffalo, and translated into English as soon as delivered in the Indian language, in presence of above 50 of their chiefs, and of the principal inhabitants of Savannah. The said skin was set in a frame, and hung up in the Georgia office in Westminster. It contained the Indians grateful acknowledgments for the honours and civilities paid to Tomo-chichi, &c. their admiration of the grandeur of the British court and kingdom; and expressed their great happiness in Mr. Oglethorpe's coming among them.

The trustees of Georgia being encouraged by an extraordinary supply of 20,000*l.* granted by parliament, and considerable benefactions, as well in Carolina as in England, began to think of making very considerable embarkations to strengthen the S. part of Georgia; and resolved that these should mostly be of people from the N. of Scotland, and persecuted German protestants, in order to obviate any objection that might be made against sending our own poor away. In pursuance of which, not only the above-mentioned Saltburghers, but 160 Scots highlanders, were sent over in 1735, the latter of which arrived in Georgia the January of the year following, and settled on the Alatamaha river, 16 miles by water from the island of St. Simon, in a district which, at their desire, is to this day called Darien, where they soon after built a town, to which they gave the name of New Inverness.

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Next month Mr. Oglethorpe arrived again in Georgia from England with 47 persons, who were settled on the island of St. Simon; and hands were set to work on building the town of Frederica. He was welcomed by Tomo-chichi, &c. and the Creek Indians, who came down upon this occasion; and in consequence of their claim of right to this country, were treated with; and accordingly agreed that the English should possess not only St. Simon's, but all the adjacent islands.

In the same month of February the Saltzburghers were, at their own request, removed by Mr. Oglethorpe from Ebenezer to a place they liked better, at the mouth of the river, where he marked out another town for them called by the same name.

In September following a treaty was concluded between Mr. Oglethorpe and the governor of St. Augustin, by which it was particularly stipulated, that the English garrison and artillery should be withdrawn from the island of St. George, (which lies near the influx of St. John's river and the Atlantic ocean, 40 miles N. of Augustin) provided that none of the king of Spain's subjects, or other persons, should inhabit or fortify the said island: and that it should not prejudice the right of the king of Great Britain to the said island, or any other of his dominions, or the claims of his majesty to the continent.

In the spring of the year 1737, upon advice from Carolina, that notwithstanding the late treaty, which it seems was not relished at the court of Madrid, the Spaniards were preparing at St. Augustin and the Havannah to make an attack on the colony of Georgia, his majesty

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ordered a regiment of 600 men to be sent to Georgia: and, for their encouragement, the trustees of the colony made a grant for an allotment of five acres in land to each of these soldiers, to cultivate for his own use and benefit, during their continuance in this service: and resolved that if any one was inclined to quit it at the end of seven years, and settle in the colony, he should not only have a regular discharge, but, on a proper certificate of his good behaviour, be entitled to a grant of 20 acres of land. This year also the parliament granted the colony another supply of 20,000*l.* and the trustees sent off another embarkation of persecuted German protestants: in consequence of which, among other measures taken for defence of the colony, a considerable fort was begun at Savannah.

The trustees, who had by letters and instructions to the magistrates of Georgia, constantly exhorted and encouraged the people to a cultivation of their land, as that on which they were solely to depend for their support, struck off from the store all such as had neglected it, which carried off many of the colony, who had gone thither from the mother-country, or had joined it from other parts of our American colonies, purely to gain a year or two's subsistence; and also several others, who, for want of considering the hardships that attended the first settlement of a country, were weary of their labour.

In March 1738, the trustees of Georgia, upon finding that the people of the colony were uneasy at the tenure of their lots being confined to heirs male, resolved, that in default of such issue, the legal possessor of any land might by his last will, or other written deed, appoint his daughter,

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daughter, or any other female relation, his successor, provided that the lot so granted and devised should be personally claimed in the proper court in Georgia, within 18 months after the death of the grantor or devisor. And soon after this, every legal possessor was empowered to appoint any other person as his successor.

In September 1739, they also caused it to be published in the London Gazette, as they did afterwards in that of Carolina, 'That the lands already, or hereafter to be granted, should not only, on failure of male issue, descend to the daughters of such grantees; but if there were no issue, either male or female, the grantees might devise such lands: and that, for want of such devise, such lands should descend to the heirs at law; provided that the possession of the person who enjoyed such devise should not be increased to more than 500 acres: and that the widows of the grantees should hold and enjoy the dwelling-house, garden, and one moiety of the lands their husbands should die possessed of, for the term of their lives.' And moreover, to shew how very desirous the trustees were of giving the people of this colony all the satisfaction imaginable, they caused it to be added, that no fee or reward should be taken directly or indirectly for entering such claim by any persons whatsoever.

In the mean time the inhabitants of Frederica had, in three days, cut a road of six miles through thick woods from the town to the soldiers fort. In October, Tomo-chichi, together with four other Indian kings of the Creeks, 30 of their warriors, and 52 attendants, waited on general Oglethorpe at Savannah; and acquainted



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him, that though the Spaniards had decoyed them to St. Augustin, on pretence that he was there, and offered them great presents to fall out with the English, they adhered inviolably in their fidelity to his Britannic majesty; and that the Creek nation would march 1000 warriors wherever he would command them. As the Indian traders who came amongst them from Carolina used bad weights, they desired that general Ogiethorpe would order them brass weights and sealed measures, which should be lodged with each of the respective kings: and at the same time invited him to come up the ensuing summer to see their towns; which he accordingly promised to do. After the general had made them handsome presents, they danced all night, and set out next day for the towns which lie 400 miles to the W. of Savannah.

Next year the general, in compliance with their invitation, travelled through a country very little known, and very difficult for Europeans, to the town of Coneta, though not less than 500 miles from Frederica. Here he conferred not only with the chiefs of all the tribes of this nation, but also with the deputies of the Chictaws, and Chickefaws, who lie between the English and French settlements: and on the 21st of August he made a new treaty with the nations of the Lower Creeks, more ample than the former; which we shall the rather insert, as it shews the situation and limits of the Creek nation, as set out by themselves.

The whole estates, after unanimously declaring that they adhered in their ancient love to the king of Great Britain, and to the agreements made in 1733 with the trustees, farther declared, that



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that all the dominions, territories, and lands, from the Savannah river to St. John's river, and all the intermediate islands, and from St. John's river to the bay of Apalache, and from thence to the mountains, do by ancient right belong to the Creek nations, who have maintained possession of it against all opposers by war, and can shew heaps of the bones of their enemies by them slain in defence of their land. And they further declared, that neither Spaniards, nor any other nation, have any right to the said land; and that they will not suffer them, or any other person, except the trustees of Georgia, to settle on the said lands. And they acknowledge the grant which they have already made to the said trustees of all the land upon the Savannah river as far as the river Ogeeche; and all the lands along the sea-coasts as far as St. John's river, and as high as the tide flows, and all the islands as far as the said river, particularly the islands of Frederica, Cumberland, and Amelia, to which they have given the names of his Britannic majesty's family, out of gratitude to him: but they declare, that they did, and do reserve to the Creek nation all the land from Pipe-makers-Bluff to Savannah, and the islands of St. Catherine, Ossebow, and Sappalo. And they further declare, that the said lands are held by the Creek nation as tenants in common; and Mr. Oglethorpe doth declare, that the English shall not enlarge or take up any lands, except those granted as above to the trustees by the Creek nation, and will punish any person that shall intrude upon the lands so reserved.

This same year, namely, 1739, Mr. Augspurger, a Swiss, brought over from Georgia a parcel

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parcel of raw silk, and deposed before a master in chancery, that he received it from Thomas Jones the trustees store-keeper at Savannah, who told him it was the produce of Georgia; which being shewn to an eminent silk-weaver, and a raw silk merchant, they declared it was as fine as any Italian silk, and worth at least 20 shillings a pound.

This year also the trustees extended the tenures so far, that the daughter of any grantee, or any other person, was made capable of enjoying, by devise or inheritance, any number of acres not exceeding 2000. A licence was also granted to all the land-owners in Georgia, to lease out any part of their lots, for any term not exceeding three years; and that to any person then residing in Georgia, and who should hereafter reside there during the term of such lease.

A general release was likewise passed afterwards, by which no advantage was to be taken against any of the present land-owners in Georgia, for any forfeiture incurred at any time before Christmas 1740, on account of the tenure or cultivation of land: and the possessors of 500 acres were not obliged to cultivate more than 120 acres thereof in 20 years from their grants: and those who had under 500 acres, and above 50, to cultivate in proportion, in order to prevent any forfeiture for want of cultivating the quantities required. Thus the freeholders in Georgia are really become tenants in tail general; and have more power than is commonly given in marriage-settlements, because they may, with the licence of the common council of the trustees, mortgage or alienate; and, without any application, have it absolutely in their power, on failure

G E O

failure of issue in tail, to dispose thereof by their last will.

Thus have we traced the history of this new colony of Georgia from its first settlement to the present time; whence it will appear, among other things, how much the public is interested in the support of such a barrier as Georgia is, by its natural situation, to other northern colonies on the continent. And the importance of this settlement to Great Britain will be further evident, when it is considered, that it has proved the most effectual expedient possible for securing the Indian nations in its interest, which inhabit the vast countries to the W. of Georgia; especially considering the views which the French had of the same kind, who thought, in a little time, to have completed that chain of correspondence, and indeed of contiguity between their colonies of Canada and Louisiana, on which their being formidable to us in North America absolutely depended: since, if they had brought their scheme to bear, they would have surrounded all our colonies on the continent from Nova Scotia to Georgia. But by this settlement we seem to have broke the links of their intended chain, by engaging in our interest those very Indian nations that are most capable of doing them service, and hurting us; particularly the faithful and brave nations of the Upper and Lower Creeks, a country so called from its being intersected with rivers, and extending from that of the Savannah to the lakes of Florida, the Cherokees mountains, and the river Coussa.

The western boundary of Georgia is all that territory claimed by the French in Louisiana, and by the Spaniards in Florida. The land of this

## G E O

province, lying low near the sea, is covered with woods; but begins to rise into hills at the distance of 25 miles from the shore, which at length terminate in mountains, running in a line from N. to S. on the back of Virginia and Carolina, and ending in Georgia, about 200 miles from the Apalachee bay, in the gulph of Mexico. The country being level from the foot of those mountains to the sea, made it necessary to fortify the banks of the Savannah and Alatamaha, in order to prevent the incursions of the French and Spaniards by land. Canoes may sail on the former river for 600 miles, and boats for 300. The coast of Georgia is defended from the fury of the ocean by a range of islands running along it; and the islands and continent being well furnished with wood, the intermediate channel is very delightful. Upwards of 70 miles from the coast of Georgia are sand-banks, and the water shoaling gradually, till within six miles of land, the banks are so shallow as to be further impracticable, except in the channels between these bars; which were thought a sufficient defence against an enemy's fleet: yet, in July 1742, the Spaniards, to the number of 5 or 6000 men, besides Indians, in about 50 vessels from St. Augustine, after passing these channels, made a descent upon Georgia; particularly they attacked the island of St. Simon, which, with the town of Frederica, would have been lost, had it been not for the bravery of the English and good conduct of general Oglethorpe, who, assisted by a small body of Indians, under the command of Tomo-chichi's son, soon repulsed them, and utterly frustrated their scheme: and though one of the forts of St. Simon was abandoned

## G E O

done upon this invasion of the Spaniards, yet upon the general's approach they abandoned it with some precipitation.

Georgia has not a very fertile soil; but is a good barrier, as has been said, against the French and Spaniards, with their Indian allies; for which reason the parliament of Great Britain have at different times, as has been already shewn, granted considerable sums for planting and fortifying it: but misunderstandings arising between the general and the government of South Carolina, (of which private animosity we had but too many fatal instances in the late war with Spain) this colony is not in such a defensible state as to resist the attacks of the French and Spaniards; and besides, the general was not supplied with the necessary stores, nor properly seconded by those most nearly concerned in the event of his enterprises.

After passing the above-mentioned bars, ships meet with a secure and commodious harbour in the mouth of the Savannah river; and to the S. of it is a still more capacious road, called Teky-sound, where a large fleet may anchor in between 10 and 14 fathoms water, being landlocked, and having a safe entrance over the bar. The tide of flood generally rises on this coast to seven feet.

In Georgia are several towns already built by the trustees of that colony; particularly two already known in trade, namely, Savannah and Augusta, besides Ebenezer, which see; all three situated on the river of the former name. Savannah is the capital of the colony: and in the S. division of Georgia is Frederica, on the island of St. Simon, in the mouth of the river  
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## G E O

Alatamha, with several forts to defend the island and neighbouring country.

The reverend Mr. John Westley, who a few years ago was minister of Savannah, to which he went over with Mr. Oglethorpe, and had a particular conference there with some of the chiefs of the Chickesaw Indians, gives us an account of their sense of a divine providence in the following particulars; and how well they were thereby prepared for receiving the gospel. They said they believed that there are four beloved things above; namely the clouds, the sun, the clear sky, and he who lives in it; that he made all men at first out of the ground; that if he will, he can save men from their enemies, be they ever so numerous, and destroy them all. They acknowledged that when bullets flew thick on each side of them, and though they had even entered the bodies of some of them, he (the good-being) did not suffer them to hurt the one, or kill the other: that when their enemies came against them, the beloved clouds came in their behalf: so that much rain had often fallen upon them, and sometimes hail, and that in a very hot day: that when many French and Indians came against one of their towns, the beloved ground made a noise under them, and the beloved ones in the air behind them, like that of drums, guns, and shoutings; whereupon their enemies were afraid, and all went away, leaving their provisions and guns behind them. The Indians added, that they always think of these beloved ones wherever they are: that they talk of them, and to them abroad and at home, in peace, in war, before and after battle; and indeed whenever, or wherever, they meet. They



G E O

They believed, that the souls of bad men walked up and down the place where they died, or where their bodies lie: and that there are only a few whom the beloved one chuses for children, and is in them, takes care of them, and teaches them.

We shall next proceed to the natural history of Georgia. This country produces Indian corn, as also wheat, oats, and barley, of which the two last grains grow best. Very good wheat is likewise reaped in May; and they mow the grass in June. Here are potatoes, pumkins, water and musk melons, cucumbers, all sorts of English green pease (which, with proper care and culture, may be had almost the whole year round) and garden-beans, but the Windsor sort will not flourish here; Indian pease, all sorts of fallading the year round, and all sorts of sweet herbs, and pot-herbs: rice too, were it proper, might be cultivated here with success. Here are nectarines, plums, and peaches; which three, especially the last, are almost as common as apple-trees are in Herefordshire. The plums are ripe the beginning of May; peaches and nectarines the latter end of June. Here are no hazle-nuts, but chincapins very sweet and good; wild grapes in abundance, which are ripe in June; as also four or five sorts of good wind-berries; presimmins, much like our medlars; wild cherries, that grow in sprays like currans, and are not much larger, but taste like a small black cherry, and are ripe in May. Here are a few English cherries in the gardens and orchards; also apple, pear, and a few apricot-trees: many of the apple-trees bear twice a year; but the latter

## G E O

latter crop is small. Here are great quantities of white mulberry-trees, the fruit of which is not to compare with those of England, though the leaves are the best food for the silk worms. Olives flourish here in the greatest perfection; and so do oranges, especially in the S. part of the province, where an orange-tree has been known, in seven years, to rise 15 feet from the root to the branches. The chief timber-trees are pines in abundance, six or seven species of oaks, hiccory, black walnut, cedar, white and black cypress, white and red laurels, bays, myrtle, of whose berries they make candles; sassafras, an infusion of which makes good drink; beech-trees, and many others which have no particular name. In some places here the land is as good as any in England, were there but hands enough to cultivate it.

This country affords a great deal of wild game, particularly in winter, that is, from the beginning of November to the month of March; such as wild geese, ducks, teals, and widgeons, wild turkeys from 20 to 30 pounds weight, turtle-doves in abundance, curlews, sand-birds, woodcocks, and partridges, but much smaller than in England; deer, a creature between a rabbit and a hare, which is very good eating: and when it is very cold weather in the northern parts of America, here are vast flights of wild pigeons, which are very easy to shoot. The chief game here in the summer season is deer and ducks, which latter are called summer-ducks; and the poorer sort of people kill great numbers of possums and racoons: the possums, if young and fat, eat very much like a sucking pig; and the taste of the racoons, which are  
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commonly fat, resembles that of lamb. The  
 possums have a false belly, or natural pouch, into  
 which the young ones run if they are frightened ;  
 and then it immediately closes up like a bag or  
 purse. Here are many tygers, but small, and  
 bears, the flesh of whose cubs eats like that of  
 young pigs. Here are wild cattle, and wolves,  
 that often run away with the calves of the tame  
 ones. In the woods are abundance of snakes,  
 but none venomous, except the rattle snake ; for  
 the bite of which, however, the Indians have a  
 secret and sure remedy, if applied in a little time  
 after it. In the rivers are abundance of sharks  
 and alligators. Here is plenty of fish, which, in  
 summer especially, are very cheap, such as  
 trouts, mullet, whittings, black-fish, rock-fish,  
 sheeps-heads, drum-fish, bass, sturgeons, which  
 are hard to catch, and sundry other very good  
 kinds. With regard to shell-fish, here are  
 oysters innumerable, but not so good as the  
 English, crabs, clams, muscles, coucks, and  
 prawns, so large that half a score of them will  
 serve a moderate stomach.

Provisions here are all at a reasonable rate ; as is  
 the beer of Old England, the rum of our plan-  
 tations, Lisbon and Madeira wines, (which last  
 is the principal wine drank here) likewise bran-  
 dy. Here are oranges and limes very cheap,  
 and ere long will be much cheaper, great quanti-  
 ties having been lately planted. In the mean  
 time they have oranges from Charles-town, in  
 Carolina. Soap is made here very cheap, as in  
 Georgia is plenty of pot-ashes.

But of all manufactures, none seems so prac-  
 ticable, and withal so beneficial here, as the rai-  
 sing of silk, the soil of Georgia being extremely  
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## G O L

proper for the culture of mulberry-trees, and the climate no less agreeable to silk-worms. There are great hopes too of raising wine here in time, though hitherto this has met with some difficulties. The external coat of the natural grape produced here is not strong enough to contain the juice: so that, when ripe, it bursts. The frosts about the vernal equinox often kill the vines also, when shooting: and with regard to European grapes, many of them are destroyed by the insects of this country. Yet experience has shewn, that by grafting the European on the wild vine, all these inconveniencies are in a good measure prevented: for then it shoots later, and thus escapes the frost better, the skin of the grapes becomes thicker and stronger, and the insects do the less harm. Some vines brought hither from Portugal and Madeira have thriven very well, even in the most barren parts of the province. In fine, nothing is wanting in this country but a sufficient number of inhabitants, to render our settlement as fruitful and beneficial as it is pleasant.

The principal town of Georgia is Savannah; which see.

GERMANTOWN, in the county of Philadelphia, and province of Pennsylvania, in North America, is the most considerable place, next to the city of Philadelphia, in all this country; and is a corporation, consisting of High and Low Dutch: in it are between 2 and 300 houses: peach-trees are planted all along before the doors; and the town is very pleasant, and well cleared from trees.

GOLD RIVER, according to Wafer, lies to the southward of the river Santa Maria, in the Terra

## G O Y

Terra Firma, or Isthmus of Darien, in America, affording gold-dust in great plenty; whence it has obtained its name.

GOSTEN, a village in the county of Orange, and province of New York, in North America. It is fruitful in cattle, cheese, pasture and butter. Near it are woods of white cedar, and black walnut-trees.

GOYOGOUIV, the third canton of Acadia, or New France, bordering on New York to the westward; and hence, with those of Onneyouth, Onantagne, and Tsonnouthonan, following each other in order, are called the Upper-Cantons, unless they have been so denominated from meeting with them in the arrangement as one goes up the river of St. Laurence, and the lake Ontario, through which that river runs. This canton of Goyogouin surpasses all the others in the goodness of the soil, and mildness of the climate: and the inhabitants take a little after it, for they have still appeared the most tractable amongst all the Iroquois.

Over the whole extent of these five cantons, our European fruit-trees may be cultivated with success: several grow of themselves there without culture; and others are to be found there which are unknown to us. The forests in these parts abound with chesnut and filbert-trees of all sorts: the one bears a fruit which is quite mild, and the other very bitter: but passing them through ashes, a good oil is extracted from them by means of a mill, fire, and water, in the same manner as we do from linseed. In several places are cherries without kernels, very good to eat; also a tree, the blossom of which resembles our white lilly, and its fruit of the size and colour

## G O Y

colour of an apricot, with the taste and smell of a citron.

Here is also a wild citron-tree, which is very small: its fruit, of the magnitude of a china-orange, is very agreeable to the taste, and very refreshing: it issues from the middle of two leaves, which are of the form of a heart; but the root of this plant is poison. Here are apple-trees, the apples on which are of the figure of a goose-egg, and the seed a kind of bean: this fruit is sweet-scented, and very delicious: it is a dwarf-tree which requires a rich and moist soil: the Iroquois have brought it from the country of the Eriez. They have also carried from the same place a plant which the French missionaries have termed *plante universelle*, i. e. the universal plant; the leaves of which, when bruised, close all sorts of wounds: these leaves are as large as one's hand, and of the figure of a flower de lys: the root of this plant has the smell of a laurel, or bay-leaf. These savages have a great many more roots which are fit for dying, and some of them give a very lively colour. See **IROQUOIS.**

**Goyogouins, Bay of,** in New France, in North America, lies 10 leagues from the river of Onnontague. All the coast in this space is intermixed with marshes and high grounds a little sandy, covered with very fine trees, especially oak, which seem to have been planted by hand. In this bay, P. Charlevoix being obliged to take shelter from a violent squall of wind, he found it to be one of the finest places he ever saw. A peninsula well-wooded stretches out to the middle of it, and forms a kind of theatre. On the left hand, at entering it, one perceives in a corner a little island,



## G R A

Island, which hides the mouth of a river, by which the Goyogouins go down into the lake.

**GRACIAS A DIOS**, a town belonging to the province of Honduras, or Comaiagua, and audience of Guatemala, in North America. It is situated at the mouth of a river upon a rocky mountain, which has some gold mines in its neighbourhood; and it was built the same year as Valladolid the capital, from which it lies about 27 leagues to the W. for the security of the miners. Mr. Gage says, that the neighbouring valley abounds in wheat, which, for the most part, is transported to Guatemala; and it breeds very good horses and mules.

**GRANADA, ISLAND OF, or GRENADA**, one of the Caribbee islands, in the Atlantic ocean. It is situated in lat. 12. N. and long. 61. 40. W. about 20 leagues N. W. of Tobago, and 30 N. of New-Andalusia, on the continent of America, to which this is the nearest of all the French islands in the Antilles. Labat makes it 45, others but 30 leagues S. W. of Barbadoes, and 70 from Martinico. Its extent from N. to S. is in form of a crescent, being between 9 and 10 leagues in length, and 5 where broadest. Father Tertre reckons it to be twice as large as St. Christophers, and about 24 leagues in compass: but Labat says, that those who have travelled it round make its circuit to be at most but 22 leagues.

Its original inhabitants were the Caribbeans, of which greater numbers were tempted to settle here than in other islands, on account of its fertility, wild game, and fishery. Mons. de Poincy attempted to settle on this island in the year 1638; and so did many others after him:  
but

## G R A

but they miscarried, because the Caribbeans were too powerful for them to cope with, and St. Christophers was too far off to give them any assistance. The honour of an establishment here, says Labat, was reserved for mons. Parquet, proprietor and governor of Martinico, who undertook it at his own expence. The first colony of French which he brought hither was 200 of the fittest men he could find in that island; furnished with presents to sooth the savages, and arms to subdue them in case of opposition. He arrived here, after four days sail from Martinico, in June 1650, was received with great joy by the captain of the savages; raised a pretty strong fort in less than a week's time, and having given the captain some linen-cloth, looking-glasses, bills, hatchets, knives, and other things which the Caribbeans wanted, besides two quarts of brandy, he yielded him the property of the whole island, in the name of all the Caribbeans, with a reservation only of their habitations. The French had just got in a crop of tobacco here, so good, that one pound of it was worth three of what grew in the other islands, when the Caribbeans first repented of their bargain, and without any declaration of war, they began with way-laying and assassinating the French stragglers, of whom several had been knocked on the head in the woods, as they were hunting; or in the bays, as they were turning tortoises: whereupon the French that landed, being reinforced from Martinico with more men, attacked the savages; who defended themselves with showers of arrows; but were at last forced to retire to a mountain, from whence they rolled down trunks of trees upon the

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the French: and being joined soon after by other  
 savages from Dominica and St. Vincent, fell  
 upon the French; but they were repulsed and de-  
 feated, many of them put to the sword, and 40  
 who escaped this slaughter and overthrow, ran to  
 a precipice, and cast themselves headlong into  
 the sea; for which reason it was afterwards cal-  
 led the Mountain of Leapers. The French  
 burnt their cottages, destroyed their gardens,  
 plucked up the Maudioca-roots, and carried off  
 every thing they met with: yet soon after the  
 savages rallied in separate bodies, and killed all  
 the French they found abroad in the woods, &c.  
 Upon this the French commander sent out 150  
 men, who surpris'd the remaining Caribbeans at  
 day-break, and put all the men, women, and  
 children they found to the sword, burnt their  
 cottages, destroyed all their provisions, seized  
 their boats, and thereby disabled them from  
 fetching any more succours from the neighbour-  
 ing isles: yet, notwithstanding all this, they fre-  
 quently rebelled; and some of the French plan-  
 ters having also mutinied against the proprietor,  
 Mr. Parquet, after he had almost exhausted  
 his estate by it, sold it, in 1657, to count de  
 Cerillac at Paris, with all the vessels, arms,  
 slaves, &c. for 90,000 livres, or 30,000 crowns.  
 The count sent such a tyrannical brute to govern  
 it, that the better sort abandoned it; and the  
 rest who stayed behind, after seizing him, shot  
 him dead. Nevertheless, in 1664, the count sold  
 this island to the French West India company  
 for 100,000 livres, though only 150 planters  
 were left out of 500 that were upon the island  
 when he took possession of it: and, in 1674,  
 the company was obliged to give it up into the  
 hands

## G R A

hands of the king. Such a change of masters only gave a deal of trouble and disturbance to the colony; so that it is but very lately that it has begun to thrive.

This island, according to fathers Tertre and Labat, enjoys a good air; and has a soil so fruitful, that all the trees upon it, both for fruit and timber, are better, straighter, taller, and larger, than those in the neighbouring islands, the cocoa-tree excepted, which does not grow so high here as in the other neighbouring islands. The most remarkable tree in this island is the Latin-tree, which has a tall trunk; and instead of boughs, bears leaves, like fans, in long stalks, which growing together in bundles, serve for the roofs of houses. Here are salt-pits, and plenty of armadillos, whose flesh is as good as mutton, and is the principal food of the inhabitants, besides tortoises and lamantins. The coast has abundance of fine valleys, watered with good rivers, most of which issue from a lake at the top of a high mountain in the middle of the island: and one of them runs into the sea on the S. W. where the shore is low, with good anchorage at the distance of 12 leagues; but an exceeding strong current, which both ebbs and flows in a few hours. Round the island are several little bays and harbours which serve for mooring of ships, and landing of goods, and some of the harbours are fortified. The whole E. coast is very safe, close by the shore, and the island is not subject to hurricanes. In short, the soil is capable of producing all the commodities of the climate. Its particular articles, besides cattle and wild fowl, are sugar, ginger, indigo, and tobacco, with millet, and pease. Along the

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Shore run mountains, and also about the harbour where the habitations are; but all the rest is a very fine country; and here is good travelling either for horses or carriages.

Its principal port, called Lewis, stands in the middle of a large bay on the W. side of the island, having a sandy bottom, where 1000 barks, from 300 to 400 tons, may ride secure from storms; and the harbour will contain 100 ships of 1000 tons, moored. Near the harbour is a large round basin, parted from it by a sand-bank, which, if cut, would hold a vast number of vessels: by reason of this bank large ships are obliged to pass within 80 paces of one of the two little mountains at the mouth of the harbour, and about half a mile asunder. Upon one of these a French engineer erected a fort, with a half-moon in front, and other regular works all of good stone. The fort between the harbour and basin is of wood 25 feet square, and surrounded with a strong palisade of entire trees; at the two corners towards the sea are two little wooden pavilions, in one of which lies the commandant. Mr. Paraquet, its first proprietor, resided in a great wilderness, encompassing the mountain which lies near the harbour, at the foot of which are magazines of bricks and timber. The church, which is not far from the fort, is built of canes laid upon forks; and its inside is as mean. In Paraquet's time, at every sixth cottage was a little centry-box erected, two stories high, to which the inhabitants of every six cottages retired in the night, to prevent their being surpris'd by the savages.

The Dominicans have a settlement four leagues N. of the fort, which is upwards of a  
 mile

## G R A

mile in breadth : through the middle of it runs a large river, abounding with eels, mullets, and cray-fish ; as the adjacent countries do with partridges, wood-pigeons, ortolans, thrushes, parrots, &c. Father Labat adds, that the people here are subject to obstinate fevers, which turn sometimes to a dropsy. Granada the most S. of the Caribbees lies 159 miles S. W. of Barbadoes. Lat. 12. 21. N. Long. 61. 36. E.

GRANADA, NEW, a province of Terra Firma, in South America. It borders on Carthagena and St. Martha's on the N. Venezuela on the E. Popayan on the S. and Darien on the W. Its length is reckoned to be 130 leagues, or 390 miles, and its breadth about 30 leagues, or 90 miles. It is surrounded with savage nations, who inhabit a very hot country ; though New Granada, generally speaking, is cold, or at least temperate. In the year 1536, Ferdinand de Lugo, admiral of the Cararies, sent Gonzalo Ximenes de Quesada his lieutenant from St. Martha, to discover the country situated along the great river Madalena. Ximenes travelled by land along the left bank of that river, but met with great difficulties on account of the thick woods, and vast number of rivers, rapid streams, and marshes, he had to cross; but principally on account of the frequent inroads of the natives. He came to a place named Tora, which he called Puebla de los Brachas, on account of four rivers that joined there. At this place he passed the winter, having travelled, as he reckoned, 150 leagues from the sea-coast up the land. Next spring he went up along the banks of another river, till he came to the foot of high mountains, called Opon, 50 leagues broad, very steep and desert :



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desert: having passed these, he came into an even plain country, well cultivated, where they gathered a great deal of salt from certain salt-springs. Thence he came with his people into the province of the powerful Cacique Bogota, whom they defeated. They afterwards plundered the villages of the Indians, where they found store of gold and emeralds. Thence they went into the country of the Panchos, separated from that of Bagota by little hills, and entered into a valley which they called the Trum-pet, 15 leagues distant from a very high mountain, bare of trees, and from which the Indians got emeralds. Whilst they stayed in that valley, they took an immense booty, and abundance of gold. Three days journey further, they subdued two other Caciques; and being returned into the province of Bogota, they passed through the country of the Panchos, and obliged the greatest part of the natives to make a peace after a long war. Ximenes judging that this country was now sufficiently discovered and subdued, called it the New Kingdom of Granada, because he was native of the province bearing that name in Old Spain, and built the city of St. Fe, which is the capital.

The natives use maize, or the cassava-root, instead of bread. They have plenty of salt, which they sell to great profit in the neighbouring countries, particularly those situated in the mountains, and along the river Magdalena. They have store of game: the lakes and rivers abound with fish: the natives are tall, and wear black, white, or variegated cloaks, which they tie round the waist with a sash. They adorn their heads with strings of painted flowers very

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ingeniously made of cotton. The country abounds with gold and silver mines: and as they have store of horses and mules, they send a great many of them into Peru. The country abounds with pasture, wheat, and other grain, and likewise with fruit.

**GRANDA**, a city in the province of Nicaragua, and audience of Guatemala, in Old Mexico, or New Spain, in North America. It is situated on the S. side of the lake of Nicaragua, 60 miles S. E. of Leon; where the Spaniards have mills for making of sugar, canes abounding in that neighbourhood. It is defended by a castle, is more populous and better built than Leon; and the inhabitants carry on a trade both to the North and South-Seas. It is the most frequented of any town in all Guatemala: for the merchants of Guatemala dispatch their goods from hence by the way of Carthagena, as thinking it safer than to send them by the gulph of Honduras, where they may often be intercepted by the English and Dutch. This town was taken in 1680, by French and English free-booters, who set fire to it. The intermediate country, lying between this city and Leon, is very fruitful and pleasant. Near Granada, on the side of Nicaragua-lake, is a volcano, which some say may be seen from the North-Sea; or at least a great way in the lake towards that sea. It is a frightful hill, being cleft down almost from the top to the bottom, like a broken saw, and our sailors call it the Devil's Mouth. Granada lies 51 miles W. from the city of Mexico. Lat. 11. 26. N. Long. 89. 12. W.

**GRANADILLAS**, a knot of dangerous islands and rocks near the Leeward islands, where the greatest

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GRANDE, a river in South America, and empire of Peru, near Cayanta, remarkable for its sands, enriched with gold-dust.

GRANVILLE, COUNTY OF, the most southern subdivision of South Carolina, in North America, of which the other three are Colleton, Berkley, and Craven. It is situated along the river Savannah, and reckoned the most convenient and fruitful part of all Carolina. Here a colony of Scots settled under lord Cardross, but were obliged to quit it for fear of the Spaniards: so that the country continued uninhabited by any Europeans till the year 1732, when one mons. Purry, a gentleman of Neuf-chattel in Switzerland, being encouraged by the government both in England and Carolina, undertook to settle a company of Swiss there: and accordingly 172 persons were transported thither the aforesaid year, who were soon followed by a great many more: so that in a very little time the colony consisted of above 300 persons. They settled on the northern bank of the river Savannah, where they built a town which they called Purrysburgh, about 36 miles above the mouth of the river. The side which Mr. Purry pitched on is in lat. 32. 20. N. on a spot of ground, formerly called the great Yamasee-bluff.

The colony still continued to increase: and in the year 1734, mons. Purry brought 270 persons more from Switzerland, who arrived safe at Purrysburgh: so that now in this new settlement are upwards of 600 souls, who were all transported thither within the space of two years. This was done in pursuance of a scheme proposed

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posed by mons. Purry to the assembly of South Carolina; and his scheme was to people the southern frontier of Carolina with brave and laborious people, such as the Swifs are known to be. The assembly of Carolina highly approved of the scheme, and in order to assist him in the execution of it, passed an act, dated the 20th of August 1731, by which they secured to him a reward of 400l. upon his bringing over to Carolina 100 effective men. In this act the assembly promised also to furnish provisions, tools, &c. for 300 persons for one year, appropriating to that use part of the negro-duty, which the king had granted on condition that it should be employed to settle poor protestants in Carolina. Purrysburgh is one of the 11 townships which were to be established in South Carolina by the 43d article of his majesty's royal instructions to the governor of that province, in which it is declared, That each of these 11 townships consist of 20,000 acres of land to be laid out in square plots of ground; that 50 acres (part of the above 20,000) shall be granted to every inhabitant at their first settling: and to the intent land near the township may not be wanting for the conveniency of the inhabitants, as their substance shall increase, no person, except the inhabitants, shall be allowed to take up any land, within six miles of the said townships respectively, to which the said township shall be contiguous. Besides these instructions to the governor, the property of 48,000 acres of land were granted to mons. Purry, upon condition that he should import, or cause to be imported into South Carolina 600 Swifs, within the space of six years; which

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which he performed in two years, as has been shewn above.

Not to enter into the discussion how far the promises made to mons. Purry have been performed, and what difficulties this new colony both had, and still has to struggle with; let it only be observed that if this colony had been properly supported and encouraged, it would have proved very beneficial to Carolina, being, together with Georgia, on account of its situation, a sort of bulwark against the inroads of the Indians; and perhaps of the Spaniards and French. It would also have proved very advantageous to Great Britain, because numbers of Vaudois, who are protestants, inhabiting the valleys of Piedmont, would have gone and settled at Purrysburgh, as a few of them have already done: but by far the greatest part of them were disheartened, upon hearing what usage their countrymen and the Swiss met with there. For the Vaudois making very fine silk in their own country, would have very much improved that manufacture in Carolina, whereby vast sums which are yearly sent from England into Italy for silk, would have been saved to the nation by the supply of that commodity from this country.

Purrysburgh consists now of upwards of 100 houses tolerably well built.

In the county of Granville is the river May, which joining with the river Cambage, forms, together with the sea, the island of Edelano. The country lying upon the banks of the May was formerly inhabited by an Indian nation, called the Vestoes. In it also is a pleasant lake, and delightful valley. Port Royal river lies about 15 miles to the northwards of the river

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May: it has a bold entrance, and 17 feet in depth on the bar at low-water. The harbour is large, commodious, and safe for shipping; and it runs up into a fine fruitful country, preferable to any other parts of Carolina. It spends itself, by various branches, into other large rivers. This port lies not above 180 miles from St. Augustine; and might be a great curb upon the Spaniards there, who have not a considerable settlement in those parts. The first English that came to Carolina thinking to settle here, were advised by the Indians to the contrary, because this harbour being the finest in this country, would have tempted the Spaniards to disturb them.

Beaufort is another town in this country. It is situated in the island of Port Royal. See **BEAUFORT**.

**GRATIAS A DIOS**, the name Columbus gave to a cape of Honduras, in Mexico and North America, upon his meeting with a favourable wind. It is situated in lat. 14. 36. N. Long. 84. 12. W.

**GUADALAJARA**, one of the three districts, governments, or courts of audience, into which Old Mexico, or New Spain, in North America, is divided: the other two are Mexico and Guatimala: this audience is also called the kingdom of New Gallicia. It lies the furthest to the N. of the three audiences of New Spain, though situated on the coast of the South-Sea. Its extent is between lat. 20 and 25 N. On the E. and S. it is bounded by Panuco, with several provinces of the audience of Mexico; on the N. by the kingdom of New Mexico; and on the W. it is washed by the South-Sea, and the gulph



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gulph of California, on the coast of which last it stretches above 200 leagues from S. E. to N. W. but within land it is very irregular, and the N. part, especially, is very narrow: yet in some places it is reckoned 500 miles-broad.

Its climate differs much, according to its situation, being partly in the Temperate, and partly in the Torrid Zone: yet it is much more temperate than any other part of New Spain; and in the general it is reckoned healthy: so that it is common for people to live here to 100 years of age: but it is much infested with gnats, bugs, and other vermin. The soil is mostly mountainous and woody: so that the coast looks like a desert. It is said, that the Spaniards have quite forsaken the coast on purpose, that if strangers should land, they may not find any temptation to stay, because, besides the silver mines in this province, some of gold have been lately discovered, which are of very great value: and they chuse to transport the ore on mules to Mexico, rather than run the risk of exposing so valuable a product to be intercepted by foreigners, if they ventured to send it in small vessels by sea. With regard to the rest, the country is pretty fruitful; and it produces European and Indian grain so plentifully, that the latter yields a hundred-fold, and the other two hundred: but it is often destroyed by locusts, and vast numbers of pyes, no larger than sparrows, as their olives are by ants. In this country are all sorts of fruits, herbs, and roots, better than those in Europe; plenty of sugar-canes, cochineal, and bees, said to be without stings. The pastures abound with all sorts of cattle; and the woods with venison, pine, and oak-trees; yet they are infested

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by wolves and scorpions. Here is medicinal pepper, which cures all sores; green-stones also, said to be a specific against the gravel, fragrant flowers, valuable drugs, and rich mines of silver, copper, and lead. On the coast also is a good pearl-fishery. The natives are subtle, treacherous, and lazy: they are armed with bows and arrows; and often attack the Spaniards from the woods, except when the Spanish officers are in conjunction with their caciques in the government. The better sort of Spaniards live here by trade, and are masters of the silver-mines: the others following tillage and grazing.

The Spaniards place an Indian cacique, with two Spaniards, over each village, who regulate the price of provisions. The Caciques are succeeded by their heirs: they are very sensible of affronts, and pride themselves in their valour. Such of the natives as pretend to be civilized, are very indolent and lazy, and will not work but for great wages. Their apparel is a shirt, and square cloak of cotton, fastened with two buttons before: they have drawers and coverlids of the same, and lie upon flags and mats made of these: they wear green stones and shells about their necks, arms, and legs. Their chief recreation is dancing to the sound of a hollow stick. Horse-flesh, and maize-cakes, are their principal and most delicious dainties; and chocolate and magney-wine, their favourite liquors.

This audience of Guadalajara is subdivided into the following seven provinces, as they lie from S. to N. namely, Guadalajara Proper, Xalisco, Chiametlan, Zacateens, New Biscay, Culiacan, and Cinaloa; all which see.

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**GUADALAJARA PROPER**, which is the principal province, and gives name to the whole audience, is bounded on the E. and S. by the province of Mechoacan; on the N. by that of Xalisco; and a corner of it washed by the Pacific ocean on the W. Notwithstanding its situation under the Torrid Zone, it is healthy, temperate, and fruitful; producing not only good timber, but European and Indian wheat in great plenty; and all the fruits found in both countries: besides the vast treasures of silver commonly taken out of its mines. It is not above 50 leagues either in length or breadth.

**GUADALAJARA**, a city of Mexico, and capital of the last mentioned province, bearing its name, or of New Galicia. It is the head of the audience, the seat of the royal court of justice, and a bishop's see of a considerable revenue, which is a suffragan to Mexico. It is a large, populous, and neat city, standing very pleasantly on the banks of the river Baranja, or Esquitlan, which issues from the lake of Mechoacan, whence it goes with a rapid stream towards the N. W. and at four leagues from this city it has a very high fall, after which it hastens into the Pacific ocean, between Xalisco and Chiametlan. It is no where fordable; so that the Spaniards cross it in boats. The lake of Chapala, which is said to be 40 leagues in circuit, lies on the S. side of this city. In this city are several churches, besides its stately cathedral, and some convents for both sexes. It is reckoned to lie 262 miles W. of the city of Mexico: and stands in a plain which is not only watered by the above-mentioned river, but by several brooks and springs that make it productive

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of great store both of corn and grass. About five leagues from it is a mountain of a prodigious height; and so steep that no beasts of burthen can climb it, and all the other mountains about it are craggy, and full of large pine and oak trees. It lies in lat. 20. 51. N. Long. 108. 20. E.

GUADALOUPE, or vulgarly GUARDALOUPE, one of the largest of all the Caribbees, in that division of them, called the Leeward islands. It is situated in the Atlantic ocean, in America. It was so called by Columbus, who first discovered it, from its resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Old Spain: the Caribbeans called it Karukera, or Carriceura. As soon as Columbus landed here, he and his Spaniards were attacked by a shower of arrows, shot by the women on the island, who were soon, however, dispersed by his fire-arms: upon which his men plundered and burnt their houses, or huts, where were found great quantities of honey, wax, iron, bows and arrows, cotton spun and unspun, cotton-hammocks, and looms for weaving; together with pompions, or a sort of pine-apples, mastic, aloes, sandal, ginger, frankincense, a sort of cinnamon-trees, and various fruits and herbs different from ours. The birds he saw here were large parrots, partridges, turtles, and nightingales; besides daws, herons, falcons, and kites. He found the houses here better and fuller of provisions than any he had seen in these islands. A voyage made to Guadalupe by the Spaniards, in 1625, gives the following account. The naked Barbarians of this, as well as the other islands, used to be very impatient for the arrival of the Spanish fleets once  
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a year: they reckoned up their months by moons; and when they thought the time drawing near, prepared sugar-canes, plantanes, tortoisés, and other provisions, in order to barter with them for iron, knives, and haberdashery-wares. The Indians had round canoes like troughs, painted with the English, Dutch, and French arms; this being then a common port for all nations that sailed to America. The hair of the natives hung down to the middle of their backs, and their faces were slashed and pinked. They had thin plates dangling at their noses, like hog-rings, and they fawned like children upon the Spaniards.

It is upwards of 60 miles long, and about the same breadth. According to Moll, this island is 15 miles N. W. of Marigalante; and it is reckoned to be 85 miles N. of Martinico. Till very lately, namely 1759, it was subject to the French; but commodore Moore and general Barrington have entirely reduced it to the obedience of Great Britain, whose troops are now in possession of it, and also of Marigalante. Guadaloupe is the largest and one of the finest islands which belonged to the French in those parts; being, according to father Tertre, near 100 leagues in circuit. He has given a map of it, which represents it as divided into two parts by a channel about a league and a half over, called the Salt-river, navigable only by canoes; which runs N. and S. and communicates with the sea on both sides, by a large bay at each end, of which that on the N. is called Grand cul de Sac; and that on the S. Petit cul de Sac. The E. part of the island is called Grande Terre, and is about 19 leagues from Antigua point on the

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the N. W. to the point of Guadaloupe on the S. E. and about nine leagues and a half in the middle, where broadest. The French geographer, M. Robbe, makes this part about 50 leagues in circuit. The W. part, which is properly Guardaloupe, according to Laet, is subdivided by a ridge of mountains, into Capes-terre on the W. and Basse-terre on the E. This is 13 leagues and a half from N. to S. and 7 and a half where broadest: and, according to M. Robbe, 45 leagues in circuit. Both parts would be joined by an isthmus a league and a half in breadth, were it not cut through by the said canal. Labat says, that the French were obliged to abandon Grande-terre in 1696, by the reason of the frequent incursions and depredations committed there by the English from Antigua and Montserrat. Besides, this part is destitute of fresh water, which is so plentiful in the other, (properly called Guadaloupe, as having been first discovered and inhabited) that it has enough to supply the neighbouring islands. He makes the latter 35 leagues in compass, and both islands together about 90. The Salt-river, he says, is about 50 toises, or 300 feet over at its mouth, towards the Great cul de Sac, from whence it grows narrower; so that in some places it is not above 90 feet over. Its depth is likewise as unequal as its breadth: for in some places it will carry a ship of 500 tons; and in others hardly bear a vessel of 50. It is a smooth, clear stream, above two leagues from the one Cul de Sac to the other, and finely shaded, for the most part, with mangroves.

The air here is very clear and healthy; and not so hot as in Martinico. Here is also plenty of

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of water, and as good as the soil is rich; which last is not inferior to that of Martinico. It is equally cultivated and fortified with equal strength. Its produce is the same with that of Martinico, and its export of sugar is as great, besides indigo, cotton, and those other commodities produced in all the islands of that part of America called the West Indies.

The French began to send colonies to Guadaloupe about the year 1632. But it made no great figure till the present century, since the beginning of which it has vastly increased. It is said to contain 10,000 European inhabitants, and 30,000 negroes. And the French have fortified it with several regular forts. Here Labat found the copau-tree, so famous for its sanative balsam, or oil; and which he had sought for in vain throughout all the French islands. It is a handsome tree, about 25 feet high, with a leaf like that of an orange-tree, only longer and more pointed, and of an aromatic smell; as is also its bark. Its wood is white and very soft; and it is of a quick growth. (See Labat's directions with regard to the time and method of cutting the bark to let out the balm.) It does not, he says, grow hard or dry, like the balsam of Peru; and he commends it as a specific for almost every malady, both internal and external. He also found here that called the milk-shrub, with a leaf resembling that of a laurel, only larger, thicker, and softer; and its fibres, when pressed, yield a liquor of the colour and substance of milk. It has blossoms of five or six flowers each, much resembling those of jessamine, and containing in the middle a little oval bud in which is two small grains or kernels, that

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are the seed of the tree. It also thrives very well from slips. The bark is a pale green without, and white within, and has a pith like that of an alder. The stem of the leaves is about an inch long, with a knot where it touches the bark. Labat commends its juice for almost as many virtues as the copau-tree. Here is also the monbane-tree, which bears yellow plums, where-with they fatten their hogs; and the corbary, a tree which bears fruit in a shell, containing a downy pulp of a saffron colour: and it yields a gum, which being hardened in the sun, becomes very clear: so that the native Caribbeans use it for bracelets and other ornaments. Here are pear-trees, like those of Europe with regard to the leaf, but they do not bear fruit. The chief product of the soil, besides what has been above-mentioned, is tobacco, cassia, bannanas, pine-apples, store of rice, maize, mandioca, and potatoes. Some of the mountains in the ridge aforesaid are overgrown with trees; and at the foot of others are large plains, watered by fresh and sweet streams. Among these is a sort of volcano continually smoking, which communicates a sulphurous taste to the rivers about it: and here are several boiling hot springs; particularly one to the W. side near the island of Goyaves, which are said to be good for the dropsy, and all distempers proceeding from colds. The two gulphs called the Culs de Sac, abound with tortoises, sharks, pilots, and the other fish common to these seas: and here is abundance of those called land-crabs, with swarms of musketos and gnats.

The forts of this island, as described by fathers Tertre and Labat, are, 1. Fort Lewis in the

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the Grande Terre, on the E. side of the bay called Petit Cul de Sac. It is too high to defend the vessels that anchor at the bottom of it: and therefore the French have erected a redoubt below it, with a battery of six guns which play into the road. From this fort may be seen not only the greatest part of the Cabes-terre and Grand Cul de Sac, and many small islands in the Petit Cul, with the islands of Xaints; but also the mountains of Dominica in clear weather. This fort lies in the parish of Gosier on the Grande Terre. Certain abysses, as Labat calls them, are in the Grande Terre, which are great indentures made in the land by the sea, affording shelter for vessels, in very deep water, from the hurricanes, or an enemy; and where they are moored to palm-tree-trees on each side.

2. The Great Cul de Sac contains a basin five or six leagues in length, from the point of Gros Morne in the Basse Terre, to that of Antigua in the Grande Terre. It is also nearly three leagues in the broadest part; and at least one in the narrowest; with safe riding for ships of all rates.

3. The Petit Cul de Sac is a populous, well cultivated, and trading parish, to the N. of that of Goyaves: and both are in the Cabes-terre, on the E. side of Guadaloupe Proper. Here are no less than eight rivers, besides near as many brooks that run into the sea in the space of four leagues, betwixt the river of Coin, which is to the W. of the Salt-river, and the Brick-kiln river.

Gingey comes up extremely well in the E. part of Proper Guadaloupe, betwixt the Great Cul de Sac, and the river of Cabes-terre. And though

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though the climate of these islands is very hot, the people eat a vast quantity of it, even when green. The Cabes-terre river, called the Great river, is in some places 180 feet wide. Its water is very clear; but almost impassable by reason of numerous rocks.

The next river to the S. is the Grand Carbet, and a little further is the Grand Bananiers, that terminates the quarter called Cabes-terre, which is by much the finest part of the island: For from this river to the Gros Morne, where begins the Grand Cul, it is a very even country, near 20 leagues in extent by the sea-side; which is only a league in some places, and at most but four from the mountains.

The quarter of the Trois Rivieres on the S. E. side is four miles broad, with a good soil for sugar-canes, and several considerable settlements. The French have here at the S. end, what they call the Old Fort for the security of the coast, which is very even, has good anchorage, and smooth water; where, should an enemy make a descent, and possess themselves of this part, they might cut off the communication betwixt the Cabes-terre and Basse-terre, and so make themselves masters of the whole. The French have therefore planted two guns at the point to give an alarm. And in the sulphur-mountains is a redoubt called Dos d'Asne, to which upon a descent, the French send their best effects, wives, children, &c. But the country here is so full of woods and precipices, that a handful of men might keep off an army.

The river of the Galleons on the S. W. side, where the French have another fort, is a considerable river; and when fordable, the only pas-  
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sage from the Cabes-terre to the Basse-terre. Here is excellent anchorage, but the water tastes of sulphur and vitriol, causing fluxes.

The chief fort of the whole island is that at the town of Basse-terre, two leagues N. from the point of the old fort; which, at the first peopling, consisted of two considerable towns; one close by the river St. Louis, or the Riviere des Peres, i. e. the Jacobine Friars river: the other on both sides of the Baliff river; where was at first a chapel, now turned to a parochial church. But the former having been carried away twice by the inundation of the river in a hurricane, the inhabitants removed towards the fort, where they built the latter town, which is now the principal town of the island, having several churches, monasteries, &c. and a castle with four bulwarks, besides a fort on a neighbouring mountain: yet it has been ruined more than once. In 1691 it was burned by the English, together with some other forts: and when entirely rebuilt, it was carried away by an inundation of the river Bailiff. It was begun to be rebuilt when the English burnt it again in 1703, together with Magdalen and other forts. This fort stands upon higher ground than the town: its walls are washed on the S. E. by the river Galleons; on the S. W. it faces the the sea, being only 100 paces from it; and on the N. W. side it looks towards the town and the mountains. The most considerable part of the town is between the fort and the river of Herbs; and this is properly the town of Basse-terre; and that which extends from the river to the brook of Billan, is called the town of St. Francis, from a church and convent of Capuchins in it. La-  
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bat reckoned the houses in both towns, in the year 1696, to be about 260, but generally of timber.

Betwixt the river Bailiff on the W. and the great river of Goyaves, or St. Charles, on the E. are the ruins of another fortification destroyed by the English in 1691. All the ground between the Bailiff river, and that of Plessis, is called rhe Marsh of St. Robert: The parish of Bailiff is separated by the Plessis river from the parish of the inhabitants, whither such retired as had, at the first settlement, served the term of three years, which they had contracted for with the company. Here is a river of the same name; and a little to the W. of it, another small one called Beangendre, the boundary of the inhabitants quarter. About half a league from hence is Ance a la Barque, a creek where the English made their descent in 1691, the most likely place for every man of them to be cut to pieces, had the general officers behaved as they ought, on account, says Labat, of the many defiles, difficult passes, mountains and rivers betwixt the landing-place and the fort of Basse-terre.

Labat met with no bird of passage in any of the islands, but in this and Dominica, whither they repair at a certain time of the year to couple, lay their eggs, and hatch their young. He supposes it to be the devil-bird, which is seen in Virginia and the neighbouring countries from May to October. It is of the size of a young pullet, its plumage black as jet, very short legs, with feet like those of ducks, but armed with strong claws, its back an inch and a half long, but crooked, sharp pointed, and extremely



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hard. It sees best at night, when it catches fish out of the sea, from which they return in the morning to the Devil's mountain, not far from Bailiff river, where they lodge by pairs in holes like rabbits. And at night when they fly out to sea, they make such a chatter, as if they called or answered one another. They stay here from the beginning of October to the end of November; and are not seen till January; and then only single ones in each hole till March, when they have two young ones, which before they are fledged are covered with a down like goslings, and called cottons. About the end of May they are ready to fly, and then are not seen nor heard till September. Their flesh is black, and has a fishy taste; but otherwise very good and nourishing. The young ones are the tenderest, but their fat is like oil. They are roasted or boiled, and served up with a ragout of orange-peel and the leaves of the Indian wood. These birds are the main sustenance of the negroes and poor people, who have nothing else to live on during the season; and our author, after calling them manna from heaven, thought it a great providence that these birds harboured in places so difficult to climb, as he found this mountain to be; otherwise the French would have destroyed the species long ago.

Father Labat accompanied four negroes in this kind of fowling, which took them up six hours before they got to the top of the mountain: when thrusting switches seven or eight feet long, with a crook at the end, into each hole where the devil is, which dogs trained up to the chase discover by barking at the entrance to it; the birds either fasten on the switch with their  
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beaks, and rather than quit their hold, suffer themselves to be dragged out: or if they do not bite the switch, it is turned round so often in the hole, till one of its wings being entangled in the crook, it is drawn out by force: so that by noon they had taken 198 of these birds.

The top of the mountain of Sulphur, to which Labat passed over the river St. Louis, he found bare, without any thing but fern, and some sorry shrubs full of moss. From hence he plainly saw not only Dominica, the Xaintes islands, and Marigallante; but he had a clear view of Martinico one way, as well as Monferrat, Nevis, and the neighbouring islands the other. He travelled round the hill among burnt stones and whitish ashes, which in some places were above his ankles, and smelt strong of sulphur. These increased the higher he ascended; and at the top, which is a vast rugged platform, covered with all sizes of burnt stones, smoke issued out from sundry clefts and chinks. On the E. side of the mountain he saw two mouths of this sulphur pit, one of which was oval, and he judged to be about 100 feet in its greatest diameter; but remembering the fate of Pliny, he durst not venture near to fathom its depth, it, every now and then, emitting thick clouds of smoke, with sparks of fire. The negroes who sell brimstone fetch it from this mountain. About 200 paces below the least and lowest mouth are three little pools of very hot water, four or five paces asunder, the biggest of which may be about six feet in diameter. Its water is very dark-coloured, and smells like that in a smith's forge. The second is whitish, and has the taste of alum. The third is blue, and of a

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vitriolic taste. Here are also several small springs, which uniting, form divers rivers or torrents: one of them called the White river from the ashes and sulphur covering it, falls into that of St. Louis. The middle and bottom of this burning mountain are as different from the top, as if in quite another country, being covered with a delightful verdure of tall trees and herbage, watered with abundance of rivulets, and very carefully cultivated.

The bees here are blacker and rounder than ours in Europe, but not half so big; nor do they seem to have any sting; or if they have, it is too weak to pierce the skin. They have no hives but in hollow-trees; their wax is black, or of a deep purple colour: and Labat says, that all the art of his countrymen could not turn it to white or yellow; besides it is too soft for candles; nor is it used here for any thing but serving over the corks of bottles, after it is thoroughly refined. The bees here lay their honey in little bladders of wax of the form and size of a pigeons-egg, though more pointed, and almost like the bladder of a carp. These, though they may be easily parted, are so artfully ranged, that there seems to be no void between them. These bladders are mostly full of honey; but in some of them is a yellow matter like the ovules of a carp, and glutinous, without any smell but that of honey. The negroes say these are the bees excrements; but they would seem rather to be the impregnated ovules in a state towards the formation of insects. Their honey is always liquid, of the consistence of olive-oil.

Here is another sort of flies, which are very extraordinary both in size and form. These Mr. Roche-

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Rochefort has mistaken for the phalanges; and captain Dampier for spiders. There are indeed spiders in these islands, some perhaps as large as a man's fist, but without horns, nor are they poisonous. The French are very cautious of destroying them, because they eat a stinking insect called ravets, of the size and almost the shape of May-bugs, but a little flatter and more tender, which gnaw paper, pictures, and other furniture, and foul wherever they pitch with their ordure. As they fly every where, and more by night than day, they either entangle themselves in these spiders-webs; or else if they pitch and happen to sleep, the spider, which is on the watch, seizes them napping, and sucks them till their skin is as dry as parchment. So much for the natural history of this island.

We shall now proceed to give some account of the French settlement on Guadaloupe. M. de Olive, or, according to Labat, M. de Loline, their lieutenant-general at St. Christophers, and M. du Pleffis, having made a contract with some merchants of Dieppe, arrived here in 1635, with a commission from the general company of the American islands at Paris, to plant colonies, and to be governors either of this island, Dominica, or Martinico. They brought with them 400 men, who were obliged to serve them three years for their passage; besides four Dominican friars, for whom cardinal Richelieu had obtained great privileges from pope Urban VIII. Eighteen of this order had, it seems, been murdered by the natives here in 1603 and 1604. The two governors landed first at Martinico in May, but going a-shore where they discovered a good number of serpents, and saw nothing else before  
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them but mountains and precipices, they came to Guadeloupe, of which they took possession, by erecting a cross with the usual ceremonies, as they had done at Martinico. But Labat says they landed at the very worst part of all Guadeloupe. When they had landed, each of the governors took his share of the men, provisions, and ammunition; but not without some quarrel. And they had several bickerings in the voyage, which brought great calamities afterwards upon the colony. M. de Olive built a little fort called St. Peter's, as he took possession on the eve of that saint's festival. The savages coming down were well received, and for a few presents helped the colony in building their cottages; furnished them with the Mandioca plant, of which they made cassavi, the bread of the country; as also with some seed of tobacco, cotton, and divers kinds of pease; taught them to make fishing-canoes, and to turn the tortoises and lamantines. In short, had it not been for the friendship of the savages, the colony would have perished through famine; for they brought only two months provisions from France; part of which being spoiled in the voyage, they were reduced to five ounces of bread each man; so that having no meal or salt meat left, they were forced to eat fresh tortoise, which threw many of them into bloody fluxes, of which they died. Some stayed on the island, where they were civilly entertained by the savages: and others fled to St. Christopher's. At last the famine grew so terrible that they were forced to eat dogs, cats, rats, surgeons ointment, leather, and even one another's excrements: and at night they ransacked the graves to feed on the dead.

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In short they were hardly restrained from hanging or drowning themselves. In September arrived a ship with 140 men from the merchants of Dieppe, but the captain could not spare them above a months provision: so that these newcomers added to the misery of the rest. This famine lasted five years, and was succeeded by a great mortality, which was increased by the unwholesome soil, but more especially by the cruelty of the commanders, who treated the poor half-starved men worse than slaves, and even some of them died under it. So many hands being cut off by the famine and mortality, before the great trees in the forests were felled, or proper places made for plantations, the two governors were discouraged to the last degree, and du Pleffis broke his heart.

M. de Olive being thereby left absolute master of this wretched colony, began an unjust war against the savages, in order to obtain subsistence, and caused great numbers of them to be massacred. Whereupon they called the Caribbeans of the neighbouring islands to their assistance, and returned the massacre upon the French; so that by this means, and the famine from January 1636 to 1639, the colony was reduced almost to nothing. Mean while several colonies sent thither miscarried, and of a detachment of the best men M. de Olive had left which he sent to St. Christopher's to fetch bread, they were never more heard of. M. de Olive, to prevent the total ruin of the colony, sent the superior of the Dominicans to represent their calamities to the company in France, and solicit speedy succours; when by Richelieu's interest he was continued sole governor. But while his commission from  
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the company was reading here, the Dominicans house and church was destroyed by fire, and every thing in them burnt.

The remainder of M. de Olive's people, having served their time out, demanded leave to return; and threatened, if refused, to take it of their own accord. He wrote several times to the company at Paris for succours; but having no favourable answer, he fell into a phrensy, became blind, and going to St. Christopher's for assistance, M. Poincy the governor-general of the French islands, put him under an arrest. However, when the company's deputy here demanded men and ammunition of M. de Poincy to defend the colony against the savages, he very readily sent both. He promised to such as would go to Guadaloupe a free passage, and provisions till the planters could furnish them. And even forbidding the French at St. Christopher's to plant any more tobacco in the mountains: 132 of them embarked for Guadaloupe January 14, 1640; but in a storm were driven back, and lost most of what they brought out. Nevertheless the ship being refitted, they arrived the last day of the month; and were soon after followed by as many more, Poincy having for the purpose released all insolvent debtors. He sent over mess. Vernad and Sabouilly with the convoys: but the former inhabitants mutinied against the new-comers, of whom three fourths died of distempers: and this being also attended with want of provisions, the island was in a miserable state. The savages indeed had been twice defeated by M. Sabouilly, and almost driven out of the island. But in the mean time a number of fugitive slaves, who had retired to the woods and mountains, plundered

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and murdered the other inhabitants, which made M. Poincy send 500 men against these, who soon reduced them.

In 1640, M. Aubert was, by the French West India company, appointed governor of this colony, who made a peace with the savages, who had now the liberty of treating with the French for wedges, hooks, knives, and other necessaries; and the French received in exchange swine, lizards, tortoises, and other fish, &c. So that now the plantations being cultivated without disturbance, justice revived in the colony with peace and plenty: the report of which brought many to settle here. This excellent governor was supplanted by M. Howel, a member of the company, who sent him hither in 1642, to enquire into the state of the island, and next year sent him over again as governor. He stayed here about 10 years, and then sailed for France, leaving the island, which was very weak, and full of discontent, to be governed till his return by his brother and nephew; who put the island, however, into such a good state of defence, that major-general Penn, arriving then here with an English squadron, did not think fit to attack it. In 15 months no less than three hurricanes happened here, the last of which was so terrible, that were it not for the relief from the other islands, the colony must have been ruined, by the destruction it caused, and a great famine ensuing it.

Howel confiding more in the slaves than in the other inhabitants, whom the former far exceeded in numbers, for that reason having taught them the use of arms, they formed a dangerous insurrection in 1656, which only miscarried for want

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of a hearty union between the Angola and Cape Verd negroes. They had laid a plot to murder all their masters ; but to preserve the women, and set up two kings, the one at Basse-terre, the other at Capes-terre, at which last place they were to rendezvous ; but the Cape Verd negroes, having a pique against those of Angola, did not keep their promise. The former however met, and having waited a whole day in vain for the latter, set upon the plantation at Capes-terre, seized the arms, and after destroying all that was of value, retired to the woods ; from whence they made incursions for 15 days, plundering and killing all the French they met : but they were at last defeated, and their two pretended kings taken and quartered alive. Many of the rest were hanged, and the younger sort whipped, and their ears cropt. They afterwards formed another plot, in which they were countenanced by the savages about Capes-terre, who at last agreed to a peace, and to entertain no more of the French slaves.

Howel, by his exactions, provoked the inhabitants themselves to a fresh revolt, which he was forced to pacify by fair promises ; but did not keep them. Which so incensed the people, that they joined with his brother and nephew, who came from France to demand their estates he unjustly detained from them ; and he was forced to comply. But this agreement did not last long : for Howel and his adherents insulted them so, that M. Poincy was obliged to interpose, and obtained a reconciliation. Nevertheless, Howel breaking the peace again, occasioned a great deal of bloodshed ; which obliged the French king to send M. Tracy from France to

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restore peace in the country; and at last, in 1660, a general peace was concluded in the Antilles islands, between the French, English, and savages. At M. Tracy's arrival, he garrisoned the forts with the king's troops; but he oppressed the protestants. While he was governor, abundance of slaves deserted to the woods, and 400 of them, headed by a sturdy negro, plundered the island; but the governor pursued and reduced them.

Mean time the French West India company, being much in debt, made a sale of this and the islands of Desirada, Marigalante, Xaintes, &c. in 1640, to M. de Boifret. And, in 1664, the king himself made a purchase of them, by reimbursing the proprietors the money they had laid out in their purchase and improvements, and appointed M. du Lion his first governor of Guadaloupe. In 1677, an English squadron took five Dutch vessels in a harbour of this island, and plundered some of the plantations on Grand-terre. In February 1691, general Codrington, in a squadron under commodore Wright, landed some troops on the W. side of Guadaloupe, and, after a warm dispute with a body of French, burnt the town of Basse-terre, and had begun to batter two strong forts in the neighbourhood: but on the approach of M. du Casse's squadron from Martinico, the English were reimbarcked in all haste, and sent to Barbadoes, &c.

On the 12th of March, 1703, Guadaloupe was attacked by a squadron under commodore Walker, and some land-forces from our plantations, under colonel Codrington. They first landed at a piace called Les Petits Habitans, where they destroyed some scattered settlements

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on the N. W. part of the island, together with the church of Goyaves; and afterwards landed in a bay N. of the aforesaid town, called Bailiff, where they beat the French out of their breast-works and entrenchments with very little loss; and took the town, as also that of St. Francis, with the church of the Jacobines, which the French had fortified and defended with 10 pieces of cannon. Colonel Codrington afterwards beat them out of the Jacobine plantations, and strong breast-work along the river of the same name: then he drove them out of the N. part of the town of Basse-terre; where staying about a week, he sent out two parties to burn their houses, destroy their sugar-works, plantations, and provisions. For the French had retired to the fort and castle of Basse-terre, to which the English laid close siege. The French defending them till the 3d of April, blew them up, and retired to the mountains. But through sickness, the vigorous defence made by the French, and especially some differences betwixt the commanders, the English were obliged to re-embark, when very near making a conquest of the whole island, after they had burnt the town, razed the fortifications, taken the best of their guns, and burst the rest.

Labat owns, that in this expedition the English burnt four parish churches, namely, those of the isle of Goyaves, i. e. the chapel of the old fort, that of the friars de la charite, and two others, with 29 sugar-works, about as many small settlements, the town of the inhabitants, the Bailiff, and those of St. France, and Basse-terre; the convents of the Capuchins, Carmelites, and two others, besides that of the Jesuits; and left

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only the church of the Capuchins, and that of the Jesuits. He taxes Mr. Gabaret the governor of Martinico, who arrived with a supply of 800 men, as guilty of gross misconduct; and he says, that the misunderstanding betwixt the governor of the island, and the lieutenant-general Malmaison, with the inexperience of the latter, had more than once endangered the total ruin of the colony, and the loss of the whole island; had it not been for the like misunderstanding betwixt the commodore of the English Squadron, and the general of their forces. But the case was much otherwise in the reduction of Guadaloupe, in May 1759; when by the unanimity between commodore Moore and general Barrington, together with the great valour of the British troops, this island came gradually, and in a very short time, into our hands; as did that of Marigalante soon after. In possession of both which our troops are at present, as has been mentioned above.

In the government of Guadaloupe are included not only the Grande Terre, but Xaintes, or All Saints islands, and that of Desirada. All which see.

**GUAMALIES**, a province in the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru, begins 80 leagues N. E. from Lima, and extends along the center of the Cordillera. The Indian inhabitants apply themselves to weaving, and make a great variety of bayes, serges, and other stuffs, with which they carry on a considerable trade with the other provinces.

**GUAMAN VILLAS**, a jurisdiction in South America, and empire of Peru, subject to the arch-

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archbishoprick of Lima, about seven leagues from Guamanga. It is a very fertile country, abounding with corn, fruits, pastures, cattle in great quantities, and all manner of esculent vegetables. The Indians of this place apply themselves to the woollen manufacture, making bayes, corded stuffs, &c. which they send to Cusco, and other provinces. Here is still remaining an old Indian fort. See VILLAS GUAMAN.

GUAMANCA, or GUAMANGA, a city, the capital of a diocese of the same name, under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru. It was founded by Don Francisco Pizarro, in 1539. The Spaniards added the name of San Juan del la Victoria, in memory of the precipitate retreat of Manco the Ynca from Pizarro, who offered him battle. It is very populous, and has several noble families in it; near it is a large Indian suburb, which adds greatly to its extent. It has a cathedral very splendid, a seminary, and an university, with professors of philosophy, divinity, and law, and equal privileges with those of Lima, being both royal foundations. Here are five convents, a college of Jesuits, two nunneries, a sisterhood, and an hospital. It principally abounds in variety of grain, fruit, and cattle; one part of its commerce consists in bend-leather for soles of shoes. Conserves and sweet-meats are also made here in great plenty. It is situated 208 miles E. of Lima, in lat. 12. 20. S. long. 72. 36. W.

GUANABACOA. See HAVANNAH.

GUANA PATINA, a volcano near Arequipa, in the valley of Quilea, in South America, and  
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empire of Peru; whose eruption, assisted by an earthquake, laid Arequipa in ruins in 1600.

**GUANCHA BELICA**, 30 leagues N. of the city of Guamanga, a jurisdiction subject to the archbishop of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru; has very rich quick-silver mines, but very barren in other respects. This rich mine, the source of their wealth, supplies all the silver mines in Peru.

**GUANCHACO**, a port or harbour in South America, and empire of Peru, about two leagues from Truxillo N. and the channel of its maritime commerce, situate in  $8^{\circ}$ . 6. S. lat. in the South Seas.

**GUANIHANI**, or St. Salvador, now Catt island, one of the Bahamas; situated in the Atlantic ocean, near the coast of North America. This was the first land which Columbus discovered in the year 1492, whence he called it St. Salvador, his crew having given themselves over for lost in an immense ocean, till they saw this island. It lies in lat.  $24^{\circ}$ . 10. N. Long.  $76^{\circ}$ . 12. W.

**GUANTA**, a jurisdiction N. N. W. of Guamanga, under the archbishop of Lima, about four leagues from the former, lying in South America, in the empire of Peru. It was very rich in silver mines, which are near exhausted.

**GUANUCO**, a city, and the capital of its jurisdiction, in the archbishopric of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru, which begins 40 leagues from Lima. This city was formerly one of the principal in these kingdoms, and the settlement of some of the first conquerors; but at present in a mean and ruinous condition. Several kinds of jellies and sweet-meats are made here,

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here, and sold to other provinces. It lies 192 miles N. E. of Lima, in lat. 10. 21. S. Long. 75. 20. W.

**GUARA**, a town in its own jurisdiction on the road from Truxillo to Lima, containing about 200 houses. It has a parish church, and a convent of Franciscans, surrounded by fine plantations, and delightful improvements. At the S. end of Guara stands a large tower with a gate, and over it a kind of redoubt. This tower is erected before a stone bridge, under which runs Guara river. It lies in 11°. 31". 36'. S. Not far from this town are still to be seen a great many ruinous remains of the edifices of the Yncas; such as the walls of palaces, large dykes, by the sides of spacious highways, fortresses, and castles, erected for checking the inroads of the enemy.

**GUARACHI**, a jurisdiction six leagues E. of Lima, in the empire of Peru, in South America. Extends itself above 40 leagues along the Cordilleras; abounding in fruits, wheat, barley, maize, and other grains. It has also some silver mines, but few are wrought, as the silver is but indifferent.

**GUARICO**, a town situated on the N. side of the island of St. Domingo, one of the Antilles, in the Atlantic ocean in America. It is also called Cape Francois, and lies in lat. 19. 55. N. It is near half a league in length, and contains about 14 or 1500 inhabitants, being a mixture of Creols, Europeans, Negroes, Mulattos, and Casts. Here is a church, a good square, a college of Jesuits, a nunnery, an hospital, and a convent of religious. The town lies open, with-

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out any other defence than a single rampart: but it is well garrisoned within.

The place is extremely well cultivated, being sown with every species of grain. The servile work is all done by negroes, and the people here are rich enough to send large returns to France for the European commodities brought hither. The grounds here are laid out in plantations of sugar, indigo, tobacco, and coffee; the joint produce of which is so large that 30,000 tons are annually exported to France. It is in these respects a very considerable colony to France, no less than 160 sail, small and great, coming annually from France, from 150 to 500 tons, to Guarico. All these ships come loaded with goods and provisions; and every one returns with 30, or 40,000 dollars in specie. Those only which go from Guarico, exclusive of the cargo, which consists of the products of the colony, carry to France every year half a million of dollars. Not one fourth part of the cargo of so many ships can be consumed in this colony and its dependencies; and consequently, it must find a great account in its trade with the Spanish settlements, as the Havannah, Carracas, Santa Martha, Carthagena, Terra Firma, Nicaragua, and Honduras. See Cape FRANÇOIS.

GUARMOY, a town in the jurisdiction of Peru, lying in  $18^{\circ} 3' 53''$  S. lat. in the South Seas. It is but small, consisting of about 70 families, some of which are Spaniards. It is the residence of a corregidore. It has a good harbour, and lies 134 miles N. W. of Lima, in long. 78. 12. W.

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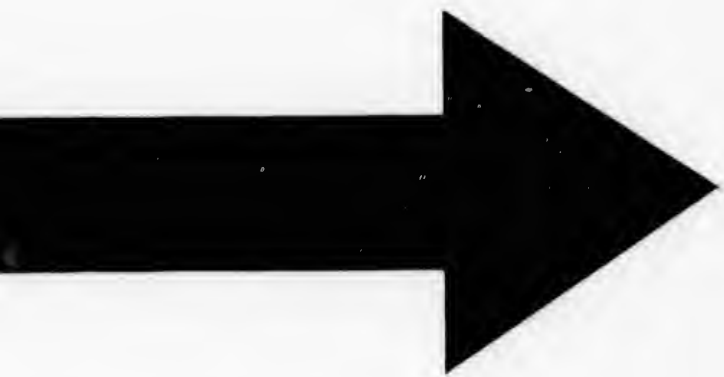
GUAXACA, a province belonging to the audience of Mexico, or New Spain, in North America. It reaches from the bay of Mexico on the N. to the South Sea, having the province of Tlascala on the N. W. and those of Chiapa and Tabasco on the S. E. It extends nearly 95 leagues along the South Sea, 50 along the bay of Mexico, and near 120, say some, along the confines of Tlascala, but not above 50 on those of Chiapa. The air here is good, and the soil fruitful, especially in mulberry-trees: so that it produces more silk than any province in America. Except the valley of Guaxaca, the greatest part is mountainous, yet abounding with wheat, cattle, sugar, cotton, honey, cocoa, plantanes, and other fruits. It has rich mines of gold, silver, and lead; and all its rivers have gold in their sands. Cassia, cochineal, crystal, and copperas, abound also here. Were the people of this province industrious, they might be the richest in the West Indies; but they are accustomed to a lazy life by the clergy, who have 120 monasteries, besides several hospitals, schools, and other places of public charity: in so much that the Indians purchase provisions principally by the gold which the women pick up in the rivers. This province was formerly reckoned to contain 150 considerable towns, besides upwards of 300 villages. But now the province is said to be thinly inhabited. Great part of the estates belonging to the Cortez family is said to lie in this country.

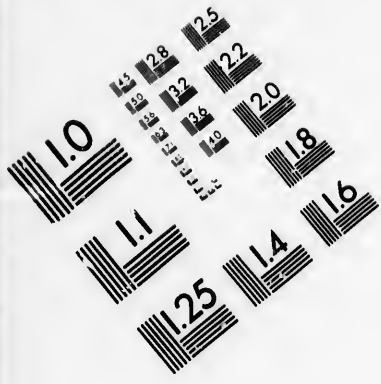
The vinillo, a drug, used as a perfume to give chocolate a flavour, is the produce of Guaxaca. It grows indeed in divers parts of Mexico, but no where so plentifully as in this province.

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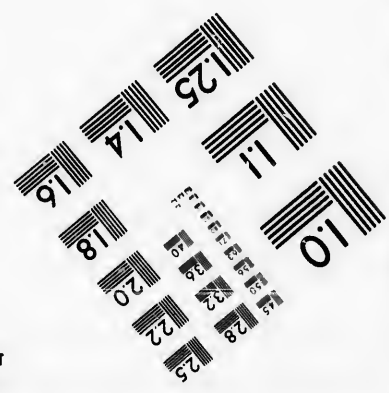
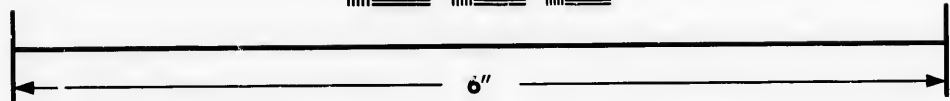
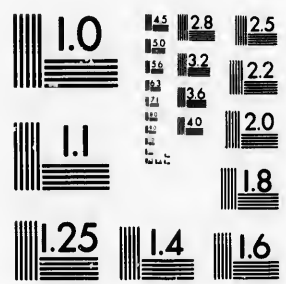








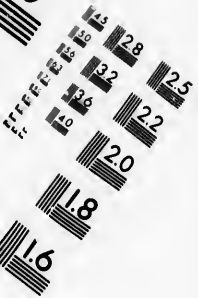
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This vinello is a little pod full of black small seeds; it is four or five inches long; and when dried, it very much resembles the stem of a tobacco-leaf. It grows on a fine sort of vine, which climbs and clasps about trees. The flower is yellow, which turns to a pod; it is first green, but when ripe it turns yellow. Then the Indians, who manufacture and sell it cheap to the Spaniards, gather and lay it in the sun, which renders it soft, and it changes to a chestnut colour; at which time they frequently flatten the pod betwixt their fingers.

GUAXACA, the capital of the last mentioned province, bearing its name, in New Spain, in North America. It is the see of a bishop, and the residence of a governor. It lies 120 miles W. of Spirito Santo, and 230 S. of the city of Mexico, 132 in the same direction from the gulph of this last name, and of Vera Cruz, in the delightful valley of Guaxaca, which is 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth; and in the road leading through Chiapa to Guatimala. Here is a very stately cathedral, and it contains several thousand families, both Spaniards and Indians. Of the former are several which are rich, and descended from the old Spanish governors. This, though a middling city, and but indifferently built, carries on a considerable trade both with the North and South Seas. The river here is not fortified: so that small vessels might easily sail up and subdue the country. The best chocolate in America is made here by the nuns, and exported from hence to Spain. In this valley are several rich towns, cloisters, and churches; with an excellent breed of horses; and great herds of black cattle and sheep; which furnish  
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the clothiers of Los Angeles with wool, and Spain with hides. The Creolian clergy here are as great enemies to the Spanish clergy as the native Americans are. According to some, the proper name of Guaxara is Antiquera; but this last, others make a separate town, and bishop's see also, situated about 80 miles to the S. W. It is said to have a stately cathedral, adorned with many large and high pillars of marble, each of which is as one entire stone. It is situated in lat. 18. 2. N. Long. 101. 10. W.

**GUAYALAS**, a province and jurisdiction in the archbishopric of Lima, in the kingdom of Peru, in South America. Extends along the center of the Cordilleras; begins 50 leagues from Lima N. N. E. Produces grain, fruits, and pasture for cattle.

**GUAYAQUIL, CITY OF.** This is the second city of Spanish origin, being as ancient as the year 1534. It is situate in 2 degrees S. lat. 11°. 21'. 78 deg. 17 min. W. long. Ciudad Viega, or Old Town, was its first situation; but it was removed about a quarter of a league in 1693 by Orellana; and the communication over the great ravins, or hollows of water, preserved between the old and new towns by a wooden bridge of half a quarter of a league. The city is about two miles in extent. It is defended by three forts, two on the river near the city, and the third behind it, guarding the entrance of a ravin, or water-flood. The churches, convents, and houses, are of wood. There are here two convents, a college of Jesuits, and an hospital. The jurisdiction of the city is under a corregidore, who holds his office for five years, and is sub-

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subordinate to the president and audience of Quito. The revenues are managed by a treasurer and an accomptant, who receive the tribute of the Indians, the duties on imports and exports, and the taxes of commodities, which are consumed there, or carried through it. The ecclesiastical government is lodged in the bishop of Quito's vicar. This city is computed to contain 20,000 inhabitants, Europeans, Creols, and other Casts, besides a great number of strangers drawn hither by commercial interests. Here is a militia: one company entirely Europeans, and called the foreign company, is the most numerous, and makes the best appearance. Without considering their wealth and station, they appear in arms, and pay a proper obedience to their own officers, being generally such as have served in Europe, and therefore more expert in military affairs. The corregidore is the commander in chief, having under him a colonel and a major for discipling the other companies. The natives, notwithstanding the heat of the climate, are not tawny; and the Spaniards, though not fair, have children here born of Spanish women exceeding fair, and finely featured, with fair hair and ruddy complexions, and this is the most common complexion, which renders them justly admired, and stiled the handsomest both in the province of Quito, and even in all Peru. To these personal advantages is added an elegance and extraordinary politeness of manners and behaviour, with an elegance of dress peculiar to the women of Guayakal. The usual and most common bread of the natives of Guayakal is criollo, made of unripe plantanes, sliced, roasted, and served up as bread, which is preferred to wheat-



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wheat-bread, even by the Europeans. Oysters and lobsters abound here in the Salt Creek; other fish in the neighbourhood is bad, full of bones, and unpalatable. The water every where round is brackish, and good water is not to be had nearer than four or five leagues up the river. The purple of Punta, a place in the jurisdiction of Guayakal, is reckoned to exceed all others in the universe, and to vie with that of the Tyrians; it is obtained from a shell-fish no bigger than a nut. With this valuable and scarce purple the threads of cotton, ribbands, laces, and the like are dyed; and the weight and colour are said to exceed according to the hours of the day; so that one of the first preliminaries to a contract is to settle the time when it shall be weighed. These fish are called turbines; and the curious aver that a thread of flax is very different in colour to a thread of cotton. It would therefore be proper to make repeated experiments on threads of silk, flax, cotton, and wool. The dye is only the blood of the fish, pressed out by a particular process; and the cotton so dyed is called, by way of eminence, caracollillo. The river of Guayakal is the channel of its commerce; and the distance of the navigable part of it, to the custom-house of Babahio, is reckoned about 24 leagues; and to Caracol, which is the landing place where the land-carriage begins, is 28 leagues and better. The commerce of Guayakal may be divided into reciprocal and transitory; the first consisting of the products and manufactures of its jurisdiction; the last in respect to its port, where the goods from the provinces of Peru, Terra Firma, and Guatimala, consigned to the mountains, are landed:  
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and on the other hand, those from the mountains, designed for the above-mentioned provinces, are brought hither and shipped for their respective ports. The cocoa, one of its principal products, is exported chiefly to Panama, Sanfonate, El Realejo, and other ports of New Spain, and also to those of Peru, though little or no use of cocoa is made at Guayakal, where it is in such plenty. Timber, its next article of commerce, is sent to Callao; and salt is not the least advantageous article, though the principal market for this commodity is in the inland towns in the province of Quito. The last article is the trade in horned cattle, mules, and colts: there are other smaller articles, which though singly of no great consequence, yet jointly are equal to any of the former: such are, Guinea pepper, drugs, lana de ceibo, by which numbers of the lower class of people acquire a very comfortable living. The lana de ceibo, or wool, is the product of a very high and tufted tree of that name, being finer than cotton, whence the natives think it cannot be spun, and therefore it is only used in matrasses, or beds, as we do down. The goods imported into this jurisdiction from Peru, in return for the above-mentioned commodities, are wine, brandy, oil, and dried fruits. From Quito, it receives bayes, tucayos, flour, papas, bacon-hams, cheese. From Panama European goods purchased at the fairs; and from New Spain some iron, but very indifferent, being brittle and vitreous; also naphtha, and tar for shipping. The transitory commerce is more considerable, consisting of the reciprocal exchange between Quito and Lima, of their respective commodities.

GUAYRA,

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**GUAYRA**, a district, or subdivision, of the province of Rio de la Plata, in South America. It is bounded on the N. by the unknown tracts of Brasil, and the nation of the Tupiques; on the E. by the captainry of St. Vincent, in the same country, and partly by the Northern ocean: on the S. it has the province of Urvaica, and part of that of Parana; and on the W. the remainder of the same province, from which it is divided by the river of that name. It is computed to be about 150 leagues in its greatest extent from E. to W. and about 140 from N. to S. only its boundaries towards Brasil are unknown. The Tropic of Capricorn cuts it almost into two equal parts: so that its climate must be extremely hot, though moist, on account of the vast dews and rains to which it is subject. It is, for the last reason, very fruitful in provisions, as well as diseases; and is represented by some as a fitter habitation for wild beasts than human creatures. And yet we are told, that it was pretty well peopled at the first coming of the Spaniards hither; and this is further confirmed by the number of towns, villages, &c. since destroyed, partly by the sickness, and partly by the inhumanity of the Brasilian Portuguese, who either destroyed, or forced them away. The inhabitants of two little Spanish towns in this district are the posterity of some of those who settled here in the year 1550; and both they, and the rest of the inhabitants, live but miserably; having no bread but that which they make of the root called mandioc; nor flesh, but that of such wild beasts as they kill.

It is watered by several rivers which fall into the Parapana, which last descends from the southern

## G U I

southern mountains of Brasil, and is of a considerable magnitude before it falls into the Parana. The principal streams that empty themselves into the Parapana are the Tibaxiva, Pirapus, and Itangua, besides others of less note. Both sides of those rivers are covered with several sorts of trees: the most valued among these, by the natives, are cedars, which are very numerous; and so tall and large, that they make vessels out of a single trunk, carrying 20 oars. Other trees produce excellent fruits; and some yield a good sort of balsam. Among those woods harbour innumerable wild beasts, of which tygers are the most dangerous. Here snakes are also very numerous, large, and pernicious. Among the milder animals are abundance of swine, that range in the forests and woods along the rivers, thriving on the fruits which falls from the trees. These have a kind of protuberance, or excrescence, like a navel, on their backs; which, if not cut off before they are killed, will corrupt and poison their flesh. Bees swarm every where, and yield plenty of very good honey; but the wax cannot be rightly whitened. The Jesuits, after their first coming, and civilizing, in some measure, the natives, built some towns along the rivers; the principal of these are our Lady of Loretto; about four leagues higher up is that of San Ignaço, Itaburaca, &c. And after them, the natives being protected by the Spaniards, built 11 more. See GUIARA-TOWN.

**GUIANA, or CARIBIANA**, a country of very large extent, and a subdivision of Terra Firma, in South America. It is bounded by the Atlantic ocean to the N. and E. Andalusia, and the

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province of the Amazons to the W. and S. in which are included Surinam, a Dutch colony; and Caen, or Equinoctial France, is situated between the equator and lat. 8. N. and between long. 50 and 65 W. extending from the mouth of the river Oronoque to that of the Amazons, or Maragnon. The extent of Guiana, from S. to N. is upwards of 500 miles; but it is much less towards the E. and W. Its length from the boundaries of Popayan to the Atlantic ocean is about 1100 miles. All that part of the coast, lying to the S. of the North Cape, has been yielded to the Portuguese, and reckoned part of Brasil. The French have some settlements in the isle of Cayenne, and the adjacent coast; and the Dutch have Surinam and Barbice. The best geographers divide it into two parts, namely, Guiana Proper, which is the inland country, and Caribiana, which lies along the coast. The former is called El Dorada, or the Gold Country, by the Spaniards, on account of the immense riches it is supposed to contain.

This country is inhabited by a vast number of nations. But the sea-coast is the only part which is best known, and is divided into Indian, French, and Dutch Guiana.

Indian Guiana contains all the country which lies between the mouth of the river of Amazon and Cape d'Orange, an extent of above 200 miles. It is all very low land, and near the sea almost overflowed. The air is so unwholesome, that Europeans cannot bear it; and even the natives are put to great straits; for having no high ground to build houses, they are obliged to make their huts on trees, where they look like large bird-nests.

French

## H A C

French Guiana, contains above 200 miles along the coast, and begins at Cape d'Orange, a low point of land jetting out into the sea, and which is known by three little hills that are seen beyond it. See CAYENE.

Dutch Guiana, once called English Guiana, as formerly belonging to the English, from whom the Dutch took it, begins at the river Maroni, where the English had built a little fort, in lat. 6. 10. N. and extends to the mouth of the river Oronoko. See SURINAM.

GUIAQUIL. See GUAYAQUIL. It is a town in the province of the same name, situated on the river Guiaquil, in Peru, in South America, which some miles below it falls into the Pacific ocean. It lies 52 miles N. E. of Payta, and is subject to Spain. Lat. 2. 11. S. Long. 81. 10. W.

GUIARA. See GUAYRA. A town of Terra Firma, in South America. It has a harbour on the Caracoa-coast, 212 miles E. of Maracaibo; where, in the years 1739, and 1743, the English were twice repulsed, and lost some men in attacking this place. It lies in lat. 10. 39. S. Long. 66. 1. W.

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**H**ACHA, RIO DE LA, a small province of the Terra Firma, in South America. It has part of the lake of Maraco on the E. part of the

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Venezuela on the S. the province of Santa Martha on the W. and the North Sea on the N.

**HACHA, RIO DE LA**, the capital of the last mentioned province, bearing the same name. The Spaniards formerly called it Nuestra Senora de los Neieves, and afterwards De los Remedios. It is situated on the banks of the river of the same name, namely, Rio de la Hacha; and but a short mile from the sea-coast upon a little hill, and containing not much above 100 houses. It lies about 246 miles E. of Carthagená. At this place the Spanish galleons first touch upon their arrival in South America, of which expresses are sent to all the settlements in the country, to give them notice to prepare their treasure which is to be sent to Europe.

**HAMBATO**, a principal assiento, or jurisdiction in the province of Quito, under the Spaniards. It is situated near the line in  $1^{\circ} 41' 40''$  S. lat. and 12 W. of the city of Quito; and has six smaller villages in its dependence. It contains about 18,000 inhabitants, who are mostly employed in weaving stuffs, bayes, and knitting.

**HAMPSTEAD** and **HIGHGATE**, two villages, inland, belonging to Georgia, in North America. They are about a mile asunder, and four miles from Savannah, the capital of the province. The inhabitants apply themselves principally to gardening, and supply the town with greens, pot-herbs, roots, &c. See **SAVANNAH**.

**HAMPTON, EAST**, a town in Long Island, in the province of New York, and county of Suffolk, in North America.

**HARLEY**, a village in the county of Ulster, in the province of New York, in North America.

**HAVAN-**

## H A V

**HAVANNAH**, a town situated on the N. W. part of the island of Cuba, one of the greater Antilles, in America, at the entrance of the gulph of Mexico. The city and port of Havannah stands 191 miles almost directly S. of Cape Florida, and consequently commands the gulph of that name. It was built by James Velasquez, who conquered the island of Cuba, and settled a little town, which was the mother of this, in 1511. It was originally called the Port of Carennas; afterwards, when the city by its alteration of site, and encrease of wealth, grew considerable, it was called St. Christopher of the Havannah. These alterations happened but by slow degrees, as we may conceive from the following account of the accidents which have befallen it. In 1536, it was taken by a French pyrate, and was of so inconsiderable a value, that it was ransomed for 700 pieces of eight. It was taken some time after by the English, a second time by the French; nor was it till the reign of Philip II. of Spain, that the importance of it was thoroughly understood, and any care taken in fortifying it. What was then done, proved not sufficient; and most of the fortifications were in a very bad condition, when Francis Coreal was there in 1666; and very little better when he visited it again, 20 years afterwards. Since the accession of the house of Bourbon to the throne of Spain, more pains have been taken about it, and therefore we shall describe first the city, and then the port, in the condition they now are.

The city of Havannah, according to the last and most exact map of these parts, lies in 23°. 12'. of lat. and consequently within 20 of the

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the Tropick of Cancer ; and its long. W. from London is 82°. 13'. It stands on the W. side of the harbour, in a very beautiful and pleasant plain, having the sea before it, and being surrounded on all sides by two branches of the river Lagida. The buildings are fair, but not high, built of stone, and make a very good appearance, though it is said they are but meanly furnished. Here are eleven churches and monasteries, and two handsome hospitals. The churches are rich and magnificent ; that dedicated to St. Clara having seven altars, all adorned with plate to a great value, and the monastery adjoining contains 100 nuns, with their servants, all habited in blue. It is not, as some have reported, a bishop's see, though the bishop generally resides there ; but the cathedral is at St. Jago, and the revenue of this prelate not less than 50,000 pieces of eight per annum. Authors differ exceedingly as to the number of inhabitants in this city. A Spanish writer, who was there in 1700, and who had reason to be well acquainted with the place, computed them at 26,000 ; and we may very well suppose that they are increased since. They are a more polite and sociable people than the inhabitants of any of the ports on the continent, and of late imitate the French both in their dress, and in their manners. One part of the island is under the jurisdiction of this city, as the other is under that of St. Jago ; but the district belonging to the Havannah is by far the best cultivated, and has the most towns and villages in it ; and these are not above six in number, which shews how strangely things are managed in this part of the world.

## H A V

The port is not only the best in the West Indies, but perhaps one of the finest in the universe. It is so capacious, that 1000 sail of ships may ride there commodiously, without either cable or anchor; and there is, generally speaking, six fathom water in the bay. The entrance is by a channel about two-fourths of a mile in length, which is pretty narrow, and of difficult access to an enemy, being well defended by forts and platforms of guns; and through it you come into the bay, which lies like a basin at the bottom of it, with a small island at the E. corner thereof. At the entrance of the channel there are two strong castles, which are supposed to be capable of defending the place against any number of ships. The first of these is styled El Morro, and stands on the E. side of the channel. It is a kind of a triangle, fortified with bastions, on which are mounted about 40 pieces of cannon, stiled the twelve apostles, almost level with the water, and carrying each a ball of 36 pounds. On the other side of the channel stands a strong fort, called the Puntal by some authors, and indeed by the Spanish writer I chiefly follow, stiled Mosa de Maria: it is a regular square, with good bastions, well mounted with cannon. Between this city and the sea there is a watch-tower, where a man sits in a round lanthorn at the top, and on the appearance of ships at sea, put out as many flags from thence as there are sail. Some writers place this tower on the other side of the channel: perhaps a new one may be built there. The third is stiled the fort: it is a small, but strong work on the W. side, towards the end of the narrow channel, with four large bastions, and a platform,

## H A V

form, mounted with 60 pieces of heavy cannon. Besides these, there are two forts, one on the E. side, called Cajemar, the other on the W. called the fort of Chorrera, of 12 guns each. The governor is, generally speaking, a person of known courage and capacity, and has a very numerous garrison, as indeed he ought to have, considering that it is very properly stiled the key of the West Indies; and if they lose it, the whole of the Spanish monarch must lie at the mercy of the power possessed thereof. If ever this place should be attacked by us, it must be by a land force, for it is impossible to make any impression here by a fleet only. The castles which defend the channel must be taken before we can pretend to enter the port; and indeed were they once taken, the rest of the design would easily succeed.

We are now to speak of the commerce in this port, which is the most considerable of any in America. We will, for the sake of perspicuity, divide it into the particular commerce of the isle of Cuba, and into the general by the galleons. The former consists in hides, usually stiled, of the Havannah, which are excellent, and of great value; sugar, which is also a good commodity; tobacco, admirable in its kind; ginger, mastic, aloes, sarsaparilla, other drugs, and great quantities of tortoise-shell. It must be observed, that the commerce of the island of Cuba is not entirely confined to the Havannah, but extends itself to other ports, particularly St. Jago, where there are frequently many little vessels from the Canaries, and other parts, which trade entirely for the commodities of the country. As to the general commerce, this port is

## H A V

the place of rendezvous for all the ships, particularly from Porto Bello, and Vera Cruz, which return into Spain from the Indies; so that there are frequently 50 or 60 sail in the port at once. While they ride here, there is a fair kept on shore, where they trade for immense sums; and with so great honour, that it is said they never open the bales, but take the goods according to the bills of parcels, without any inspection. While the fleet is in the bay, provisions are excessively dear on shore, and money so plenty, that a Spaniard expects half a piece of eight a day from a male slave, and half so much from a female, out of what they earn by their labour. The fleet generally sails from thence through the channel of Bahama, in the month of September; and is the richest in the world; since in silver and merchandize there is seldom less than 30,000,000 pieces of eight on board, or 6,750,000 pounds of our money. Dr. Gemelli Careri, who was here in 1698, tells us of an extraordinary pearl that he saw here; it was in shape a perfect pear, in weight 60 grains, and was absolutely clear and ripe. This pearl was taken at Panama by a black belonging to a priest, who refused to sell it to the viceroy of Peru for 70,000 pieces of eight, saying, he would carry it to his majesty himself; but he died at the Havannah, and the pearl was sent to the king by another priest to whom he entrusted it.

The town of Havannah is not two miles in circuit; and the number of inhabitants does not exceed 26,000 souls, consisting of Spaniards, mulattoes, and negroes, besides the garrison, the governor of which is stiled captain-general of the island. Here resides the bishop of St. Jago, which



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which is the capital of Cuba, but now in a declining state: and therefore most persons of figure and fortune live at the Havannah. It belongs to Spain. Havannah lies 18 leagues from Cape de Sed; which is a promontory on the N. side of the island. The heat here is extreme, and more intolerable even in the night than in the day time.

**HAYES**, Island, in New South Wales, in North America, formed by the rivers Nelson and Hayes, which, after running a little way together, separate again. The most northern is still called Nelson river, near the mouth of which stands Fort York, by the French called Bourbon, as also is the river Nelson. The most southern branch is called Hayes river by the English, and St. Theresa by the French. On either branch, the stream is so gentle that large vessels and shallops might be built there to carry bulky goods, and also return against the stream.

**HENRICO**, a county of Virginia, in North America.

**HENRY, CAPE**, the S. promontory of Virginia, in North America. It is situated at the entrance of the Chesapeak bay. Lat. 36. 57. N. Long. 76. 23. W.

**HEVE, or LA HAIVE**, a port of Acadia, in North America, where the French had a fort defended with palisades which the English took by capitulation, with the loss of some of their people and their commander, whom Charlevoix says, they kept till the treaty of Breda.

**HIGHLANDS**, a range of mountains, stretching westward from Hudson's river, dividing the county of Ulster, in the province of New York, from that river; they are clothed thick with

## H I S

timber, and abound with iron ore, ponds, and fine streams for iron-works.

HISPANIOLA, or St. DOMINGO. See DOMINGO. One of the Antilles islands, in the Atlantic ocean, in America. It is situated between lat. 18 and 20 N. and between long. 67 and 74 W. is upwards of 400 miles long from E. to W. and 124 broad from N. to S. The island partly belongs to the Spaniards, and partly to the French; which latter (their buccaneers having settled there before) obtained a legal right to their share of the island by the cession which the Spaniards made them of the N. W. part of Hispaniola, by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697, the best and most fertile part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies. This is the principal settlement of the French in all America. The country is mixed; pretty mountainous in some parts; but many of these mountains are fertile, and covered with fine woods. Others, which are barren and rocky, had anciently mines of gold: they are not worked now; though it is judged they not only contain those of gold, but mines of silver, copper, and iron. But the French think their labour better bestowed on the culture of the plains for the rich commodities which vend so well in Europe.

This country has likewise prodigious fine plains of a vast extent, and extreme fertility, either covered with noble forests of timber and fruit trees, excellent in their kinds, or filled with vast numbers of horned cattle, sheep, and hogs. The air of Hispaniola is the most healthy in the West Indies. The country is admirably watered with rivulets as well as navigable rivers. And it is no wonder therefore that this active nation, in  
pos-

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possession of so extensive a country, has reaped from it prodigious advantages. In the year 1726, they reckoned that on this island they had no less than 100,000 negroes, and 30,000 whites: that they made 60,000 hogshheads of sugar of 500 weight each: that the indigo here was half as much in value as the sugar: that they exported large quantities of cotton; and that they had sent besides to France, cacao and ginger in tolerable plenty. Since that time they raise coffee here to a very great amount. Now supposing that they have not improved in these several commodities since 1726, which is far from the truth, and suppose the sugar at 20 shillings the hundred, the whole must yield 300,000 l. sterl. The indigo is somewhat fallen in its price since; but as it has increased largely in its quantity, it is not too much to value it at 100,000 l. If to these we add the produce of cotton, cacao, ginger, and hides, it will not be too much to allow 100,000 l. more; so that at this rate her share of the island is worth to France 550,000 l. sterl. But considering that these several articles have greatly increased since that time, it will not be excessive to rate the value of this colony at 750,000 l. sterl. a year.

The largest town in the French part of Hispaniola is Cape François, which is situated on the northern part of the island, upon a very fine harbour. It is well built, and contains about 8000 inhabitants, blacks and whites. But though this be the largest town, Leogane, on the western side, is a good port too, and a place of considerable trade, being the seat of government, which here is lodged in the hands of a governor and the intendant, who are mutually a check

## H E W

upon each other. There are besides two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves on the W. end of the island, and Port Louis on the S. W. part.

The E. part of this island is in the possession of the Spaniards; and this is the largest part, and has most towns: their capital is St. Domingo, which was built first by Columbus, on the S. side of the island, at the mouth of the river Hayna, or Isabella, as our maps call it, in a fine plain which shews it to great advantage from the sea. In 1586, Sir Francis Drake took it, who held it a month; and then burnt part of it, but spared the rest for a ransom of 60,000 pieces of eight. This and several other places were quit- ted in the reign of queen Elizabeth, as being judged unpolitic then to keep them. However, Cromwell thought otherwise; for he sent his ge- nerals Penn and Venables, with the greatest force the English ever had in those seas, in order to possess themselves of St. Domingo; of which being disappointed, they afterwards, in 1654, reduced Jamaica. The trade of St. Domingo, which was a considerable one in sugar, hides, tallow, horses, hogs, and cassia, has decayed since the Spaniards have been tempted to Havan- nah and other places: yet for all that St. Do- mingo makes a good figure; and its inhabitants, including negroes, &c. are thought to exceed 25,000. These consist of Spaniards, Mestizos, Mulattoes, and Albatraces: of all which num- ber a sixth part is supposed to be Spaniards.

HEWREUIL, a village of Canada, consisting of between 25 and 30 houses well built, with a fort, where was a governor and a garrison of 30  
soldiers,

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soldiers, and at least 10 in each house. These had been just sent thither, says Charlevoix, by the governor of New England. It was taken by the French in the year 1708.

**HOCHELAGA**, a village of wild Indians, in Canada, in North America. It is pretty large, and situated in the island at this day known under the name of Montreal. It is of a round figure, and 3 rows of pallisadoes inclose about 50 huts, each upwards of 50 paces in length, and 14 or 15 in breadth, and made in the form of funnels. The entrance to this inclosure is by one gate, over which, as well as the first row of pallisadoes, is a sort of gallery, the ascent to which is by a ladder, and it is plentifully provided with stones and flints for the defence of the place. The inhabitants of this village speak the Huron language. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, which M. Carter called Montroyal, now Montreal.

**HOHIO**, or **OHIO**, a famous river of North America, having its source in the Apalachian mountains, near the borders of Carolina and Virginia; and after a S. W. course falls into the river Mississippi, of which it is reckoned the principal stream. See **OHIO**.

**HONDURAS**, or **COMAIAGNA**, a province of, Old Mexico, or New Spain, in North America, which, including the country of the Moskitos, is situated between lat. 12 and 13 N. and between long. 85 and 94 W. It has the bay bearing its name and the North Sea on the N. and E. is bounded by Nicaragua and Guatemala on the S. and by Vera Paz on the W. It extends E. and W. along the North Sea above 130 leagues, and in some places is near 60

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leagues over from N. to S. but it is narrower at both ends. The Spaniards claim this country; but the English have been long in possession of the logwood tract in the bay of Honduras, cutting large quantities of it there every year. And the Moskito Indians to the E. of this province have entered into treaties with the English, received them into their country, and done them several services. Besides, the Spaniards have no towns nor forts in this bay, or in the country of the Moskitos.

This country consists in general of hills and deep dales, and has a good air. It is rendered the more fruitful by the inundations of its rivers about Michaelmas, when the natives convey the water by canals to their fields and gardens. The soil in many parts bears Indian corn thrice a year. It moreover yields European wheat and pease; cotton-wool, called vigoion, &c. has excellent pasture, with honey, wax, and abundance of all sorts of provisions; besides mines of gold and silver. It produces also great quantities of extraordinary large gourds, or calabashes; which the Hispaniola Indians call Hibue-  
ras. And the first discoverer seeing many of them float along the coast, called it Golfo de Hibue-  
ras, and the province itself Hibuera: yet afterwards finding very deep water at the great cape of this country, they called it Cabo de Honduras, i. e. the Promontory of Depth, and the country itself Honduras. The vineyards bear twice a year; for immediately after the vintage the vines are cut again, and the second grapes are ripe before christmas. The ancient inhabitants being extremely slothful, sowed so sparingly, that they were often in want, and



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forced to feed on roots, and even on vermin and carrion. At their feasts they used to get drunk with a sort of metheglin, and then they committed the most abominable crimes, many of which they have left off, by being converted to christianity, and conversing with the Spaniards. The country was once exceeding populous, till it was thinned by the Spaniards. The natives, instead of a plough, use a long pole with two crooked staves at the end; the one bent downwards, the other upwards.

**HONDURAS, BAY OF,** noted for cutting of logwood as that of Campeachy formerly was. It lies in the province of the same name, in North America, betwixt Cape Honduras, in lat.  $15 \frac{1}{2}$  N. and Cape Catoche, the eastermost point of Yucatan, in lat.  $21 \frac{1}{2}$ . Moll makes the distance betwixt these capes above 270 miles. The great lake of Nicaragua has an out-let into it by a river called Rio de Anuzelos, or Angelos, only navigable by small craft. In this bay are several small islands of which we have no account, particularly the Pearl-islands, a little to the N. But the pearls fished up here are not in such quantities as formerly, nor so large. Into this bay runs also a small river from the province of Veraguas, called by the Spaniards Rio de Sucre, i. e. Sugar river, from the sugar-works here, with which the country so abounds, that did not the Spaniards consume large quantities of it in sweetmeats and preserves, &c. they might send several ship loads of sugar into Europe.

The cutting of logwood so much complained of by the Spaniards, and assigned by them as a just provocation for the depredations on the Eng-

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lish before the commencement of the late war, we shall here give a brief account of.

The country where the English cut their log-wood, says captain Uringe, deputy-governor of St. Lucia and St. Vincent, is all a flat, and a great part of it a morass, with several lacunes, which are very often overflown. In the dry season, when the cutters have found a good number of trees, they build a hut near them, where they live. After cutting down a tree, they chip off the bark and lay it in heaps; marking paths to each, that when the rains come which overflow the ground, they are as so many channels where they go with small currents and land them, bringing them sometimes 30 miles to the Barcaderas, whence the buyers fetch it at 5 l. a ton, Jamaica money. During the floods, the cutters dwell at the Barcaderas, which are 42 miles up the river, where they have huts built on high banks to secure them from the floods. As soon as they have notice of any vessel's arrival at the mouth of the river, they flock down to purchase whatever they want.

Mr. Atkins observes that the cutters of log-wood were originally settled in the bay of Campeachy. But having been disturbed by the Spaniards, removed to the bay of Honduras, where they support themselves by force of arms, having about 1500 masters and servants. At the season they follow the wood, which runs in a line of some miles, like a vein of minerals in the earth; and sometimes they run over a great many miles, without finding a stick of it. They cut it in large pieces, and leave it on the ground, till the land-floods favour their bringing it into the river, whence canoes carry it to their  
grand

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grand store at the Barcaderas. As they know what they must expect from Spanish clemency, they are always provided with good arms to defend themselves. A servant, which is the first step with seamen into the trade, is hired at a ton of logwood per month, and having one day in seven to himself, he makes 10*l.* a month. These, if sober, in time become masters, and join stocks, or trade, independently. They have a king chosen from among themselves, and his consort has the title of queen, and are governed by certain rules of their own making. The ships that come into the bay are also on their guard; and they fetch the logwood down in flat-bottomed boats, generally in the night, and take it on board in the day.

This further account we have of the logwood trade in the bay of Campeachy: Whenever sailors at Jamaica, &c. durst not stay for debt, or misdemeanors, they used to get a passage on board any vessel going to Campeachy. The whole cargo any man carried was a set of axes and hatchets, saws, great knives, an iron crow, a small grind-stone, a gun, with store of powder, ball, and small shot, which being all put in a chest, and a tent and sea-bed tied to it, the ships gave them a passage for their work. Their business being to cut logwood as near the water-side as possible, the ketches from New England, with provisions to Jamaica, wanting freight back, come hither to buy logwood. Some lay up very considerable piles of it in a season: and if they want to leave the place, any of the ships will carry them off. But this trade has often proved a nursery for pirates, as well as a den of thieves; or when a gang of ill-designing fellows,

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lows, viz. at Jamaica, or Martinico, have a mind to go a buccaneering, or privateering, they used to go for men to the bay of Campeachy, where they never failed to get as many bold fellows as they wanted, well armed, and all good seamen. But the neck of this trade has been broken in the bay of Campeachy, since the year 1722, when 5 Spanish frigates took or burnt 12 English ships belonging to the northern colonies, destroyed all the logwood they had cut, and put the cutters to the sword.

Some trees of the logwood itself grow very tall and straight; though mostly low and crooked. They bear a small leaf, and have a prickly underwood like our white-thorn, in both these respects. It blossoms and bears seed; which by falling off, sows the ground from which it springs up, and its vegetation is much forwarded by the inundations bringing the soil over it. All the rivers and creek in the bay of Honduras not only swarm with alligators and guans, but fish also. Among other fowls they have guans, consos, Muscovy ducks, whistling ducks, somewhat larger than our teal, and as good to eat, cockatoos, macaws, parrots, twopenny chicks, double and single curlews, and crab-catchers.

With regard to land animals, here are wild deer, but small and lean, tygers, and monkeys. Among the little islands in the bay are great numbers of green turtle, mostly caught in nets. The manatee is also frequently met with here; and that called the Jew-fish, which exceeds all the rest in goodness, is shaped something like a cod, but t.icker in proportion, and much better eating. They have very broad scales, and some of them weigh 80 lb.

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The principal towns of this province are Valladolid, or Comaiagua, which is the capital, Truxillo, or Trugillo, Gracias a Dios, St. Pedro, Porto de Cavallos, St. Jago, with the island of Ruatan, or Rattan.

From Cape Gracias a Dios, the most easterly promontory of Honduras, the land falls off due S. forming another great bay, which runs along the coast of Nicaragua, and then bends again E. by N. to Nombre de Dios and Porto Bello.

HORNE, CAPE, the most southerly promontory of Terra del Fuego, a province of South America, round which all ships have latterly passed in going out of the Atlantic, or American ocean, into the Pacific, or South Seas. In the doubling of which cape commodore, now lord, Anson met with dreadful storms, and unspeakable hardships. As did Don Pizarro also: it being often a work of immense labour, owing to the nature of those seas, and the coasts not having been ascertained heretofore so exactly as since. Besides, being so near the S. pole, and so extremely cold, the seas are so subject to tempests, that it is a voyage to be executed with a great deal of skill, patience, and resolution. This way of going into the South Sea however is the more eligible, as that through the Magellan streights is more dangerous and tedious. It lies in lat. 55. 42. S. Long. 66. W.

HOUCUE, LA, a little fort, situated two leagues beyond the Havannah, in the island of Cuba, in America. From hence we begin to discover Le Pain de Matance, a mountain, whose top resembles an oven, or a loaf. It serves sailors to know the bay of Matance by, which is about 14 leagues from the Havannah.

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HUDSON'S-BAY, or STREIGHT, the N. part of Canada, in North America, where the English company, of the same name, have several settlements and forts, who, by their agents, carry on here a traffic with the native Indians for beaver-skins and other valuable furs to a considerable amount, being one of the most profitable trades our merchants deal in. But the garrisons and forts here seem not to be of a strength sufficient for holding out long against an attack from the French and their Indian allies in that neighbourhood. This bay is about 300 leagues wide from S. to N. but above 530, by reckoning from the bottom of James bay, in lat. 51. N. to that of Repulse bay in lat. 67. 10. N. Its breadth is unequal, being about 130 leagues where broadest; but it grows narrower both to the southward and northward, being not much above 35 leagues broad in some places. At the mouth of Hudson's bay is Resolution island, also Mansfield island. And in the streight are Charles island, Salisbury island, and Nottingham island. From Resolution island to Cape Diggs, at the entrance of the bay, is about 140 leagues in length. The land on both sides, namely, Labrador and North Main, are inhabited by savages, of which we have little or no knowledge. That part of the bay on the W. side, in about lat. 57. is called Button's bay, and the eastern part, from lat. 55. 15. to lat. 51. and the most southern part is called James's bay. The coast from Cape Henrietta Maria, in lat. 55. 15. where James's bay begins, to the bottom of the bay is about 100 leagues, and of much the same breadth all the way, being between 50 and 60 leagues over.

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On the eastern shore, or Labrador coast, lie several islands, called the North sleepers, the West sleepers, Baker's dozen, Belchier's isles; and in James's bay are Bear island, Viner's island, Charlton island, Cape Hope island, &c. All the country from Burton's bay S. and E. as far as Labrador, is called New South Wales.

The French pretend to have had possession of this bay prior to Hudson, who first discovered it for the English.

HUDSON'S RIVER, a large river of North America, whose source has not been discovered. Running southward it approaches the Mohawk's river, within a few miles of Sacoundauga, in North America. In the general we know that it has its source in the mountainous uninhabited country, between the lakes Ontario and Champlain. From its approach near Saucondauga, it runs N. and N. easterly towards lake St. Sacrament, now lake George, within 10 miles of it. The course then to New York is very uniform, being in the main S. 12 or 15° W. The distance from Albany to Lake George is computed at 65 miles. This river in that interval is navigable only to batteaus, and interrupted by rifts, which occasion two postages of half a mile each. In the passage from Albany to Fort Edward, the whole land carriage is 12 miles. There are three routes from Crown Point to Hudson's river, in the way to Albany; one through Lake George, another through a branch of Lake Chaplain, bearing a southern course, and terminating in a bason, several miles E. of Lake George, called the South bay. The third is by ascending the Wood-cek, a shallow stream about 30 yards broad, which coming from the S. E. empties it-  
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self into the S. branch of the Lake Champlain. The place where these routes meet on the banks of Hudson's river is called the carrying-place. Here Fort Lyman, since called Fort Edward, is built; but Fort Henry, a much stronger garrison, was erected at the S. end of Lake George, after the repulse of the French forces under the command of baron Dieskaw, on the 8th of September, 1755. General Shirley thought it more advisable to strengthen Fort Edward in the concurrence of the three routes, than to erect the other at Lake George, 17 miles to the northward of it, and wrote a very pressing letter to Sir William Johnson, who then commanded the provincial troops. The passage through the highlands is about 16 miles; the tide flows a few miles above Albany. The navigation is safe, and performed in sloops of 40 or 50 tons burden. About 60 miles above the city of New York the water is fresh, and in wet seasons very low, and abounds with variety of fish.

The advantages of this river for penetrating into Canada, and protecting the southern colonies, from the irruptions of the French, by securing the commands of the lakes, and cutting off the communication between the French settlements on St. Laurence and Mississippi, must be very apparent, though but lately attended to.

HURON, LAKE OF, a large collection of inland waters, in Canada, in North America. It lies between lat. 43 and 46 N. and between long. 84 and 89 W. The lands about this lake are called the country of the Hurons, where the French pretend to have settlements and alliances with the Indians, who have found out a way from this lake to the French settlements on the Missis-

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Mississipi river, which empties itself into the gulph of Mexico, in North America.

HURONS, savages inhabiting the country contiguous to the lake of the same name, in Canada, in North America : their true name is Yendats. That of Hurons is in accommodation to the French manner, who, at first observing these savages with their hair cut very short, and sticking up so oddly as to give them a very frightful appearance, cried out ' quels hures !' and hence they accustomed themselves to call them Hurons.

If we may credit their most ancient traditions, this nation originally consisted only of cantons, or villages, which in time were divided into four, or they adopted two others. The different adoptions which these four tribes made of the neighbouring people rendered the nation of the Hurons very powerful in comparison of all others, on account of the care they took to be always united in a body : a point which the Algonquins did not regard, who were originally a great deal more numerous than the Hurons ; for though among the latter the adopted tribes always retained their primitive names, they took also the generical denomination, which was of the two first, and spoke with the language, with some small but inconsiderable difference : some however give themselves the name of Ontanonoues, that is such as speak the better language.

It seems even that this uniformity of language may induce one to believe, that the confederacy, union, or adoption of these tribes only served to bring them back to their first origin : whereas the Iroquois, and the Andastouez, who are certainly derived from the same stock, having

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ing never united again, since the separation has altered also their languages much more, which are plainly dialects of that of the Hurons. Not only the whole nation, but also each canton or village became divided into three principal families. It is hence to be observed that the uniformity which upon this reigned among the whole nation, and those branches which arose from it at the time of the discovery of Canada, is a plain proof, that if the three families are not three distinct branches of the same stock, their union is at least of a very great antiquity, and of a higher date than the separation of the Iroquois from the Hurons.

The country inhabited by the latter people at the beginning of the last century, had the Lake Erie to the S. the Lake Huron to the W. and Lake Ontario to the E. It is situated between lat. 42 and 45 N. Here they have a good many cantons, or villages; and the whole nation still consists of between 40, and 50,000 souls, though already diminished by reason of its wars with the Iroquois. This country, generally speaking, is not the most fertile in all New France; but there are some cantons in it that are very much so: and were it as well peopled as the best provinces are, it might easily, with good cultivation, support all its inhabitants: besides, its air is very healthy. Many of the French have been in this country for a long time: they suffered extremely by famine and other calamities, which are the attendants of war, but none died here of distempers, and even very few were taken ill.

In this country are large meadows, which would bear wheat and all other grain that one would

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would sow in them. The forests are full of very beautiful trees, especially cedars of a prodigious magnitude, and proportionable tallness. The country is well watered, and the water is very good. Here are, it is said, some stones that can be fused like metal, and contain veins of silver. But we know not what credit to give to some accounts, which tell us of two animals that are pretty singular, and natives of this country, and to be met with no where else. The one is a bird that mews like a cat; the other is a kind of hare that sings like a bird, and whose flesh is very delicate.

This country is advantageously situated for commerce: whence, by means of the lakes with which it is almost surrounded, it would be an easy matter to push on discoveries even to the extreme parts of North America. In short, it would be no less so to gain a nation from which, it seems, much is to be feared and hoped for the establishment and increase of any colony. The nations with which a trade may be carried on are the mountaineers below Quebec, the Alouquez beyond it, in its neighbourhood all around, and in an island formed by the great river Outaouais above Montreal, and the remainder under the appellation of Nipissings, or Nipissiriniens. And lastly, the Outaouais spread up and down in divers places on their river, bearing the same name; of which they pretend to be such absolute masters, as to establish a right of exacting toll upon all the canoes that go up or come down that stream.

Nothing is wanting, says Charlevoix, but to gain the Iroquois, allies to the English; and that was a point of infinite consequence: perhaps

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haps this might, with little difficulty, have been crowned with success, if in the beginning the savages had seen us (the French) sufficiently able to give law to them, or at least to make the balance turn to the side of their enemies the Hurons, who were our allies. A thousand men, continues he, entertained in the country of the Hurons, with three or four little forts, would have been sufficient for this purpose: but the necessity of such a measure was not perceived, till it was too late. The opportunity was so much the more favourable at that time, namely in 1634, for obliging the Iroquois to come to an accommodation, and perhaps binding them to us for ever, as hitherto they had no trade with the Dutch settlement in their neighbourhood, and our allies were very much disposed to unite their forces, in order to make the last effort against them, and strike an effectual blow.

The Huron language extends itself as far as the Alonquin; which undoubtedly arises from this, namely, that the people who speak it, have always been of a less roving and migratory disposition than the Alonquins; I say the Huron language, to conform myself to the most commonly received opinion, for some still maintain that the Iroquois is the mother-tongue. However, all the savages dwelling to the S. of the river St. Laurence, from that of Sorel, as far as the extremity of Erie lake, and even pretty near Virginia, speak this language: and whoever understands the Huron, understands them all. The dialects of it have extremely multiplied, and they are almost as numerous as the villages. The five cantons which constitute the Iroquois republic have each their own dialect. And all  
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that formerly was called Huron indifferently had not the same language.

It is to be observed that as the greatest part of the savages of Canada have always had a commerce with one another, as well allies as enemies; and though the three mother-tongues, namely, the Siou, Huron, and Algonquin, have no kind of affinity or analogy with each other, these people have nevertheless found means to trade together without a truche man, as he is called, or interpreter; either long custom rendering it an easy matter to make themselves understood by signs, or having formed a sort of common jargon which they learn by continual practice.

The Huron language has great copiousness, energy, and grandeur; all which properties perhaps united together are not to be found in any of the most beautiful tongues we know of: and those people who speak it, though reduced to a handful of men, have still such an elevation of soul as agrees much better with the majesty of their language than the miserable condition to which they are now brought.

The people of the Huron language have always not only been more employed in the cultivation of their ground than the others, but they have spread themselves likewise a great deal less: and this has produced two effects; for, in the first place, they have been better settled, better accommodated with dwellings, and better fortified. There has always been among them more policy, and a form of government, the remains of which are here more easily to be traced. The post of chieftain, at least among the true Hurons, who are the *Tionnantates*, is hereditary. In the  
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next place, till the wars of the Iroquois happened, their country was better peopled, though polygamy has never been admitted among them. They have also the reputation of being more laborious, more industrious, and more dexterous in managing their affairs, and more discreet in their proceedings; which cannot be ascribed to any thing else but to the disposition for society, which they have preserved better than the others. Among the Hurons this is especially to be remarked, that forming almost no longer the body of a nation, and being reduced to two middling villages, very remote from each other, they are nevertheless still the soul of all their counsels, when matters of any general concern come to be debated. It is true, that notwithstanding this diversity, which is not to be observed at first sight, there is a good deal of resemblance in the character of the minds, manners, and customs of all the savages in Canada: but this is the consequence of intercourse and commerce, which they have had continually with one another for many ages past.

With regard to the government, customs, and religion of these people, I hitherto, continues Charlevoix, see nothing but a chaos, which is not possible to be disentangled. It would be but little satisfactory to publish all the extravagancies which have been attributed to these savages by some travellers, or have been drawn from their traditions. These besides have so little certainty, and are so grossly contradictory to one another for the most part, that it is nearly impossible to draw any certain conclusion from them; how indeed could a people, such as we find these to be, transmit with any measure of fidelity  
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what has passed among them for a succession of so many ages, having had no helps to assist their memory? And is it to be easily conceived that men who think so little about futurity, should ever have been sufficiently taken up about past events, so as to have preserved a faithful remembrance of them? Thus, after all the researches which could have been made, one is still to seek with regard to the situation of Canada, at the first discovery of it towards the middle of the sixteenth century.

The only point of their history that has come to us, cloathed with some sort of probability, is the rise of the war which M. de Champlain found was very much kindled between the Iroquois on one side, and the Hurons, and Algonquins on the other. In this war he meddled, M. Charlevoix says, a great deal more than was agreeable to the French interest; and, that for his own part, he has not been able to find the epocha of it; yet he does not take it to be very ancient. But he gives his reader notice before hand, that he will not insure the following historical account, though he says, at the same time, that he takes it from good authority.

The Algonquins inhabited all that extent of country, from Quebec, and perhaps even from Tadoussac, as far as Nipissing lake, along the N. shore of the river St. Laurence, and up to the great river which empties itself into it above the island of Montreal. Hence it may be judged, that this nation was at that time pretty numerous; and it is certain that it has, for a long time, made a very great figure in that part of America, where the Hurons alone were in a condition of disputing with them the pre-eminence over all

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the rest. With regard to hunting, they had no equals, and as for war, they had none superior to them. The few which at present remain of them have not degenerated from the ancient valour of this nation; and their misery has not yet made them lose their reputation.

The Iroquois entered into a kind of league with them, very advantageous to both the one and the other; but which, in the way of thinking among the savages, with whom a great hunter and a great warrior go hand in hand, gave the Algonquins a real superiority over the Iroquois. These last, almost entirely taken up in the cultivation of their lands, had engaged themselves to give a share of their crops to the Alonquins, who, on their part, were to divide with them the fruits of their hunting, and to defend them against the attempts of any who should endeavour to disturb them. These two nations lived thus for a pretty long time in a good understanding: but an ill-judged haughtiness on the part of the one, and an animosity which was not much minded, or attended to, on the part of the other, broke this union, and embroiled, irreconcilably both these people.

As winter is the season for the grand hunting, and as at that time the ground being covered with snow does not furnish employment for those who cultivate it; the savages of both nations in alliance, joined together in order to winter in the woods. But the Iroquois left the trouble of hunting to the Algonquins, and contented themselves with slaying the beasts that were taken, drying their flesh, and dressing their skins. This, at present, is the women's work every where: which probably then had not become a common custom  
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among them. However, the Iroquois did not mind it. Though, from time to time, some of them were desirous to make a trial at hunting, and the Algonquins were not against it; in which they shewed themselves bad politicians. It happened, in a certain winter, that a small body of both nations had stopped at a place, where they reckoned they should have good game for hunting; and accordingly six young Algonquins joined with the like number of Iroquois, who were of the same age, were sent out to begin the sport.

They at first perceived some elks: upon which all immediately made ready to fall upon them. But the Algonquins would not let the Iroquois pursue them, and gave them to understand that they should have enough to do to slay the beasts they were going to kill. But unluckily for these young boasters, three days passed without their being able to bring down a single elk, though a great number of these animals presented themselves. They were greatly mortified at this poor success, which apparently was a thing not displeasing to the Iroquois, who pressed to be permitted to go on the other side, where they flattered themselves they should be more fortunate. Their proposal was received by the Algonquins, in the same manner as that was by the brethren of David, which that young shepherd made about going to fight with the giant Goliath. They told the Iroquois that they were very vain to pretend having more skill than what the Algonquins had: that their business was to till the ground; and that they ought to leave the office of hunting to those whom it suited better.

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The Iroquois, provoked with this answer, made no sort of reply; but the night following they went away privily in order to hunt. The Algonquins, when they awaked, were surpris'd at not seeing their associates the Iroquois; but their astonishment soon was changed into an extreme disgust: for on the evening of the same day, they saw the Iroquois return, loaded with the flesh of elks which they had taken. No people in the world are more susceptible of envy, and carry it further than the savages of this country do. The effect of that passion on the Algonquins immediately shewed itself; for scarcely were the Iroquois asleep, before they had all their throats cut. Such a massacre could not long be concealed; and though the bodies were buried secretly, the nation to which they belonged were soon informed of it. They at first made their complaints with moderation; but at the same time they would have justice done on the murderers. But they were holden in too much contempt to have any such thing granted them. And the Algonquins would not humble themselves so far as to give them the least satisfaction.

The Iroquois, in despair, took a firm resolution of being avenged for the contempt which the Algonquins shewed for them, and which touched them more than the assassination of which they complain'd. They swore they would all die to a man, or have satisfaction: but as they found themselves not yet in a condition to try their strength with the Algonquins, whose very name kept in awe almost every other nation; they withdrew from them, and went to try their strength against an enemy less to be dreaded, a war with whom they looked upon as a diversion:



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and as soon as they thought themselves sufficiently hardened and enured, they fell all of a sudden upon the Algonquins, and began a war, the end of which the French, says Charlevoix, only saw, and which set all Canada in a flame. It has continued, on the part of the Iroquois, with a fierceness so much the more terrible, as it was the more premeditated, and had nothing of that precipitate fury which hinders from taking the proper measures, and which cools immediately. Besides this, the savages never thought they were sufficiently revenged, unless they had entirely destroyed their enemies: and this is truer with regard to the Iroquois than any other nation. It is commonly observed of them, that they come on like foxes, that they attack like lions, and that they fly off like poor birds. Thus they play generally a sure game; and such conduct has so well succeeded with them, that without the assistance of the French, says Charlevoix, there would not perhaps be at this day any mention of those nations, who dared to oppose this torrent.

Those most ill-used of all have been the Hurons, who found themselves engaged in this war, either as allies or neighbours of the Algonquins, or because they lay in the way of the one or the other. It has been surprising to see one of the most numerous and warlike nations on this continent, the most esteemed of them all for their wisdom and courage, to disappear almost entirely in a very few years. It may be even said, that no nation on this part of the continent but has paid dear on account of the Iroquois being forced to take arms: and, says Charlevoix, I know none in all Canada but the Abenakis

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among them, whom they did not dare to disturb; for when once they had tasted of war, they could not remain quiet, but like lions, whose insatiable thirst for blood is only increased by the bare view, and by never so small a participation of it. One would hardly believe what lengths they went in order to find out people with whom to fight. However, in consequence of their making war, as they have nevertheless received considerable checks from time to time, they have found themselves extremely diminished in their numbers, and without the slaves which they have taken in from all parts, the greatest number of whom they adopted or manumised, their situation would not now be more happy than that of the people they subdued.

What has happened in this respect to the Iroquois may be said with greater reason concerning all the other savages of this country; and it is not at all surprizing if, as has been already observed, these nations should diminish every day very sensibly; for though their wars do not at first appear to be equally destructive of lives as ours are, yet they are much more so in proportion. The most numerous of these nations have never, perhaps, exceeded 60,000 souls, and from time to time skirmishes pass among them, in which a great deal of blood is shed. A surprise, or sudden attack, sometimes destroys a whole village; and often the fear of an invasion makes the people desert a whole canton; at which time these fugitives, in order to avoid dying by the sword of their enemies, or meeting with punishment, expose themselves to perish by famine and distress in the forests and mountains, because they seldom have the leisure or precaution to  
carry

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carry provisions thither. This is what happened in the preceding age to a very great number of Hurons and Algonquins, of whom no body could give any account.

In the north part of Canada, and wherever the Algonquin language prevails, the dignity of Chief, or Cacique, is elective: but the whole ceremony of the election and installation consists in feasting, accompanied with dancing and singing. The chief elect also never fails of pronouncing the panegyric of him whose place he takes, and invoking his genius, or guardian spirit. Among the Hurons, where this dignity is hereditary, the succession is continued in the female line: so that upon the death of the chief, it is not his son who succeeds him, but the son of his sister, or in default of him, his nearest relation in the female line. If a whole branch becomes extinct, the most distinguished matron of the tribe, or nation, pitches upon that subject she likes best, and accordingly declares him chief.

Maturity of years is necessary for governing; and if the hereditary chief has not yet arrived at full age, they appoint him a regent, who has all the authority in his hands, but he exercises it, under the name of the minor. In general these chiefs do not receive great marks of deference; and if they are always obeyed, it proceeds from their knowing how to command. They indeed even pray, or rather propose, that they may not be raised to that power, and that they may never go beyond the bounds of that little authority which they enjoy. Thus, it is reason that governs, and the government is so much the more effectual, as obedience is the more free;

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and as the people have no need to fear that it shall ever degenerate into tyranny.

Each family has likewise a right of choosing a counsellor and assistant to the chief, and this person is to take care of their interests, and without his advice the chief can undertake no enterprise. These counsellors are especially obliged to have an eye on the public treasury, and it is their particular business to appoint the destination of the several sums to be employed out of it. They are received into the office in a general council; but their allies have no notice given them of this, as they have of the election and installation of their chiefs. Among the Huron nations it is the women who nominate the counsellors, and frequently they choose persons of their own sex.

The body of counsellors, or assistants, is the first of all; the second is that of the ancients, i. e. all those who have arrived at the age of maturity: but Charlevoix says he does not know precisely what the age is. The last body is that of the warriors. It comprehends all such as are able to bear arms. At their head is frequently the chief of the nation, or of the village: but he must previously have distinguished himself by some brave action: if not, he is obliged to serve in the station of a subaltern, that is, a plain soldier: for there are no degrees in the military service of the savages.

A great party indeed may have several chiefs, because they give this title to all those who have already bore command; yet they are nevertheless subject to the commandant of the party, a sort of general, without any conduct or real authority, who can neither reward, nor punish; whom

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whom his soldiers may quit when they please, without his having any thing to say to them; and whom, nevertheless, they hardly ever contradict: so true is it, that among men who make reason their rule, and are guided by honour and a zeal for their country, independency does not destroy subordination; and that frequently a free and voluntary obedience is always that sort which may be most surely relied on. Besides, the qualities requisite for a commander in war are, that that he should be successful, valiant, and disinterested. So that it is not surprising that obedience is readily paid to a man, in whom these characters are acknowledged to meet.

The women have the principal authority with the people of the Huron language, if we except the Iroquois canton of Onneyouth, among whom it is borne alternate by both sexes. But if this be the right of the matter, the practice is seldom conformable to it. The men indeed do not speak to the women but about what they would have them know, and very rarely that any matter of importance is communicated to them; though all be done in their name, and the chiefs are no more than their lieutenants. Yet the grandmother of the hereditary chief among the Hurons of the streights not being able to obtain a missionary for her village, is a good proof that the real authority of the women amounts but to very little. Yet we are assured, that they are the first who deliberate on whatever is proposed in the council, and that they afterwards give the result of their consultations to the chiefs, who make report of it to the general council, which is composed of the ancients. But it is very likely that all this is done by way

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of form, and under the restrictions already mentioned. The warriors consult also among themselves upon every thing within their province; but they can conclude nothing of any importance, nor about what concerns the interest of the nation or canton. Every thing must be canvassed and decreed in the council of the ancients who determine in the last resort.

It must be allowed, that the proceedings in these assemblies are carried on with such wisdom, mature deliberation, ability, and I will say, commonly with such probity, as would do honour to the Areopagus of Athens, and the senate of Rome in the best days of those two republics. For they conclude upon nothing with precipitation; and the principal passions which have so much changed the face of politics, even among christians, have not yet been able to prevail among these savages over the public good. The self-interested do not fail to set several springs in motion, and to employ a dexterity of management, of which one would hardly believe Barbarians to be capable, in order to attain their purposes. It is indeed true, that they have all, in a very high degree, the art of concealing their march: but commonly the glory of the nation and the motives of honour are the principal springs of all their enterprises. But what cannot be excused in them is, that most frequently they make it a point of honour to revenge themselves, and they set no bounds to their resentment: a fault which christianity alone can rectify, and which all our politeness and religion do not always correct.

Each tribe has its orator in its own canton; and hardly any but these have a right to speak in  
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their public deliberations, and general assemblies. They always speak well, and to the purpose. Besides this natural eloquence, which none, who have tried them can question, they have a perfect knowledge of the interests of those who employ them: and such a dexterity in setting their just rights in their full point of view, as nothing can exceed. On some occasions the women have an orator who speaks in their name, and as if he were the interpreter only. People, who may be said to possess nothing, neither in public nor private, and have no ambition to extend their territories, would, one should think, have few subjects for quarrelling with one another. But the mind of man, naturally restless, cannot remain without action; and it is a matter of ingenuity to procure something to employ one's self about. This is certain, that our savages are continually engaged about negotiations; and they have always some affair or other upon the carpet; namely, treaties to be concluded, or renewed, offers of service, reciprocal civilities, and alliances to be managed, invitations to war, compliments on the death of a chief, or of any considerable person: all which is done with a dignity, attention, and I may venture to say, with a capacity worthy of the most important concerns: and these are sometimes more so than they appear to be. For those whom they commission for this purpose have for the most part secret instructions; and the apparent motive of their deputation is frequently no more than a veil to conceal some other more serious matter.

Father Brebæuff, who lived a long while among the Hurons, gives an account of the following method of punishing assassins, com-

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monly practised. They laid the dead body upon poles in the upper part of a cottage, and the murderer was obliged, for several successive days, to be directly underneath, and so receive whatever dripped from the corps, not only upon himself, but even upon his victuals, which were set by him, unless this last disagreeable circumstance was prevented by making a considerable present to the friends of the defunct. But the missionary does not say, whether this was done by public authority, or by way of reprisal made use of by those concerned, when they could have the assassin in their power.

However, the most usual way among all the savages, to indemnify the relations for the loss of a person who has been assassinated, is to put a prisoner of war in his room; upon which occasion this captive is always adopted. He enjoys all the rights which belonged to the defunct; and he soon makes the person, whose place he occupies, to be forgotten. There are, nevertheless, some odious crimes which are directly punished with death, at least among some nations; of this kind is witchcraft.

Whoever is suspected of it, is no where safe; and when they have got him into their hands, they make him even undergo a sort of torture to oblige him to name his accomplices; after which he is condemned to the punishment of prisoners of war. But they previously ask the consent of his relations, who dare not refuse it. Such as are the least criminal are strangled, before they are burnt. Almost in the same manner they treat those who dishonour their families; and commonly the family itself avenges the injury.

Among

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Among the Hurons, who were much addicted to stealing, and performed it with a dexterity which our artful pick-pockets would account as an honour to them, it was allowed, upon discovery of the thief, not only to recover from him what he had taken, but even to carry off every thing in his hut; to strip him, his wife, and children, naked, without their being able to make the least resistance. Besides, in order to avoid all manner of disputes that might arise on this head, they agreed upon certain points, from which they never deviated. For instance, every thing found, were it but a moment from the time of its being lost, belonged to that person who found it, provided that the first owner had not already claimed it. But how little fraud soever was observed on the part of the finder, they obliged him to restore it. And this sometimes gave occasion to altercations which were pretty difficult to determine.

In order to hinder the consequences of a murder, the public takes upon itself to make satisfaction for the guilty; and to indemnify those concerned. Would one think, that even this is of greater force to prevent these disorders, than the most severe laws? Yet nothing is truer in fact: for as such satisfactions cost men very dear, whose ferocity surpasses all that can be said of it, the guilty person is more sensible of the pain in which he sees the nation upon his account, than he would be of his own; and the zeal for the honour of the nation restrains these barbarians a great deal more powerfully than the fear of death and punishment could do.

Besides it is certain, that impunity has not always prevailed among them so much as it has  
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done lately. And the first missionaries have found traces of the ancient rigour with which they knew well how to repress crimes. Theft in particular has always been looked upon as a stain which would disgrace a family; and each had a right to wash out the stain with the blood of the guilty person. Father Brebæuf saw one day a young Huron knock out his sister's brains: he run up to stop him, when upon asking what induced him to commit such violence, 'the savage made answer, it is my sister: she has been guilty of theft, and I was willing to expiate by her death the affront which she has done both to me and all our family.'

**HURON LAKE**, a large collection of inland waters, but so as to be in the course of the river St. Laurence, in Canada, in North America; namely, the lake Alempigon discharges itself into that called the Superior lake, this into the Huron, and this into that of Érie, or Conti; and this last into the lake of Frontenac, or Ontario. The Huron lake hath a communication by a small streight, or channel, with that of Michigan; and the lands contiguous to it are called the country of the Hurons, already described, where the French pretend to have settlements and alliances with the Indians there, who found out a way from this lake to the settlements on the Mississippi, a river which falls into the gulph of Mexico.

JAGO

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**JAGO DEL ESTERO, SAN**, the metropolis of Tucuman, a province of Paraguay, in South America. It is the see of a bishop, is situated on the banks of the Dolce, which is here pretty large and navigable for vessels of burthen, and affording a plenty and variety of fish. The town consists only of 300 houses, or 500 families, and is quite without walls, ditch, or other fence. The inhabitants are mostly Mastichos, and Mulattos, of a dark yellow complexion, lazy and sickly, from the heat of the climate, and addicted more to pleasure, than to any traffic or work. The town stands on a flat, but surrounded with forests which cause a stagnation of the air. It has hardly 300 men fit to bear arms, including all the inhabitants. The women are generally handsome, but most of them are troubled with swellings, or wens in the throat. The neighbouring country produces plenty of wheat, rice, barley, fruits of all sorts, particularly figs and raisins; the forests yield plenty of game, but are also infested with tygers, and other beasts of prey, particularly guanacos of the size of a horse, in whose maw is found the occidental bezoar.

Besides the cathedral, is the Jesuit's church, with two others belonging to monasteries. The inquisitor, or governor, of this province, who is a secular priest, resides in this town, and nominates his substitutes for the other parts of the country. This St. Jago is situated about 160 leagues E. from Potosi, in lat. 24. 40. S. and long. 64. 55. W.

**JAGO, ST.** in the bishopric of the same name, and capital of all Chili, in South America. It

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is situated in a beautiful plain of vast extent. The town is watered on the E. side by the little river Mapocho, which is swelled in summer by the melting of the snow in the Cordillera, and in winter by the excessive rains; yet it is for the most part fordable. Its water is always foul, which the inhabitants filtre through a kind of stone.

For preventing inundations they have built a wall and a dyke, by means of which the waters are at all times conveyed for watering their gardens, and cooling the streets. Besides these, they draw larger streams for driving the mills in several parts of the city. The streets are laid out according to the four cardinal points. They are exactly in a line, and neatly paved with small stones.

The earthquakes, frequent here, have much endamaged the city; and among them those particularly of 1647, and 1657: the former almost overturned the whole town, and left such noxious vapours that all the inhabitants died except 3 or 400. Since that time some of the monasteries have been enlarged beyond the straight lines.

About the middle of the city is the Placa Real, or Royal Square, with eight avenues leading to it, and in the centre is a fountain with a brass basin. The W. side contains the cathedral and bishop's palace; the N. side, the president's new palace, the royal court, the council-house, and prison; the S. side is a row of porticos, or uniform arches, for the conveniency of merchants, with a gallery over these for seeing the bull-fights.

The



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The houses, as is usual throughout Chili, have only a ground-floor built with unburnt bricks, and here they are handsomer than elsewhere, and the churches richer in gilding; but the whole architecture is in an ill taste, except the Jesuits church, which is a Latin cross arched on a Doric order. All the churches have a small area for processions; most of them are built with bricks, but some are of free-stone; and others are also of pebbles from a small rock, called St. Lucy's hill, E. of the city, from the top of which is a full view of the city and parts adjacent.

The governor has the titles of president and captain-general, on account of his two employments of the gown and sword. He presides in the royal court, which is composed of four judges, two fiscals; one of whom has the charge of protecting the Indians, and of the affairs of the Croisade; also a head serjeant of the court, with other officers. No appeal lies from a judgment on a writ of error, or review upon a royal decision, which only takes cognizance of matters of moment, unless it be the royal council of the Indies. Other matters are decided in the council-house, consisting of members like those of Conception.

The ecclesiastical state, as well the secular, has a dependence on Lima: but the bishop's power here is very much circumscribed, the laws not allowing him the disposal of any cure: even the pope has not his turn here. Besides the cathedral, here are three parish churches; but small, and little resorted to, as the Monks, and especially the Jesuits, pretend to a right of performing ecclesiastical functions, when they please.

Here

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Here are eight monasteries for men ; all which communities are numerous.

At St. Jago is the tribunal of the inquisition of Chili, where the commissary-general and his officers reside. They apply themselves to the finding out of forcerers and witchès, true or false, and certain crimes, as polygamy, &c. But as for heretics, none fall into their hands, they study so little here. The name of licentiate, or doctor, the Dominicans and Jesuits can confer, by a privilege obtained from the pope, though no university be established as St. Jago.

JAGO DE LEON, SANT, a town of Venezuela, a province of Terra Firma, in South America. It is situated about 18 miles from the sea-coast to the S. To it are two ways from the sea ; the one short and easy ; but may be easily guarded by a few people, being about the middle pent in by inaccessible mountains and groves, so that it is hardly 25 feet broad : the other road is through craggy mountains and precipices, which the Indians generally use. After passing those mountains is a plain in which the town is built. In 1599, the English took this town, after making themselves masters of the Caraccas.

JAGO DE GUATIMALA, ST. one of the principal towns of New Spain in South America. The old city was utterly destroyed by a hurricane and earthquake in 1541, when it is said, 12,000 Spaniards (according to their usual over-telling) lost their lives. It was built at the bottom of a volcano, with two tops, from one of which issued fire, and from the other water. The present city stands in a fine valley on a river about three leagues from the volcano. It is the residence of the presidents, the seats of the royal

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royal courts, and of a rich bishop suffragan to Mexico. It has an university, and is the centre of commerce in all those parts. It contains about 8000 families: and the citizens carry on a considerable trade through all the provinces of Mexico, and even into Peru, by the ports of La Trinidad and Realejo. Its trade with Spain is from Golfo Dolce. The principal commodities in which they deal are hides, indigo, anatta, sylvester, cochineal, cocoa, &c. And indeed no city can stand more commodiously for an extensive trade, and be safer from pirates and privateers, lying 8 leagues from the South Sea, and about 40 from the gulph of Mexico: yet still it is liable to frequent earthquakes, as well as to eruptions from a neighbouring volcano, which burns most fiercely during the rainy season, and throws out huge stones and pieces of rocks. This mountain is seen a great way off at sea, it being, according to Gage, 9 miles high. The cathedral and parish churches here are extremely rich; and here are also 2 fine monasteries, besides a good hospital. The valley in which the city stands is about 2 miles and  $\frac{1}{2}$  broad, opening a little beyond the old town into a wide champaign towards the sea. Though it be surrounded with mountains, yet there are good roads over them.

The government of the adjacent country, and of the provinces of Honduras, Soconusco, Vera Paz, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Chiapa, is subordinate to the chancery here, which consists of a president, who has as great power as the viceroys of Peru and Mexico, also of six judges, the king's attorney, and two chief justices. They have all handsome salaries, which they very much increase by trading and bribes. The university  
here

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here founded, in 1624, by Philip IV. joins to the Dominican convent, a stately pile, with a yearly revenue computed to be at least 30,000 ducats; and its treasury would make it 100,000. The nunnery of the Conception consists of 1000 women, including servants and scholars; and they receive none but such as bring with them from 500 to 1000 ducats. Here, says Mr. Gage, idolatry, fornication, and uncleanness, are as public as in any part of the Indies. Lat. 14. 10. S. Long. 92. 18. W.

**JAGO DE NEXAPA, St.** a town of Guaxaca, one of the provinces in the audience of Mexico, in North America. It has the addition of Nexapa from the valley in which it is situated, on the side of a river, which falls into the Alvarado, 18 miles S. of Ildesonso. It has a convent of Dominicans much enriched by presents of votaries, who come far and near to see an image of the Virgin Mary, and its pretended miracles.

**JAGO DE LOS VALLES, St.** a town of Panuco, a province of New Spain, in North America. It is situated five leagues S. W. of Panuco city, on the river of the same name. Here the Spaniards have a garrison, and in its neighbourhood are salt-works.

**JAGO DE CUBA, St.** the capital, though not the most considerable town of the island of Cuba. The addition made to it by the Spaniards is in order to distinguish it from many other towns in America, as well as Europe. It is situated at the bottom of a spacious bay, on the S. E. side of the island, about two leagues from the sea. The entrance into this bay is narrow for several miles; but within it are little islands forming a most commodious harbour, and shelter

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shelter from storms. It was built by Velasquez, the first conqueror, who made it the seat of his bloody government. The city is still the see of a bishop, with a cathedral, where the canons are residentiary but the mixed head resides only at the Havannah. It had once a good trade: but this is also removed to that city; so that St. Jago has dwindled almost to nothing; though it has jurisdiction over one half of the island. After the English had left the island, about 400 men were continually employed for some time in repairing its fortifications. Within three leagues of it, at Covery, is a rich copper mine. Lat. 20. 15. N. Long. 76. 40. W.

JAGO DE LA VEGA, ST. commonly called Spanish town, the capital of the island of Jamaica, in America. It is situated seven miles N. of Port Passage, and the bay of Port Royal. Formerly it was the residence of the governor, and when the general assembly and courts of justice were holden. But these have been lately removed to Kingston, which is now reckoned the capital. Lat. 18. 26. N. Long. 76. 32. W.

JAMAICA, one of the principal towns on Long island, or Nassau island, belonging to Queen's county, in New York, in North America. It is situated on the W. side, and has a church in it.

JAMAICA, one of the greater Antilles, in the West Indies, and situated in the Atlantic ocean. This island being discovered by Columbus in the year 1494, in his second voyage from Spain to this part of the world, he changed the name of Jamaica to that of St. Jago, which it retained while it was in the hands of the Spaniards, and this was 150 years: but after they were dispossessed

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possessed of it, in 1656, by the English, during Cromwell's usurpation, and with a fleet primarily destined for the reduction of Hispaniola, under the command of Penn and Venables, it yielded without much opposition, and recovered its old appellation: afterwards the Spaniards ceded the island to the British court.

This is the largest of all the English island-colonies, and even of any of the greater Antilles, except Cuba and Hispaniola. It extends itself between lat. 17 and 18. 27 N. and between long. 76 and 79 W. so that it is about 140 miles in length from Point Negril on the W. to Point Morant on the E. and 60 in breadth where broadest; namely, from Gallina Point on the N. to Portland Pitch on the S. but it being of an oval form, it grows narrower towards each end. The acres it contains are computed by some at 4, by others at 5,000,000; of which, some say, one half is planted, and others not 200,000 acres.

It is divided by a ridge of mountains which runs through the whole island from E. to W. containing the springs of innumerable fine rivers, stored with fish of various kinds; and many of them navigable by canoes, in which sugars are carried from the plantations to the sea-side, and shipped in schooners and sloops for Port Royal and Kingston, there to be loaded for England. In several districts they go by several names, being crowned with trees of almost 100 various kinds; particularly cedars, *lignum vitæ*, mahogany, &c. ever verdant, forming groves, and cool retreats. The tops of some of the mountains are higher than others; on each side of the ridge are others much lower, which, with the woods on their



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their brows, and the little plantations on their  
 sides, form at sea a very agreeable prospect.  
 These mountains consist either of rock, or stiff  
 clay. The valleys too are always verdant, being  
 embellished with plantations curiously laid out,  
 and producing the richest plants in the universe.  
 Several of its rivers disappear, or alter their course,  
 after a storm, and lose their names; and some of  
 them run for many miles under ground; and  
 then emerge again. In some parts of the island  
 indeed, where it seldom rains, the water is  
 brackish and unwholesome. The number of ri-  
 vers in this island, Sir Hans Sloane reckons to  
 be near 100. These may more properly be cal-  
 led torrents; for they come precipitately down  
 the mountains, running but a few miles before  
 they fall into the sea, and carrying with them in  
 their course large stones, pieces of rock, and  
 timber, generally much clay, or earth, which  
 fouls the water; but this, after settling some days  
 in jars, proves good. Though the Spaniards  
 called one of these rivers Rio de Cobre, yet upon  
 trial of the sand, and other sediments, no met-  
 tal was found in them. One frequently sees ca-  
 taracts in the rivers among the mountains, 50 or  
 60 feet high. Spring water remote from the sea,  
 is preferred to that of rivers or ponds. Fresh  
 water is very scarce in dry years in the savannas  
 distant from rivers, so that many of their cattlet  
 die by being driven a great way for water. The  
 well-water near the sea, as particularly a  
 Port Royal is brackish, and occasions fluxes  
 and other diseases to such as drink it. Some  
 springs in this island, as well as rivers, petrify  
 their channels, and stop their own course by a  
 cement uniting the sand and gravel at the bottom.

The

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The most remarkable river of this kind is at Abraham's plantation on the N. side of the island. Near Port Morant, in the E. part of the island, is a hot bath in a wood, the water of which has been used with great success, by drinking as well as bathing in it for the cure of the gripes, the common disease of the country. In a level ground, under the hills in Cabbage-tree bottom, about two miles from the sea, rise a great many salt springs, which uniting, form what is called the Salt river. Here salt is made in the ponds, into which the sea-water comes, where the moisture being exhaled by the heat of the sun, leaves the salt in great plenty, particularly at the ponds about Old Harbour, &c. It is not perfectly white, nor granulated; but is in large lumps, with a cast of red in it. Here also are many lakes, one of which, called Rio Hoa, receives a great deal of water by a river with no visible out-let to it.

The climate of Jamaica is more temperate, and the weather more various than in the Caribbee islands: and there is no country between the tropics where the heat is less troublesome, the air being continually cooled by breezes from the E. frequent rains, and nocturnal dews. The E. and W. parts of the island are not so agreeable, on account of the thick forests there, as the S. and N. parts, which are not only more open, but much less subject to storms of wind and rain. The air in the mountainous parts is cooler, though it rains frequently in January; yet May, and October, or November, are those distinguished by the name of the winter months, on account of the rain and thunder, more violent at some times than others: and sometimes the rains

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rains last for a fortnight together, without any intermission, laying the level grounds several inches under water, and rendering the roads almost impassible. All the year round, the mornings are excessively hot, till about eight o'clock, when the easterly breezes begin to blow. These are called the Doctor, the people, while they last, being able to stir about their business, and the negroes to work in the fields. These gales gently approach the shore, the sea before them coming on as smooth as can be imagined. In half an hour after the breeze has reached the shore, it fans pretty briskly, and gradually increases till about 12, when it is generally strongest, and lasts till 2 or 3, when it begins to die away till about 5, when it is quite spent, and returns no more till next morning. About 8 in the evening begins a land-breeze, which blows 4 leagues into the sea, and continues increasing till 12 at night; after which it decreases till 4 in the morning, when no more of it is to be felt till next night. The sea-breeze is more violent at some time than others; and particularly at the change, or full moon, when it gains very much on the land-winds. And in December, January, and February, when the N. winds reign, they blow over the ridge of mountains with violence, and hinder the sea-breeze, which blows stronger and longer near the sea, as at Port Royal, or Passage Fort, than within land, as at Spanish town: as on the contrary, the land wind blows harder at the town, than it does at Passage Fort, or Port Royal. As the trade-wind between the tropics comes not directly from the E. but varies from N. E. to S. E. according to the place and position of the sun: so

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the sea-breeze here has the like variation, not coming always from the same point. On the contrary, the land-breezes come always from the ridge of mountains, and from the same point of them, on the N. and S. sides. Sometimes the sea-breeze blows in the winter-months 14 days and nights together; and then no clouds gather, but dews fall. But if a N. wind blow, which it sometimes does full as long in the winter-months, then no dews fall, no clouds gather. In the valleys among the mountains neither of these breezes have any great influence; but the N. winds often blow down trees. The land-wind blowing at night every way at once, and the sea-breeze in the day time, no ship can come into port, except in the day; nor none go out, but soon after day-break. The N. winds come in, when the sun is nearest the tropic of Capricorn; and consequently most to the S. This is a very cold unhealthy wind, and is most violent in the night, when it has the additional force of the land-wind. It checks the growth of the sugar-canes, and all vegetables on the N. side; but it is hindered by the ridge of mountains from venting much of its fury on the S. where it is seldom accompanied with rain. The S. winds bring the most lasting rains; but none from the land are lasting on the S. side. Storms used to be very rare here, till within these 70 or 80 years, that terrible hurricanes and earthquakes have extremely incommoded vessels on the coast. The nights here are sometimes pretty cool, the sun being so far under the horizon, that scarce any reflected rays enlighten the atmosphere, which causes an increase of the cold. Every night here are piercing dews, which are reckoned very

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unwholesome, especially to new-comers, who are too apt to expose themselves: but in the plains, or sandy places near the sea, there are few, if any, fogs. The rains are violent, and the drops very large. The tides are scarce discernible, their increase or decrease depending mostly on the winds, and not according to the age of the moon. The days and nights here are almost of an equal length all the year round; the longest day of all being a little above 13 hours, and the night proportionably. The twilight is not above  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an hour.

In Jamaica are two seasons for planting grain, and these are the wet seasons, there being no other distinction of these, except the wet and dry: nor are they regular, but vary in many parts of the island. In the N. side the seasons are pretty regular; but they have lately failed very much in the plantations on the S. side.

The months of July, August, and September, are called hurricane months, in which scarcely a year but some such storm happens in a greater or less degree. The strong winds from the N. bring storms of very large hail-stones. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder; which, when it does happen, it roars very terribly, and often does a deal of damage. Earthquakes here are but too common, as well as in Hispaniola, and commit dreadful devastations in this island; particularly those of 1688 and 1692; as did a fire not long after, that burnt down almost the whole remaining town at the point, called Port Royal; which has never since been rebuilt: and most destructive hurricanes, one in 1712, and another, accompanied with an earthquake, in 1722. The valleys in Jamaica are very level

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and smooth, without rocks or stones, or scarcely any rising; and the mountains very steep, and some of them impassable, being surrounded on both sides by deep channels caused by the violent rains.

This island is so far from being all over cultivated, that it has as much lying waste as would produce about three times what it does at present. One third of the island is uninhabited. There are plantations round the island; but none at any great distance from the sea, and even one half of the ground in these is over-run with wood. The soil in some places is so fertile, that one acre has been known to yield several hog-heads of sugar: yet here and there are savannahs, or large plains, where the Indians used to plant their maize, and where the Spaniards afterwards bred their cattle, grass growing there in such plenty, that the inhabitants have been forced to burn it: so that now they are quite bare and barren. In all other parts, however, the soil is good and fruitful, especially in the northern parts, where the mould is blackish, and in many places mixed with potters-earth: but in others, especially towards the S. E. the soil is reddish and sandy. Jamaica, as well as most of the sugar-islands, has a kind of white chalky soil, called marle, lying two or three feet deep, which is of so hot a quality, and that so increased by manure, that their crops in all dry seasons are sure to fail. In a wet year the leaves grow rank, and never come to maturity.

The natural productions of Jamaica are sugar, rum, ginger, cotton, coffee, indigo, pimento, called allspice, or Jamaica pepper, cocoa, several kinds of woods, some medicinal drugs, and tobacco;

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bacco ; but this last of so ordinary a sort, that it is only cultivated to serve the negroes, who are passionately fond of it. Jamaica bears no sort of European grain : yet it produces maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, pease of various kinds, but none like ours, except some English pease in gardens, with cabbages, and a variety of roots. Fruits grow here in great abundance, as the Seville and China orange, the common and sweet lemon, shaddocks, citrons, pomegranates, mamies, fourfops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly-pears, Alicada-pears, pompions, melons, guavas, and several sorts of berries to be found every where in the woods. But our common apple-trees, it is observed, will not grow here, or at least only in very few places, as may be said of other fruits which prosper more in colder climates.

Some of its productions deserve a more particular description, among these pimento and sugar, with some others as follows, claim the principal regard.

The tree which bears pimento rises to the height of above 30 feet. It is straight, of a moderate thickness, and covered with a gray bark, extremely smooth and shining. It shoots out a vast many branches on all sides, that bear a plentiful foliage very large and beautiful, of a shining green, in all respects resembling the leaf of the bay-tree. At the very extremity of the twigs are formed bunches of flowers ; each stalk bearing a flower which bends back ; and within which curvature may be discerned some stamina of a pale green colour. To these succeeds a bunch of small crowned berries, larger, when ripe, than those of the juniper : at that season

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they change from their former green, and become black, smooth, and shining. They are taken unripe from the tree, and dried in the sun: in this case, they assume a brown colour, and have a mixed flavour of many sorts of spice, whence it is called allspice: but it is milder than the other spices, and is reckoned inferior to none of them for the service it does to cold, watery, and languid stomachs. The tree grows mostly upon the mountains.

Besides this, they have here the wild cinamon-tree, the bark of which is so serviceable in medicine; the manchenille, a most beautiful tree to the eye, with the fairest apple in the world; and when cut down, a very fine ornamental wood for the joiners and cabinet-makers; but the apple and juice, in every part of the tree, contain one of the rankest poisons. Here is the mahogany, which is in such general use with us; the cabbage-tree, a tall plant famous for a substance looking and tasting like cabbage, which grows on the very top, and produces but one in a year; for the extreme hardness of its wood, which, when dry, is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any tool. The palma, from which is drawn a great deal of oil, much esteemed by the negroes both in food and medicine: the white wood, which never breeds the worm in ships; the soap tree, whose berries answer all the purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive-bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and red-wood to the dyers, and lately the logwood. Their forests also supply the apothecary with guaicum, salsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds; they have aloes too; and do not want the cochineel plant, though they know nothing of the art of man-  
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ning it; nor perhaps is the climate suitable to it. The indigo plant (the manufacture of which see under Carolina) was formerly much cultivated, and the cotton tree, which is still so; and they send to Great Britain more of its wool than all the rest of our islands together.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies, and particularly of Jamaica, is sugar. This commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, honey seeming to have served for most of the purposes for which sugar is now used; though it was made in China in very early times, from which country we had the first knowledge of it. But the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not certain whether the cane from which this substance is extracted be a native of America, or brought thither by the Portuguese from India, and the coast of Africa. But, however, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do, the best of sugars which come to the market in this part of the world. The sugar-cane grows to the height of between six and eight feet, full of joints, about four or five inches asunder: the colour of the body of the cane is yellowish, and the top, where it shoots into leaves, of a vivid green: the coat is pretty hard; and within it contains a spongy substance full of a juice, the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet of any in nature: and which sucked raw has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome.

The canes are cultivated thus. In the month of August, that is in the rainy season of the year here, after the ground is cleared and well

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hoed, they lay a piece of six or seven joints of the cane, flat in a channel made for it, above half a foot deep: this they cover with the earth; and so plant the whole field in lines regularly disposed, and at proper distances. In a short time a young cane shoots out from every joint of the stock which was interred, and grows in 10 or 12 days to be a pretty tall and vigorous plant: but it is not till after 16 months, or thereabouts, that the canes are fit to answer the purposes of the planter, though they may remain a few months after without any considerable prejudice to him. The longer they remain in the ground after they have come to maturity, the less juice indeed they yield; but this is somewhat compensated by the superior richness of the juice. In order that no time may be lost, they generally divide their cane-grounds into three parts: one is of standing canes, and to be cut that season; the second is of new planted canes; and the third is fallow, ready to receive a fresh supply. In some places they make second and third cuttings from the same root. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuse of the cane after grinding, serves for firing: so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

The canes are cut with a billet, and carried in bundles to the mill, which is now generally a wind-mill. It turns three great cylinders, or rollers, plated with iron, set perpendicularly, and cogged so as to be all moved by the middle roller. Between these the canes are bruised to pieces, and the juice runs through a hole into a vat placed under the rollers in order to receive it:

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from thence it is carried through a pipe into a great reservoir, in which, however, for fear of turning sour, it is not suffered to rest long; but is conveyed out of that by other pipes into the boiling house, where it is received by a large caldron. Here it remains till the scum, which constantly rises to the top during the boiling, is all taken off: from this it is passed successively into five or six more boilers, gradually diminishing in their size, and treated in the same manner. In the last of these, it becomes of a very thick clammy consistence; but mere boiling is incapable of carrying it further. To advance the operation, they pour in a small quantity of lime-water: the immediate effect of this alien mixture is to raise up the liquor into a very vehement fermentation; but to prevent it from running over, a bit of butter no larger than a nut is thrown in, upon which the fury of the fermentation immediately subsides: a vessel of 2 or 300 gallons requires no greater force to quiet it. Now it is taken out and placed in a cooler, where it dries, granulates, and becomes fit to be put into the pots, which is the last part of the operation.

These pots are of a conical, or sugar-loaf, form, open at the point, which must be considered as their bottom; and here a strainer is put across. In these pots the sugar purges itself of all remaining impurity. The molasses, or treacly part, disentangles itself from the rest, precipitates, and runs out of the aperture at the bottom. It is now in the condition of Muscavado sugar, a term borrowed from the Portuguese of Brasil; and this is of a yellowish brown colour, with a sparkling grain.

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After the sugar has remained in these pots two days and nights, it is removed to the curing-house, and set upon earthen pans about a foot from the ground, called dripes. Into these pans run the molasses, which is carried thence to the distil-house, or to a cistern, where it remains, till rising to a good quantity, it is sometimes boiled again; and a sort of sugar made of it, called paneels, worse than Muscavado, and shipped off in casks for England. The planters supposing the sugar to be perfectly cured in a month's time, the pots are then removed to the knocking-room, so called, because the pots are there turned upside down, and the sugar knocked out of them, which will then appear of three different colours and qualities, the top brown, and of a frothy light substance for the depth of an inch or two; the bottom black, heavy, moist, and full of molasses, for about a foot: but the middle, which is generally three fourths of the whole, dry, white, and good. The top is packed up with the bottom: about half of the whole is boiled, and further refined with the paneels, and the middle is carried to the store-house, as fit for market: yet the finest of this sort will have a sediment at the bottom, after it is in the hoghead, which will be moister, fouler, and blacker, than the rest, because of the molasses remaining in it. This is the sugar which is commonly imported into England, and is fit both for the grocer and sugar-baker. A gallon of the juice of the canes, if ever so good, makes but one pound of Muscavado, and one of molasses; and the rest is skimmings and dregs.

But when they have a mind to refine the Muscavado still further, and leave no remains at all  
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of the molasses, they cover the pots above-mentioned with a sort of white clay, like that used for tobacco-pipes, dilated with water: this penetrates the sugar, unites with the molasses, and with them runs off, leaving the sugar of a whitish colour, but most so at top. This is called clayed sugar. Sometimes the operation is repeated once or twice more; and the sugar diminishing every time in quantity gains considerably in value: but still it is called clayed sugar. Further than this they do not go in the plantations, because a heavy duty of 16 shillings per hundred is laid upon all sugars refined there.

The difference betwixt clayed and refined sugars is this: the former has no lime-water put into it, neither is boiled again; but only pots of Muscavado clayed down; which clay, by its coldness, condenses and forces the moisture downwards: yet enough is left behind to make it fouler and grosser than refined sugar; which is Muscavado boiled over again, and clarified with lime-water; then potted and strained: and this sugar will be drier, and of a more sparkling white than the brightest of that which has been clayed.

The dregs of the juice, skimmings of the copper, and the drippings from the pots, being all carried to cisterns and backs, where they ferment, are from thence conveyed by pipes to the distilling-house, where from the skimmings and molasses of the sugar, rum is distilled in this manner. They mix four parts water, and one molasses in the cisterns, where they work it up with ladles twice every 24 hours; and in about 10 days it is stale and ripe. Then they put it into the stills, and rectify it as the common spi-

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rits are with us. Also from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is produced. It is commonly allowed 100 weight of molasses will yield 10 gallons of spirits for use. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is consumed by the British inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade; or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and the African commerce; besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a great quantity of molasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be distilled there.

It is computed that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation; and that the sugars are clear gain. In short, Jamaica sugars are said to be the best in all our plantations, and made with the greatest ease.

The whole produce of the island may be reduced to these general heads. 1. Sugars, of which they exported, in 1753, 20,315 hog-heads: some vastly large, even to a ton weight; which cannot be worth less in England than 427,725 pounds sterling. Most of this goes to London and Bristol; and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, pease, staves, plank, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. 2. Rum, of which they export about 4000 puncheons. The rum of this island is esteemed the best, and the most generally used in England. 3. Molasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where are vast distilleries. All these are the productions of their grand staple, the sugar-cane. 4. Cotton, of which they send out 2000 bags. The indigo, formerly much cul-

tivated, is now inconsiderable : but some coffee and cocoa are exported, the former of which is in no great esteem ; though it is said to be little inferior to that of Mocha, provided it be kept for two or three years. With these they send home a considerable quantity of pimento, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweetmeats, mahogany, and manchenille plank. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain, and Terra Firma ; for in the former they cut large quantities of logwood ; and both in the former and latter they drive a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of the same European goods, which are carried thither from Old Spain by the Flota.

Both the logwood, and this contraband trade have been the subjects of much contention, and the cause of a war between us and the Spaniards. The former article we avow, and we claim it as our right : though in the last treaty of peace, that point was far from being well settled. The latter we permit ; because we think, and that very justly, that if the Spaniards find themselves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lies upon them, and not upon us, to put a stop to it.

Formerly we cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, on the northern side of the peninsula of Yucatan. But the Spaniards have driven our people entirely from thence, having built forts, and made settlements, in order to prevent them from returning. Expelled from Yucatan, the logwood-cutters settled upon the gulph of Honduras, and southern side of the same peninsula, where they are in fort established, and have a fort to protect them. They are an odd kind of people,

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people, composed mostly of vagabonds and fugitives from all parts of North America, and their manner of life is suitable, pretty much in a lawless manner, though they elect one amongst them whom they call their king; and to him they pay as much obedience as they think fit. The country they are in is low, and extremely marshy; the air much infested with muskitos, and the water very dangerous by reason of alligators. Yet a life of licentiousness, plenty of brandy, large gains, and a want of thought, have perfectly reconciled them to the hardships of their employment, and the unwholesomeness of the climate. They go always well armed, and are about 1500 men.

In the dry season, when they cut the logwood, they advance a considerable way into the country, following it as it runs amongst the other trees of the forest, like the vein of a mine in the earth. When the rains have overflowed the whole country, they have marks by which they know where the logwood is deposited. It is a heavy wood, and sinks in the water. It is, however, easily buoyed up, and one diver can lift very large beams. These they convey, by means of the land-floods, into the river, to a place called the Barcaderas, or Port, where they meet the ships that come upon this trade.

In the year 1716, when the debate concerning this matter was revived, the lords of trade reported, that before the year 1676, we had a number of people settled, and carrying on this trade to the peninsula of Jucatan; that we always considered this as our right, and were supported in it by our kings: and that this right was confirmed, if it had wanted any confirmation, by a  
clause

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clause of *uti possidetis*, in the treaty of peace concluded with Spain and the court of London in 1676. And further, that the Spaniards themselves have incidentally drawn a great advantage from it; since the pirates, who were formerly the most resolved and effectual enemies they ever had, were the more easily restrained from their enterprises, by having their minds diverted to this employment. Upon the whole it appeared, that this trade employed near 6000 tons of shipping, found employment for a number of seamen proportionable; consumed a good deal of our manufactures, and was of considerable use in fabricating many others; and that the whole value of the returns were not less than 60,000 pounds sterling a year.

This trade of logwood, though under many difficulties and discouragements, still continues, and is generally carried on by New England vessels, who take what goods they want in Jamaica.

But there is still a more profitable trade carried on between this island and the Spanish continent, especially in war-time. This too has been the occasion of much bickering between us and the court of Spain: and it will yet be more difficult for them to put a stop to this trade than to the former, whilst the Spaniards themselves are so eager for it, whilst it is so profitable to the British merchant, and whilst the Spanish officers, from the highest to the lowest, shew so great a respect to presents, properly made them. The trade is thus carried on. The ship from Jamaica having taken in negroes, and a proper assortment of goods there, proceeds in time of peace to a harbour, called the Grout, within Monkey-key, about

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about four miles from Porto Bello. A person who understands Spanish is directly sent a-shore to give the merchants of the town notice of the arrival of the vessel. The same news is carried likewise with great speed to Panama; from whence the merchants set out disguised like peasants, carrying their silver in jars covered with meal, in order to deceive the officers of the revenue. Here the ship remains, trading frequently for five or six weeks together. The Spaniards usually come on board, leave their money, and take their negroes, and their goods packed up in parcels fit for one man to carry, after having been handsomely entertained on board, and receiving provisions sufficient for their journey homeward. If the whole cargo of the vessel is not disposed of here, they bear off eastward to the New, a harbour about five miles distant from Carthagena, where they soon find a vent for the rest. No trade is more profitable than this, the payments being made in ready money, and the goods selling higher than they would at any other market. Not on this coast only, but every where upon the Spanish main this trade is carried on; nor is it by the English only, but by the French from Hispaniola, the Dutch from Curassoa, and even the Danes have some share in it. When the Spanish guarda-costas seize upon one of these vessels, they make no scruple of confiscating the cargo, and of treating the crew in a manner little better than pirates.

This commerce in time of peace, and this, with the prizes which are made in time of war, pour into Jamaica an astonishing quantity of treasure. Great fortunes are in a manner made instantly; the people of the island appearing to

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live in such a state of luxury, as in all other places leads to beggary. Their equipages, cloaths, furniture, and tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion imaginable: so that all the treasure they thus receive, makes but a short stay, as added to all the productions of the island, it is hardly more than sufficient to answer the calls of their necessity and luxury upon Europe and North America, and their demand for slaves, of which this island is obliged to have an annual recruit for its own use, and that of the Spanish trade, of upwards of 6000 head, and which, one with another, stand them in 30l. a piece, and often more.

Few colonies in America are so well stored with cattle as Jamaica. Their horses, asses, and mules, are very cheap; the oxen and cows are large; and there would be much greater quantities of these, only that the English mind planting more than grasing; so that they are supplied with flesh from the northern colonies, as well as the Leeward islands. Their sheep are generally large and fat, and the flesh good, but the wool is worth nothing. Here is abundance of goats, or cabrettos, rabbits, and hogs; and their pork is as good as that of Barbadoes: but here are no deer nor hares.

Their bays, roads, and rivers, abound with excellent fish of all kinds; but the tortoise is by much the most valuable, both for its shell and fish, the latter being accounted the most delicious, and withall the wholesomest in the Indies, and esteemed as one of the nicest dainties at the tables of our nobility and merchants, to whom they are often sent to England as presents from  
this

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this and the neighbouring islands. Several vessels come in a year from the Caribbee islands to take them. They principally frequent the coasts about 20 or 30 leagues to the left of Point Negril, near the Cayman islands, to which all the tortoises from the Caribbees to the bay of Mexico, repair every summer to lay and hatch their eggs. They float asleep, in a calm day for a good while, on the surface of the water; the seamen row to them very gently, and take them either by striking them with irons, or entangling their legs with a rope and running-net. When the tortoises come upon the coast above-mentioned to lay their eggs, they coot for 14 days together, and then lay in one night about 300 eggs, which have white and yolk, but no shells. Then they coot again, and lay in the sand: and so thrice, till the male is reduced to a kind of jelly within, and is blind; and so carried home by the female.

The rivers and ponds here are infested with alligators. They live upon animal flesh, which they hunt for greedily. They are from 10 to 20 feet long, their backs scaly and impenetrable, and it is hard to wound them any where, except in the belly, or eye. Though they have a swift and strong motion in a straight line; yet it is easy for men to avoid them, because they turn with difficulty, and slowly. They lie on the banks of rivers, and wait for beasts that come to drink there, which they seize and devour. They are shaped like a lizard, and have four feet, or fins, with which they swim or walk. Of the fat of these mischievous animals, an excellent ointment is made for aches or pains. They have bags of musk, stronger and more fragrant than that of  
the.

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the East Indies, by the scent of which a man may avoid them before he sees them, and even cattle smell them, and run away. They breed like toads, laying their eggs in the sand, where the sun-beams hatch them. As soon as their young come out of the egg, which is of the size and magnitude of a turkey, they immediately take to the water. Those at full growth have teeth like a mastiff. This creature most writers confound with the crocodile, and indeed the Spaniards call them both by the term Cayman; yet the latter animal has longer legs, the knots on his back are thicker, higher, and firmer, and its flesh has not that musky scent which the alligator has; besides, the crocodile carries his tail with the tip turning back like a bow, whereas the alligator drags his on the ground.

The mountains of this island breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and galliwasp, but they are not venemous. And of all the insects here, none is so mischievous as the ciron, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and muscular parts of the flesh of the negroes. These insects, when got into any part of the body, breed in vast numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag, which the negroes pick out with a pin, or point of a penknife, and destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may remain. Here is also the manchinella, which resembles a craw-fish, and is so common in the Caribbee islands.

Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame; and more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parocets, snipes, Guinea-hens, pigeons, turkeys, geese, ducks, and poultry. The pelican,

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can, is about the size of a goose, and lives on the small fish it picks out of the sea; its wings will extend seven or eight feet. It has a short tail, a very hard bill, 14 inches long, and increasing in breadth towards the end, where it bends like that of a parrot. Its neck is a foot and a half, with bay-coloured hair, instead of feathers on the back of it; and from about half way it has two membranous ventricles, in which it pouches its prey. The birds by some called frigates, are here termed men of war, whose fat is good for aches. The swallows depart in the winter months, and are succeeded by wild ducks and teal.

The fire-flies, a species of cantharides, so called, as contracting and expanding their light as they fly. They look green in the day time, but glow in the night, even some days after they are dead. By help of a few of them the smallest print may be read.

Here is a great variety of birds; but the most remarkable is the colibry, or humming-bird: is much smaller than a wren, and some no bigger than the large sort of flies, the colours of the feathers in its neck and wings representing those of the rainbow; some have a bright red under their necks; the belly and under the wings a fine yellow, the thighs green, the feet and beak black like ebony, its eyes cast a surprising lustre, and the head is green: the plumage of the male is finer than that of the female, and on his head he has a crown of feathers. It make a louder noise, by the agitation of its wings, than some of the largest birds, and lives on dew, which it sucks from the blossoms. These creatures are seldom seen on the ground, but are mostly about  
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## J A M

the cotton and orange trees, in which they build their curious little nests. The only way of taking them is by shooting with sand, which stuns them.

On the 7th of June 1692, one of the most violent earthquakes happened at Jamaica that perhaps was ever felt, by which Port Royal was almost entirely destroyed. The number of people who perished on this dreadful day was upwards of 30,000; and a general sickness happened after it, which cut off a great many more. Though Jamaica suffered most by this earthquake; yet it was felt much about the same time in most parts of the world. The French thinking to make an easy conquest of Jamaica at this time, invaded it with 300 men; but were repulsed, and only 18 left to carry the news of their defeat. In June 1694, this island was again invaded by three French men of war, besides privateers, &c. in all 20 sail, and about 1500 soldiers, under mons. de Casse, the French governor of Hispaniola. But after committing the most inhuman barbarities, and doing a deal of mischief, they were driven off the island, with the loss of 700 of their men. A short time after, the Jamaicans, in conjunction with the Spaniards of St. Domingo, in an expedition against the French, ruined their fort and two of their settlements in that island, killed 350 of their men, and brought away 150 prisoners, besides 80 pieces of cannon, and a great deal of booty; with inconsiderable loss on their side. Wilmot, the English commodore in this expedition, was charged with avarice and treachery in starving the soldiers: so that had it not been for the bravery of the officers, the design would probably have

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have miscarried. The remainder of the English forces, who were at first 1200, under colonel Livingston, being carried to Jamaica, most of them died soon after, as did the commodore in his return to England. About this time the assembly of Jamaica passed an act for giving their freedom to such negroe-slaves as could prove they had done any remarkable service against the French. In the year 1703, was an universal sickness in Jamaica, which carried off abundance of people; and about the beginning of the following year the whole town of Port Royal was burnt to the ground in one afternoon. But, by the help of the men of war's boats, most of the merchants saved their books and money; and some of them considerable quantities of merchandize. The island now, however, was very healthy; and by the great numbers of rich French and Spanish prizes brought into it during the war at that time, it grew very rich.

August 28, 1712, arose a hurricane here, which lasted from eight at night till two in the morning, whereby 14 ships belonging to the island were lost, together with others from London and Bristol, and 400 of their crews drowned. The men of war, and other vessels, at Port Royal and Kingston, received much damage, many houses and warehouses were blown down, and very few escaped being shattered in pieces, abundance of goods spoiled by the rain, trees blown down, sugar-works destroyed, or much damaged, the sugar-canes generally blown away, and several persons killed by the fall of houses.

On the 28th of August, 1722, happened another hurricane in Jamaica, almost as ruinous as the earthquake of 1692. The inhabitants were



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were put into a terrible consternation the day before, by a prodigious swell of the sea. The hurricane began, with a violent rain, next morning at 8, and held till 10 at night. Near half of the houses at Kingston were thrown down or shattered. The wharfs at Port Royal were all destroyed, and most of the sugars, and other commodities washed away. Of 26 top-sail vessels, and 10 sloops in the harbour, only 10 were to be seen after the hurricane, and of these only 5 or 6 repairable. Though the town wall of Port Royal was 9 feet above the surface of the water, and 7 feet thick, the sea broke over it, carrying vast numbers of large stones along with it. In short above half the town of Port Royal was destroyed, besides the loss of near 400 lives.

About two years before this, the rebellious negroes, who had rested so long in the mountains, raised a fortification in the blue mountains of very difficult access. From thence they made frequent incursions into the low-countries: and several parties having been sent against them without success, 200 Musquito Indians belonging to the continent betwixt Truxillo and Honduras, who had submitted to England, were brought over to suppress them, in which they performed very good service.

Jamaica had been in arms 9 months in 1735 and 1736, in order to guard against the rebellious negroes; but it availed little towards clearing the country: and none would cultivate the lands, or settle near the place where they harboured, and some of the most fertile parts were deserted.

In 1738, governor Trelawny, considering what damage and terror these rebels had occasioned, and the miscarriage of all past attempts

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to reduce them by force, had recourse to more gentle methods, and offered them a pardon on their complying with certain terms: upon which they all laid down their arms, and submitted; and their captain obliged himself, in case the island was invaded, to assist the governor with all his forces. By other articles of their surrender, they were allowed a chief to govern them; but he was to act nothing without the consent of the governor of the island: and several white men now live among them to observe their actions.

It was computed, that in the beginning of this century, Jamaica had 60,000 whites, and 120,000 negroes, to which flourishing state of this island the resort thither of those pirates, called the buccaneers, at the first settlement of the English here, did not a little contribute, by the vast sums of money they squandered away; and from this prodigious fortunes were raised; and the returns of treasure to England were very great. The above-mentioned calculation is certainly too large. The Jamaicans, however, were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, epidemical diseases, and hurricanes, which have been above related: the losses by which have not been since sufficiently repaired. Now the white inhabitants scarcely exceed 20,000 souls, and the blacks are about 90,000; both much fewer than was formerly computed, and with a much greater disproportion on the side of the whites. It appears at present that Jamaica is rather upon the decline. A country which contains at least 4,000,000 of acres, has a fertile soil, extensive sea-coast, and many very fine harbours, at a time when the value of all its products at market is considerably risen; for such a

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country to have not above 3 or 400,000 acres properly cultivated: something must be very wrong in the management of its affairs. And what renders this still more evident is, that land is so extravagantly dear in many of the West India islands, as to sell for above an 100 l. an acre: a price which would undoubtedly never be paid, if convenient land could be procured, and proper encouragement were given in Jamaica.

The whole island is divided into 19 districts or parishes, which send each two members to the assembly, and allow a competent maintenance to a minister. The parishes are, St. Catherine's, Port-royal, Kingston, St. Dorothy's, Clarendon, Vere, St. Elizabeth's, Westmoreland, St. Ann's, St. Thomas in the east, St. Andrew's, St. John's, and St. Thomas in the Vale; which have each a parochial church: St. Catherine's, Clarendon and St. Anne's parishes, have also each a chapel of ease. But the parishes of Hanover, St. George, St. James, St. Mary's, and Portland, have neither church nor chapel.

In the year 1736, there were six forts in Jamaica; namely, Fort-Charles at Port-royal, the Rock-port at the entrance of Kingston-harbour, a fort at Port-Antonia, Fort-William, Fort-Morant, and the fort in Carlisle-bay. The forces of the island consisted then of 9 regiments of militia, horse and foot, containing 3,000 men, which are under the direction of officers appointed by the governor, and 8 independent companies in his majesty's pay, amounting to 800.

By the laws of the island, every man between 16 and 60 is obliged to enlist in their militia.

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The governor and council are appointed by the king ; and the representatives of the people in that called the assembly, are chosen by the freeholders : these three bodies form the legislative power. The governor or commander in chief, is captain-general, admiral, and chancellor of the island ; has power of granting commissions of all kinds, of summoning and dissolving assemblies, of making counsellors, of pardoning all crimes except treason and murder, and even of granting a reprieve for these ; of placing and displacing all officers who are not by patent : in a word, of acting with sovereign authority under his majesty, always taking the advice of his council. He has also a negative voice in passing all acts of the assembly. The government of this island, next to that of Ireland, is the best in the king's gift. The standing salary is 2,500 l. currency a year ; the assembly vote him as much more ; which, with a considerable present generally made him on his first arrival, a very large sum annually contributed by the Jews, and the other profits of his office, make the whole nearly equal to 10,000 l. a-year.

The council consists of twelve persons generally of the best estates and quality in the island, and appointed by letters of *mandamus* from his majesty : but on the death or dismissal of any, the governor nominates others to supply their places. Their business is to advise and assist the governor, and to be a check upon him if he exceeds his commission. In the assembly, this council forms the upper house, and claims a negative voice like our house of lords. The members of the assembly do business in the same manner as our house of commons.

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The planters in Jamaica allot their slaves a small parcel of ground, and allow them Sundays to cultivate it. They generally plant it with maize, Guinea-corn, plantains, yams, cocoes, potatoes, &c. and by these most of them are supported. But some who are industrious among them raise a stock of fowls, which they carry to market on Sundays, and purchase salt-beef, fish, or pork with the money.

As the blacks are superior in number to the whites, there is danger from their joining in rebellions, and would be more so if they were not taken from different nations of Africa, and natives of different places in Guinea, by which means their languages are so dissimilar, that they cannot converse freely: besides, they bear so mortal a hatred to one another, that some of them would rather die by the hands of the English, than join with the other Africans in an attempt to regain their liberty. None of them are allowed to touch any arms, or go out of the bounds of their plantation without a special order: and nothing is so terrible to them as to see the whites perform their exercise. But the Creolian negroes are no strangers to arms.

The work of the white servants here is much less than that of day-labourers in England. Some of these servants who behave well are encouraged; but such as are lazy and dishonest, are treated in the manner they deserve.

The merchants and planters, &c. in Jamaica, live in as much pomp and pleasure as any gentlemen in the world. They keep their coaches and six, with a large retinue of servants; and have always exceeded other colonies in magnificence and luxury.

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The taxes in Jamaica are raised by way of impost on strong liquors, foreign indigo, and other commodities, which amount to about 6,000 l. currency; and about 2,000 l. more arises from his majesty's quit-rents, fines, forfeitures, escheats, wine-licences and gun-powder: all which is, by an act of the assembly, granted to the crown for the support of the government.

The principal trade of Jamaica is with Great Britain, and the English colonies on the continent of North America; a very advantageous commerce is indeed carried on with the Spanish main, but in a secret manner. The most saleable goods here are Osnabrugs, check, and white linen both coarse and fine, laces, cambrics, hats, shoes, stockings, broad-cloths, silks, platillos, all sorts of iron ware, soap, candles, butter, cheese, salt beef, pork, herrings, dry'd cod-fish, biscuit, beer, ale, cyder, &c. all which at least bring 50 l. per cent. to the importer. The general trade is nearly the same with that of the island of Barbadoes; but that of Jamaica has in general the advantage, particularly in the exportation of bullion: so that in some years Jamaica has sent no less than 300,000 pieces of eight to Great Britain.

Perhaps few places in the world have a greater plenty of silver than Jamaica; but the current coin here is entirely Spanish, there being no English pieces but in the closets of the curious. They use no copper, the lowest piece being a bit or royal, which passes here for 7d.  $\frac{1}{2}$ . but a single halfpenny in Britain will go a great deal further. The piece of eight of Seville, Mexico, or pillar piece, as 'tis called, was by proclamation in Queen Anne's time only 6s. but it is now raised



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to 3 d. more, in order to prevent its being carried out of the island: great quantities are, however, daily sent to England.

The island is greatly pestered with rats, to the unspeakable damage of the sugar-plantations, where they borrough among the canes, and feed on the juice: so that several times in a year the planters are not only obliged to scatter poison among their canes, but at the same time allow the negroes a bottle of rum for every 50 they destroy.

This and all the British colonies of America, are under the inspection of the bishop of London; but learning is here at a low ebb, there being no public school in the whole island. Reading, writing, and casting accompts, is all the education generally desired here; the planters, who are able, sending their children for polite learning to Great Britain.

The common distempers in Jamaica are, high fevers, bloody fluxes, and belly-aches, or the dry-gripes: the fevers are generally very violent, carrying off the patient in a short time. Few of the English miss it at their first coming, unless they observe a due regimen and live temperately. The dry-gripes is shockingly severe, many by it losing the use of their limbs for ever after, and during the fit crying out like a woman in travail. The common remedy for it are gentle purges and clysters; and after the patients are something recovered, the cold-bath is prescribed.

The buildings of the English are generally of brick, and often pretty high, which renders them more liable to be demolished by earthquakes and hurricanes; whereas the Spaniards used to build their houses of timber, and seldom

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above one story high ; fixing the main post deep in the ground. Their kitchens are always at a distance from their dwelling-houses, there being in the latter neither chimneys nor fire-places. The houses of considerable planters are also remote from their sugar-works. The negroes live in long thatched huts, furnished with earthen pots and some calabashes, which serve them for pails, bowls, and dishes.

Jamaica is of the last importance to the crown of Great Britain, not only for its trade, but its situation in the very centre of the Spanish acquisitions in America ; so that no vessel can sail to or from the continent, without coming in sight of Jamaica ; or in case of a war, falling into the hands of such of our cruisers as are stationed there. For every fleet from Carthagenà puts into Hispaniola ; from whence it cannot sail for the Havannah, the general rendezvous of the Spanish flota, without passing near Jamaica. Round this island are many fine bays, very convenient for shipping, and some of them might be improved to excellent purposes ; for a large fleet might lie in them with the greatest safety, and watch the motions of any ships from the Havannah.

**JAMES-ISLAND.** See **NORTHMAIN.**

**JAMES COUNTY,** a district of Virginia, in North America. It lies to the eastward of Charles-county, and extends on both sides the river of the same name. The number of acres it contains amount to 108,362, and is divided into 5 parishes ; namely, Wallingford, Wilmington, James town, Merchants hundred, on the north side of the river, and Bruton on the south-side.

**JAMES TOWN,** formerly the capital of James county, is situated on a peninsula upon the north side

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side of James or Ponhatan river, 42 miles above its mouth. The buildings in this place are neither many nor contiguous, their number at present not exceeding 70, and those principally inhabited by sea-faring people; the seat of the government, and the courts of justice, being removed to Williamsburg, 8 miles to the north of it, which is a dry and healthy situation; whereas the water near James town being brackish, produced slow and intermitting fevers. It lies in lat. 37. 36. N. long. 76. 51. W.

**JAMES'-BAY**, the eastern part, and the most southern division of Hudson's-bay in the northern countries of America. The distance from cape Henrietta Maria in lat. 55. 15. where James' bay begins, to the bottom of the bay, is about 100 leagues, and of much the same breadth all the way, being between 50 and 60 leagues over. In James'-bay are Bear-island, Viner's-island, Charlton-island, Cape-hope-island, &c.

**JANEIRO**, a province of Brasil in South America, bounded by Spirito Sancto on the north, by the Atlantic on the east and south, and by the mountains dividing it from Guaira in Spanish America on the west. This province is so called from a river of the same name, which rising in the western mountains, and running eastward, falls into the Atlantic ocean in lat. 23. S. This is the most valuable province belonging to the Portuguese, who export annually from hence into Europe, gold and precious stones to a very considerable amount. It lies between the tropic of Capricorn, and lat. 22. S. and between long. 44. and 49. W.

**JEKYL-SUND**, a small bay of St. Simon's island, in the mouth of the river Alatamha in Georgia,

## J E R

Georgia, one of the British colonies in North America: Here 10 or 12 ships of 40 guns may safely ride, and for its defence a strong castle and battery were erected by general Oglethorpe.

**JERSEY, NEW**, one of the provinces of North America belonging to Great Britain. It was at its first settlement in 1682, divided into two provinces, namely, East and West Jersey: but in Queen Ann's reign they were united into one, her majesty appointing a governor accordingly. It is bounded on the north by a line drawn from Delaware river to Hudson's river, in lat. 41. 4N. on the Atlantic ocean on the E. and S. and by Delaware bay and river, which part it from Pennsylvania on the W. It lies between lat. 39 and 41 N. and between long. 74. and 76W. being about 120 miles in length from N. to S. and 100 in breadth from E to W. It now forms, as has been hinted above, one royal government, the king appointing a governor and council, and the freemen choosing the members of the assembly or representative body of the commons. Sometimes the governor of New York is also governor of New Jersey, but by distinct commissions.

The climate of New Jersey in general, is somewhat warmer than that of New England or New York, by reason of its more southerly situation. The produce of both the Jerseys is all sorts of grain, with horses, black cattle, hogs, furs, skins, and pipe-staves. They export bread, corn, flour, beef, pork, and fish, also hemp, some butter, hams, beer, flax-seed, bar-iron and lumber, to the West Indies; for which they receive rum, sugar, &c. in return. They also export furs, skins, tobacco, pitch, tar, and other productions to Old England; which they barter

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for furniture, cloathing, &c. The New Jersey ships also often take whales, the oyl and bone of which are sent to England. As the towns generally lie up in the country, the trade is chiefly over land to New York. There are from 100 to 150, or 200 families in one place, great part of which are Dutch, who are peaceable subjects, and protected by the English government. The number of inhabitants is computed at 60,000 of all ages and sexes, of which about 3,000 are men fit to bear arms; and about 200 Indians. They have yet no town of any consequence, Perth-Amboy the capital, having not above 200 houses.

JERSEY, East, the largest and most populous of the two, extends east and north for 100 miles all along these coasts, and Hudson's river from little Egg-harbour, to that part of Hudson's river which is in lat. 41. N. and is divided on the S. and W. from West Jersey, by a line of partition passing from Egg-harbour to Creswick-river, Stony-brook, and the south branch of Raritan river. Its breadth is very unequal, being in some places much indented by West Jersey. 'Tis, however, the most valuable part of the country, and is subdivided into Monmouth county on the south of Raritan-river, Middlesex and Essex counties on the north of it; and Bergen county on Hudson's-river.

JERSEY, West, has not so many towns, and is not so well planted as East Jersey: yet by reason of its navigable creeks lying at a convenient distance, and some of them running up a good way inland, this province is rendered very commodious for trade. Dr. Cox, with propriety, caused seven counties to be laid out; but his successors dropped the project, and now no part of this province has the name of a county, except

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cept that called Cape-May county, being a tract betwixt Cape-May, its most easterly, point of land at the mouth of Delaware-bay and little Egg-harbour, dividing the two Jerseys. On this neck of land are several straggling houses, the principal is Cox's-hall. Most of the inhabitants are fishermen, there being a whalery on both shores of the mouth of Delaware-bay, which, together with the river of the same name, waters all the S. E. the S. and S. W. parts of West Jersey; and the plantations some of which are so very close that they are called a town, lie all along on that bay and river; and most of them on creeks. Maurice-river, betwixt Cape-May and Cohanzy - river, is the largest in all the country: and the latter, though only a small river, is deep and navigable for small craft. Ten or twelve miles up the river is a town of the same name, containing about 80 families.

The increase of the trade and produce of both Jerseys, may be judged by that of its number of people, especially negroes, who are ten times as many as they were 60 years ago.

**ILHEOS**, or **RIO DE ILHEOS**, a captainric of Brasil in South America. It has its name from the number of islands which lie before its principal bay, upon one of which stands its capital of the same name. It is bounded, on the N. by the river Serenhaim, which divides it from Bahaia province, or the bay of All-Saints; on the S. by the Rio Grande, separating it from Porto Seguro; on the E. by the ocean; and on the W. by the Vaymores and Quirigujes, two barbarous and unconquered nations of Indians.

It hath some other rivers that cross it from W.

to



to E. particularly Rio das Contas, dos Ilheos, de Duna, and Justia. The principal places in it are Ilheos, the capital, Nossa Senhora da Vitoria, St. Anna and St. George, besides some hamlets and sugar-plantations.

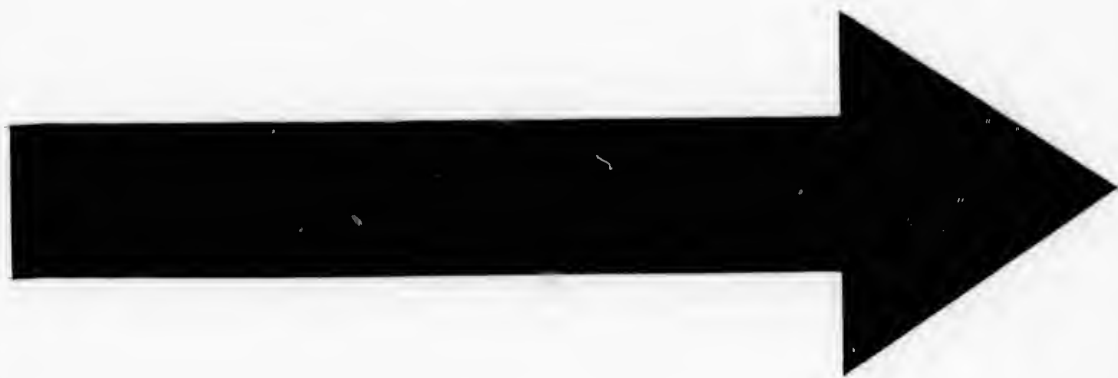
Among the barbarous nations, there is one in particular driven hither from their native country, who are whiter and taller than the rest; but of the wandering kind, and lie on the ground in forests or fields: they never go in troops, but lurk behind trees, and shoot all they meet with arrows, being inveterate against the Portuguese.

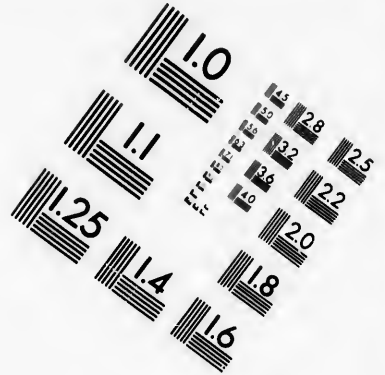
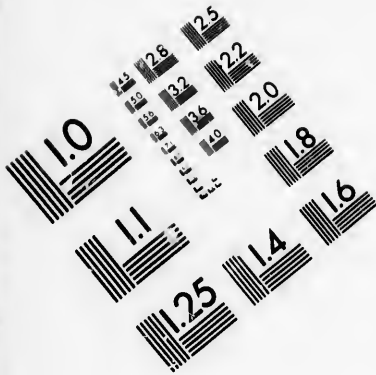
Not far from these live the Aymures, probably the Vaymores, the fiercest and most barbarous of all, hunting men as others do wild beasts, and eating all they kill or take. They are even said to devour their own children.

These for some years did the Portuguese plantations, great injury, and almost destroyed the town of Ilheos; but they were at length overcome, and forced to retire to a considerable distance from the Portuguese frontiers.

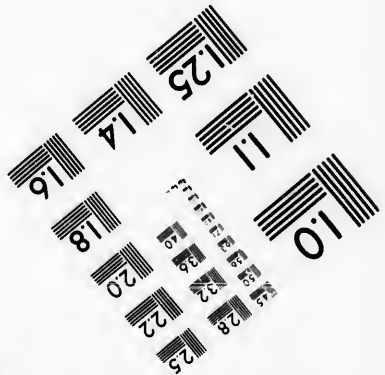
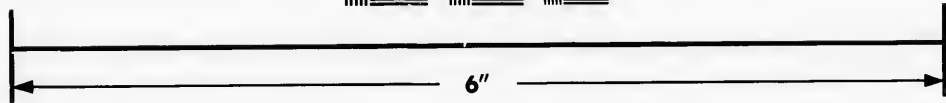
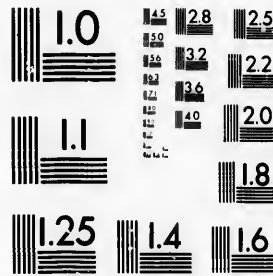
ILHEOS, the capital of the above province. It stands about 30 leagues N. E. of Porto Seguro, and about the same distance S. W. of the bay of All Saints, in lat. 15. 40. S. long. 34. 28. W. It consists of about 200 Portuguese families, and is watered by the river Ilheos. Some authors represent it as inconsiderable; the jesuits, however have a college in it, and teach the Portuguese youth and such of the savages as will attend their lectures.

The other inhabitants are chiefly employed in cultivating the plantations, and transporting the produce by sea to Pernambuco, and other provinces.





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## I L H

About 7 leagues to the W. of the capital, is a lake of fresh water about 3 leagues in length, near as many in breadth, and 15 fathom deep, out of which issues a river, and runs to the eastward till it falls into the ocean; but its mouth is so narrow, that the boats have hardly room to pass through it into the lake. The fish are very good and in great plenty, particularly the Manatis, some of which weigh from 20 to 30 pounds. It likewise breeds that large kind which the Spaniards call tuberones: but it also produces crocodiles or alligators, which prey on the rest, and even do considerable mischief to the cattle on the land.

ILLINHI, a mountain of the Andes in South America, W. of Catopaxa, with a bifid summit, which is constantly covered with snow.

ILLINOIS, a nation of Canada, dwelling near the lake and river of the same name. The latter issues from Lake Dauphine, and after a course of above 200 leagues falls into the great river Mississippi.

Its name, or Albini, as the natives call it, signifies a man grown up or complete, a title with which they compliment their nation above all their neighbours. They live in villages at a great distance from each other on the marshy plains, and on both sides of the river, beyond which are some large woods and sloping hills, covered with a most delightful verdure, at least for nine months in the year; whilst its current, mostly S. W. is so smooth and agreeable, that vessels of a considerable burthen may sail up and down it with ease and safety, during a course of at least 120 leagues before it falls into the Mississippi.

The lands on each side afford such plenty of pasture, that they are covered with large and small

small cattle, as well as deer and other beasts of the chase. The river itself is covered with water-fowl; as swans, geese, cranes, ducks, &c. all which thrive so well by the great quantities of wild oats that grow on the banks and the neighbouring plains, that many of them are choaked up with their fat.

The villages are large, and the huts neatly built, of an oblong figure, covered with mats so well interwoven, that they are proof against wind, rain, and snow. Each hut hath five or six hearths or fire-places, and each of these serve one or two families: all which live very quietly together. The largest of those villages contains between 4 or 500 houses; the wood work of these huts is indeed ordinary, but the matting of the inside remarkably neat, and under them are cellars or repositories for their Indian corn, which after harvest they commonly lay up in such places under ground; this, with some roots and the flesh they kill in the woods, being their principal food.

The French jesuit missionaries have converted them to Christianity; before which æra, there were not, according to Charlevoix, savages who had fewer good qualities and more bad ones, through the whole extent of Canada. But such is the influence of Christianity on the minds and characters of the people, that it has produced a change in both. They have always been tractable and docile, but at the same time lazy, treacherous, fickle, deceitful, thievish, and brutal; destitute of honour, self-interested, addicted to gluttony and the most monstrous incontinence, a crime almost unknown to the other Indians of Canada; and therefore it is no wonder that they were also very much despised.



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At present they seem to be kind and affable to such as are masters of their country; they will flatter and caress those they are in friendship with, but are very artful, quick-sighted and revengeful. They are tall, stout, and well-shaped, but tawny, being extremely nimble and expert at most bodily exercises; great lovers of hunting, and allow themselves more wives than one. But to prevent family quarrels, they commonly marry sisters or near relations; and are so jealous of them that, upon the least suspicion of infidelity, they cut and mangle their faces and bodies in a most cruel manner.

This nation does not only extend itself all along the river of this name, but likewise a good way southward on each side the river Mississippi. The Illinois and Miamese dwell together above the place called la Fourche or the Fork, being the confluence of that river with the Pisticoni, which is much larger and deeper, falling from the country of the Muscoatins. About a league below their junction, and on the right side, is a round high rock, on whose summit stands a village called Fort Miamis; and about a league below it on the other side is another of the same nature, called simply the Rock, but at a distance looks much like a fortress. It is still surrounded with palisadoes, which shews it to have been a kind of retrenchment of the Illinois or Miamese.

At the foot of this rock is an island in the middle of the river, surrounded with a multitude of others remarkably fertile and delightful. On the largest is a village where one of their chiefs resides.

None

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None of these nations have either courage or conduct in their skirmishes, for their fiercest battles deserve no better name : they are only an impetuous onset, accompanied with dreadful shouts ; and whichever gives way are totally defeated, and seek their safety in a precipitate flight.

Their chief address lies in ambuscades, in which they have the patience to lie concealed eight or nine days, for the sake of killing an enemy or passenger, or taking him prisoner.

When any of their expeditions against another nation has succeeded, they so order their march, as not to come to their village till night ; and stopping short of it, send an account to their chief of their success, plunder, and number of their prisoners : after which they enter the place with shouts, dances, and songs after their fashion. But if they have been repulsed or defeated, they must enter in the day-time, and instead of those tokens of joy, fill the air with mournful outcries, and give an account of their loss : after which they retire to their huts, ashamed and disconsolate, and there meet with a suitable reception.

**ILLINOIS LAKE**, a large collection of waters lying between lat. 41. and 46. N. and between long. 89. and 94. W. It communicates, by means of a narrow channel, with Huron-lake.

**IMPERIAL**, a bishopric or district of Chili in South America. This is the most southerly province belonging to the Spaniards in South America, and is now called Conception. It extends from the river Gallego in lat. 46. 20. S. to lat. 35. S. See **CONCEPTION**.

The climate of this province nearly resembles that of Spain. The capital is of the same name, and

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and stands in one of the most agreeable situations in the whole country, on a pleasant river, anciently called Cauten, and now Imperial. The whole district round the city is very fertile, producing corn, and all sorts of fruit and pulse.

The country is partly hills, and partly valleys: the former are of a gentle and easy ascent, with good pasture, and shelter for cattle. The ground does not require much watering, as being fertilized with frequent and plentiful dews.

This was an episcopal see, and at its first establishment promised to be a large and populous city, on account of the excellency of its soil and situation: but having been destroyed by the Indians, it declined greatly, and now belongs to Conception, from which it is 130 miles.

The river Imperial is large, runs a great way up into the country, and its banks are well inhabited by Indians.

INDIANE, the name of a small harbour in the island of Cape Breton.

INDIANS, the name by which the aborigines of America are generally called. These people are scattered through the extent of the two prodigious continents, and divided into an infinite number of nations and tribes; differ very little from each other in their manners and customs, and all form a very striking picture of the most distant antiquity.

Whoever considers the Indians of this day, not only studies the manners of a remote present nation, but in some measure the antiquities of all nations; from which no mean lights may be thrown upon many parts of the ancient authors, both sacred and profane. Lafitau's learned treatise on this head deserves to be more read.

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The Indians, or people of America, are tall and straight in their limbs, beyond the proportion of most nations. Their bodies are strong; but of such a species of vigour, as is rather adapted to endure much hardship, than to continue long at any servile work: it is the strength of a beast of prey, rather than that of a beast of burthen. Their bodies and heads are flattish, the effect of art. Their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse: no beards. The colour of their skin a reddish brown, admired among them, and improved by the constant use of bear's fat and paint.

When the Europeans first came into America, they found the people quite naked, except those parts which it is common for the most uncivilized nations to conceal: since that time they have generally a coarse blanket to cover them, which they buy from us. The whole fashion of their lives is of a piece, hardy, poor, and squalid; and their education from their infancy is solely directed to fit their bodies for this mode of life, and to form their minds to endure the affliction of the greatest evils.

Their only occupations are hunting and war; agriculture is left to the women: merchandise they contemn. When their hunting season is past, which they go through with much patience, and in which they exert great ingenuity, and their provisions laid up, they pass the rest of their time in an entire indolence. They sleep half the day in their huts; they loiter and jest among their friends, and they observe no bounds or decency in their eating and drinking. Before our discovery of America, the Indians were without spi-  
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rituous liquors ; but now the desire of acquiring these is what gives a spur to their repose. This is the principal end which they pursue in their treaties with us ; and from this they suffer inexpresible calamities : for having once begun to drink, they can preserve no measure ; but continue a succession of drunkenness as long as their means of procuring liquor last. In this condition they lie exposed on the ground to all the inclemency of the seasons, which wastes them by a train of the most fatal disorders. They perish in rivers and marshes, they tumble into the fire, they quarrel, and very often murder each other : and in short, excess of drinking, with us highly criminal, and which is not generally so very pernicious in its effects as among this uncivilized people, who have not art enough to guard against the consequences of their vices, is a public calamity. The few among them who live free from this evil, enjoy the reward of their temperance in a robust and healthy old age. The disorders which a complicated luxury has introduced and supported in Europe, are strangers here.

The character of the Indians is striking : they are grave even to sadness, upon any serious occasion ; observant of those in company, respectful to the old, of a temper cool and deliberate, by which they are never in haste to speak before they have thought well on the matter, and are sure the person who spoke before them has finished all he had to say ; they have therefore the greatest contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who interrupt each other, and frequently speak all together,

Nothing is more edifying than their behaviour in their public councils and assemblies : every  
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man there is heard in his turn, according as his years, wisdom, or services to his country, have ranked him. Not a word, not a whisper, not a murmur is heard from the rest, whilst he speaks: no indecent condemnation, no ill-timed applause. The younger sort attend for their instruction. Here they learn the history of their nation; here they are inflamed with the songs of those who celebrate the warlike actions of their ancestors; and here they are taught what are the interests of their country, and how to pursue them.

There are no people amongst whom the laws of hospitality are more sacred, or executed with more generosity and good will. Their houses, their provisions, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. To those of their own nation they are likewise very humane and beneficent: has any one of them succeeded ill in his hunting; has his harvest failed; or is his house burnt; his misfortune has no other effect than that it gives him an opportunity of experiencing the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens, who for that purpose have nearly all things in common. But to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the Indian is implacable; he conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, till by some treachery or surprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object: he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundred of miles, bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger



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ger and thirst with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed in general is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

Notwithstanding this ferocity, no people have their anger, or at least the shew of their anger, more under their command. From their infancy they are formed with care to endure scoffs, taunts, blows, and every sort of insult patiently, or at least with a composed countenance: this is one of the principal objects of their education. They esteem nothing so unworthy a man of sense and constancy, as a peevish temper, and a proneness to a sudden and rash anger: and this so far has an effect, that quarrels happen as rarely among them, when they are not intoxicated with liquor, as does the chief occasion of all quarrels, hot and abusive language. But human nature is such, that as virtues may with proper management be engrafted upon almost every kind of vicious passion, so vices naturally grow out of the best dispositions, and are the consequence of those regulations that produce and strengthen them. This is the reason that when the passions of the Indians are roused, being shut up as it were, and converging into a narrow point, they become more furious; they are dark, sullen, treacherous, and unappeasable.

The Indians have scarcely any temples among them; though we hear indeed of some, and those extremely magnificent among the ancient Mexicans and Peruvians: but both these were civilized

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lized nations. Such as we know at present in any part of America, are no wise comparable to them : some appear to have very little idea of God, others entertain better notions ; they hold the existence of a supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all. Satisfied with owning this, which is traditionary among them, they give him no sort of worship. There are indeed nations in America, who seem to pay some religious homage to the sun and moon ; and most of them have a notion of some invisible beings, who continually intermeddle in their affairs, discoursing much of demons, nymphs, fairies, and the like beings. They have ceremonies also that seem to shew that they had once a more regular form of religious worship ; for they make a sort of oblation of their first fruits, and observe certain ceremonies at the full moon ; and have in their festivals many things that very probably came from a religious origin, though they perform them as things handed down to them from their ancestors, without knowing or enquiring about the reason. Though without religion, they abound in superstitions ; as it is common for those to do, whose subsistence depends like theirs upon fortune. Being great observers of omens and dreams, and pryvers into futurity with great eagerness, they abound in divines, augurs, and magicians, whom they rely much upon in all matters that concern them, whether of health, war, or hunting.

Their physic, which may rather be called magic, is entirely in the hands of the priests. The sick are naturally prone to superstition ; and human help in such cases is generally found so weak, that it is no wonder that in all countries  
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and ages, people have amused themselves, in that dismal circumstance of human nature, with the hope of supernatural assistance.

Their physicians generally treat them, in whatever disorder, after the same manner; that is, they first inclose them in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot, upon which they throw water till the patient is well soaked with the warm stream and his own sweat; then they hurry him from this bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This is repeated as often as they judge necessary; and by this method extraordinary cures are sometimes performed: but it also frequently happens, that this rude method kills the patient in their very operation, especially in the new disorders brought among them from Europe: and it is partly owing to this manner of proceeding, that the small-pox has proved so much more fatal to them than to us. It must not be denied, that they have the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; the power of which they, however, attribute to the magical ceremonies with which they are constantly administered.

Liberty in its fullest extent is the darling passion of the Indians: to this they sacrifice every thing. This is what makes a life of uncertainty and want supportable to them; and their education is directed in such a manner, as to cherish this disposition to the utmost. They are indulged in all manner of liberty: they are never upon any account chastised with blows; they are rarely ever chided. Reason, they say, will guide their children, when they come to the use of it, and before that time their faults cannot be very great; but blows might abate the free and martial

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tial spirit which makes the glory of their people, and might render the sense of honour duller, by the habit of a slavish motive to action. When they are grown up, they experience nothing like command, dependence, or subordination: even strong persuasion is industriously forborn by those who have influence among them, as what may look too much like command, and appear a sort of violence offered to their wills.

On the same principle they know no punishment but death. They lay no fines, because they have no way of exacting them from free men; and the death which they sometimes inflict, is rather a consequence of a sort of war declared against a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed upon a citizen or subject. This free disposition is general; and though some tribes are found in America with a head whom we 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 sort of aristocracies, have no more power: this latter is the more common in North America. In some tribes there are a kind of nobility, who, when they come to years of discretion, are entitled to a place and vote in the councils of their nation; the rest are excluded.

But among the Five Nations, or the Iroquois, the most celebrated commonwealth of North America, and in some other nations, there is no other qualification absolutely necessary for their head men, but age, with experience and ability in their affairs. There is generally, however, in every tribe some particular stocks which they respect

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spect, and who are considered in some sort as their chiefs, unless they shew themselves unworthy of that rank: as among the tribes themselves there are some, who, on account of their number or bravery, have a pre-eminence over the rest; which, as it is not exacted with pride and insolence, nor maintained by tyranny on one hand, so it is never disputed on the other, when it is due.

Their great council is composed of these heads of tribes and families, with such whose capacity has elevated them to the same degree of consideration. They meet in a house, which they have in each of their towns for that purpose, upon every solemn occasion, to receive ambassadors, to deliver them an answer, to sing their traditionary war-songs, or to commemorate their dead. These councils are public. Here they propose all such matters as concern the state, which have previously been digested in their secret councils, at which none but the head men assist. Here it is that their orators are employed, and display those talents which distinguish them for eloquence and knowledge of public business: in both which some of them are admirable. None else speak in their public councils: these are their ambassadors, and these are also the commissioners who are appointed to treat of peace or alliance with other nations. The principal skill of these orators consists in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expressing their thoughts in a bold figurative manner, much stronger than we could bear in this part of the world, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive.

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When any business of consequence is transacted, they appoint a feast on the occasion, of which, almost the whole nation partakes. There are lesser feasts upon matters of less general concern, to which none are invited but they who are engaged in that particular business. At these feasts it is against all rule to leave any thing; so if they cannot consume all, what remains is thrown into the fire; for they look upon this element as sacred, and in all probability these feasts were antiently sacrifices. Before the entertainment is ready, the principal person begins a song, the subject of which is, the fabulous or real history of their nation; the remarkable events which have happened, and whatever matters may make for their honour or instruction. The others sing in their turn. They have dances too, with which they accompany their songs, chiefly of a martial kind: and no solemnities or public business is carried on without such songs and dances. Every thing is transacted among them with much ceremony; which, in a barbarous people, is necessary: for nothing else could hinder all their affairs from going into confusion: besides, that the ceremonies contribute to fix all transactions the better in their memory. In order to help this, they have bits of small shells, or beads of different colours, which have all a different meaning, according to their colour or arrangement. At the end of every matter which they discourse upon, when they treat with a foreign state, they deliver one of these belts. If they should omit this ceremony, what they say passes for nothing. These belts are carefully treasured up in each town, and they serve



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as the public records of the nation; and to these they occasionally have recourse, when any contests happen between them and their neighbours. Of late, as the materials of which these belts are made have become scarce, they often give some skins in the place of the wampum: for so they call these beads in their language; and they receive in return presents of a more valuable nature; for neither will they look upon what our commissioners say to be of any weight, unless some present accompanies each proposal.

The same council of their elders, which regulates whatever regards the external policy of the state, has the charge likewise of its internal peace and order. Their suits are few, and quickly decided, having neither property nor art enough to render them perplexed or tedious. Criminal matters are brought 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. If a murder is committed, the family which has lost a relation, prepares to retaliate on the offender. They often kill the murderer; and when this happens, the kindred of the last person slain look upon themselves to be as much injured, and think themselves as much justified in taking vengeance, as if the violence had not begun among themselves: but in general, matters are determined in a more amicable manner. The offender absents himself; his friends send a compliment of condolence to those of the party murdered; presents are offered, which are rarely refused; the head of the family appears, who, in a formal

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mal speech delivers the presents, which consist often of above 60 articles, every one of which is given to cancel some part of the offence, and to assuage the grief of the suffering party. With the first he says, "By this I remove the hatchet from the wound, and make it fall out of the hands of him who is prepared to revenge the injury." With the second, "I dry up the blood of that wound." And so on, in apt figures, taking away one by one, all the ill consequences of the murder. As usual, the whole ends in mutual feasting, songs, and dances. If the murder is committed by one of the same family, or cabin, that cabin has within itself the full right of judgment without appeal, either to punish the guilty with death, or to pardon him; or to force him to give some recompense to the wife or children of the slain. All this time the supreme authority of the nation looks on unconcerned, and never rouses its strength, nor exerts the fulness of a power more revered than felt, but upon some signal occasion; and then the power seems equal to it. Every one hastens to execute the orders of their senate; and there never was any instance of disloyalty or rebellion known among this people. Governed as they are, not by laws, but by manners, example, education, and the constant practice of their ceremonies, inspire them with the most tender affection for their country, and the most religious regard for their constitution and the customs of their ancestors.

The want of laws, and of an uniform, strong, coercive power, is not perceived in a narrow society, where every man has his eye upon his neighbour, and where the whole bent of every

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thing they do is to strengthen those natural ties by which society is principally cemented. Family love, rare among us, is a national virtue with them, of which all partake. Friendships there are among them which may vie with those of fabulous antiquity; and where such friendships are seen to grow, the families concerned congratulate themselves as upon an acquisition which promises to them a mutual strength; and to their nation the greatest honour and advantage.

The loss of any one of their people, whether by a natural death, or by war, is lamented by the whole town he belongs to. These towns being small, have no business to employ them for the greatest part of the year, after the hunting season is over, except the affairs of war or state. In such circumstances no business is taken in hand, however important; nor any rejoicing permitted, however interesting the occasion, till all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. These are always done with the greatest solemnity. The dead body is washed, anointed, and painted, so as in some measure to abate the horrors of death: then the women lament the loss with the most bitter cries, and the most hideous howlings, intermixed with songs, which celebrate the great actions of the deceased, and those of his ancestors. The men mourn in a less extravagant manner. The whole village attends the body to the grave, which is interred, being dressed in the most sumptuous ornaments. With the body of the deceased are placed his bow and arrows, with what he valued most in his life, and provisions for the long journey which he

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is to take, for they universally hold the immortality of the soul, though their idea of it is gross. Feasting attends this, as it does every solemnity. After the funeral, those who are nearly allied to the deceased, conceal themselves in their tents for a considerable time, in order to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolence are never omitted, nor are presents wanting upon this occasion. After some time they re-visit the grave; they renew their sorrows: they new cloath the remains of the body, and act over again the solemnities of the first funeral.

But of all the instances of regard to their deceased friends, none is so striking as what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day for this ceremony is appointed in the council of the chiefs, who give orders for every thing, which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation is exhausted on this occasion, and all their ingenuity display'd. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feast, and to be witnesses of the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn feast of that kind, are taken out of the graves. Those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages, are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases. It is difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. Lasitan has painted it in a very lively manner.

“ Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived. It is a humbling portrait of human misery exhibited in various images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to

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paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoaked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction, whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption.

“It is hard to tell which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends. For nothing deserves our admiration more, than the eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness, gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgustful as they are with every thing loathsome; cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders, through tiresome journies 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, and so lamented in their death.”

This strange festival is the most magnificent and solemn which they have, not only on account of the great concourse of natives and strangers, and of the pompous reinterment they give to the dead, whom they dress in the finest skins they can get, after having exposed them some time in this pomp; but with regard to the games of all kinds which they celebrate on the

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occasion, in the spirit of those which the ancient Greeks and Romans celebrated upon similar occasions.

In this manner do they endeavour to sooth the calamities of life, by the honours which they pay their dead: honours which are the more chearfully paid, because, in his turn, each man expects to receive them himself. Though among these savage nations 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 means for smoothing our rugged nature into humanity. In civilized nations such ceremonies are less practised, because other expedients for the same purposes are less wanted: but it is certain, that a regard for the dead is ancient and universal.

Though the women in America have generally the laborious part of the œconomy upon themselves, yet they are far from being the slaves which they appear to be; 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 which they act. Polygamy is practised by some nations, but it is not general. In most they content themselves with one wife; but a divorce is admitted, and for the same causes as it was allowed among the Jews, Greeks, and Romans. No nations of the Indians are without a regular marriage, in which



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there are many ceremonies: the principal of which is the bride's presenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn.

Though incontinent before wedlock, the chastity of their women after marriage is remarkable. The punishment of the adulteress, as well as that of the adulterer, is in the hands of the husband himself; and it is often severe, as being inflicted by one who is at once the party and the judge.

Their marriages are not fruitful, seldom producing above two or three children: but they are brought forth with less pain than our women suffer upon such occasions, and with little consequent weakness. Probably that severe life which both sexes lead, is not favourable to procreation: and the habit which unmarried women have of procuring abortions, in which they rarely fail, makes them the more unfit for bearing of children afterwards. This is one of the reasons for the depopulation of America; for, whatever losses they suffer, either by epidemical diseases or by war, are but slowly repaired.

Almost the sole occupation of the Indian is war, or such exercises as qualify him for it. His whole glory consists in this: and no man is at all considered till he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his house with the scalp of one of its enemies.

When the ancients among the Indians resolve upon a war, they do not always declare what nation they are determined to attack, that the enemy upon whom they really intend to fall, may be off his guard. Nay, they even  
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sometimes let years pass over without committing any act of hostility, that the vigilance of all may be unbent by the long continuance of the watch and the uncertainty of the danger. In the mean time, they are not idle at home: the principal captain summons the youth of the town to which he belongs: the war-kettle is set on the fire, the war-songs and dances begin: the hatchet is sent to all the villages of the same nation, and to all its allies: the fire-catches, the war-songs are heard in all parts; and the most hideous howlings continue without intermission day and night, over that whole tract of country. The women add their cries to those of the men, lamenting such as they have either lost in war, or by a natural death; and demanding their places to be supplied from their enemies, stimulating the young men by a sense of shame which women know how to excite in the strongest manner, and can take the best advantage of it when excited.

When by these and every other means the fury of the nation is raised to the highest pitch; and all now long to embroe their hands in blood, the war-captain prepares the feast, which consists in dog-flesh. All that partake of this feast receive little billets, and these are so many engagements which they take to be faithful to each other, and obedient to their commander. None are forced to the war; but when they have accepted this billet, they are looked upon as listed; and it is then death to recede.

All the warriors in this assembly have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with dashes and streaks of vermillion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Their hair is

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dressed up in an odd manner, with feathers of various kinds. In this assembly, which is preparatory to their military expedition, the chief begins the war-song, which being continued by him for some time, he raises his voice to the highest pitch, and then turning off suddenly to a sort of prayer, he addresses himself to the God of war, whom they call Areskoni: "I invoke thee, says he, to be favourable to my enterprise! I earnestly intreat thy care over me and my family! I likewise invoke you, all ye spirits and demons, both good and evil! all you that are in the skies, or under the earth, to pour destruction upon our enemies; and to return me and my companions safely to our country."

All the warriors join in this prayer, with shouts and acclamations; then the captain renews his song, strikes his club against the stakes of his cottage, and begins the war-dance, accompanied with the shouts of all his companions, which continue as long as he dances.

The day appointed for their departure being come, they take leave of their friends: they change their cloaths, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendship. Their wives and female relations go out before them, and attend at some distance from the town. The warriors march out all dressed in the finest apparel, and most showy ornaments, regularly one after another: for they never march in ranks. The chief walks on slowly before them, singing the death-song, whilst the rest observe the most profound silence. When they come up to their women, they deliver up to them all their finery, put on their worst cloaths, and then proceed as their commander thinks fit.

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Their motives for engaging in a war are rarely such as excite us to it. They have no other view than the glory of the victory, or the benefit of the slaves which it enables them to add to their nation, or sacrifice to their brutal fury: and it is seldom that they take any pains to give their wars even a colour of justice. It is no uncommon thing for the young men among them to make feasts of dogs-flesh, and war-dances, in small parties, amidst the most profound peace.

They fall sometimes upon one nation, sometimes upon another; and surprise some of their hunters, whom they scalp, or bring home as prisoners. Their ancient men wink at this, or rather encourage it, as tending to keep up the martial spirit of their people, enuring them to watchfulness and hardship, and giving them an early taste for blood.

The qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; also patience and strength to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardships which always attend it.

The nations of America are at an immense distance from one another, having a vast desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of hideous and almost boundless forests. These must be traversed before they meet an enemy, who are often at so great a distance as might be supposed sufficient to prevent either quarrel or danger: but notwithstanding the secrecy of the destination of that party which first moves, the enemy have frequently notice of it, are prepared for the attack, and ready to take advantage of the same manner of the least want of vi-

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giance in the aggressors. Their whole art of war consists in this: they never fight in the open field; but upon some very extraordinary occasions: not from cowardice, for they are brave; but they despise this method, as unworthy an able warrior, and as an affair in which fortune governs more than skill or prudence.

The principal things which help them to find out their enemies, are the smoke of their fires, which they smell at a distance almost incredible; also their tracks, in the discovery and distinguishing of which they are possessed of a sagacity equally astonishing: for they can tell by the footsteps, which to us would seem most confused, the number of men that have passed, and the length of time since they have passed. They even go so far as to distinguish the several nations by the different prints and peculiar marks of their feet, and to perceive footsteps, where we could distinguish nothing. A mind diligently intent upon one thing, and exercised in it by long experience, will go lengths which at first view are scarcely credible.

But as they who are attacked have the same knowledge, and are as apt to draw the same advantages from it, their great address is to baffle each other in these points.

On the expedition they light no fire to warm themselves, or prepare their victuals; but they subsist merely on the miserable pittance of some meal mixed with water. They lie close to the ground all day, and march only in the night.

As they march in the usual order in files, he who closes the rear diligently covers his own tracks, and those of all that preceded him, with leaves.

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leaves. If any stream occurs in their route, they march in it a considerable way in order to foil their pursuers.

When they halt to rest and refresh themselves, scouts are sent out on every side to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they often enter a village, whilst the strength of the nation is employed in hunting, where they massacre all the helpless old men, women and children; or make prisoners as many as they judge they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation.

They often cut off small parties of men in their huntings; but when they discover an army of their enemies, their way is, to 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 party pass unmolested; and then rising a little, they take aim, for they are excellent marksmen; and setting up a most tremendous shout, which they call the war-cry, they pour a storm of musket bullets upon the enemy; for they have long since laid aside the use of arrows. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every man in haste covers himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give the second fire.

After fighting some time in this manner, the party which thinks it has the advantage, rushes out from its covert, with small axes in their hands, which they dart with great address and dexterity: they then redouble their cries, in-  
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timidating their enemies with menaces, and encouraging each other with a boastful display of their own brave actions. Being thus come hand to hand, the contest is soon decided, and the conquerors satiate their savage fury with the most shocking insults and barbarities to the dead bodies, biting their flesh off, tearing the scalp from their heads, and even wallowing in their blood like wild beasts.

The fate of their prisoners is the most severe of all: during the greatest part of their journey homewards they suffer no injury, but when they arrive at the territories of the conquering state, or at those of their allies, the people from every village meet them, and think that they shew their attachment to their friends by their barbarous treatment of the unhappy prisoners; so that when they arrive at their station, they are wounded and bruised in a terrible manner. The conquerors enter the town in triumph. The war-captain waits upon the head men, and in a low voice, gives them a circumstantial account concerning every particular of the expedition, the damage which the enemy have sustained, and his own losses in it. This being done, the public orator relates the whole to the people. Before they yield to the joy which the victory occasions, they first lament the friends they have lost in the pursuit of it. The parties most nearly concerned are apparently afflicted with a deep and real sorrow; but by one of those strange turns of the human mind, fashioned to any thing through custom, as if they were disciplined in their grief, upon the signal being given for rejoicing, in a moment all tears are wiped from their eyes, and they

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they fall into an extravagance and phrenzy of joy, on account of their victory.

In the mean time the fate of the prisoners remains undecided, till the ancients meet and determine concerning the distribution. It is usual to offer a slave to each house that has lost a friend, giving the preference according to the greatness of the loss. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the door of the cottage to which he is delivered; and with him he gives a belt of wampum, to shew that he has fulfilled the purpose of the expedition, in supplying the loss of a citizen.

They view the present which is made them for some time, and according as they think him or her, (for the case is the same which,) either proper or improper for the business of the family; or as they take a capricious liking or dislike to the countenance of the person; or in proportion to their natural brutality; or their resentment for their losses, they determine accordingly, either to receive the poor creature into their family, or sentence him to death, as a victim. If the latter be their determination, they throw away the belt with indignation; and then it is no longer in the power of any one to save him. The nation is assembled, as upon some great solemnity; a scaffold is raised, and the prisoner tied to the stake: he instantly opens his death-song, and prepares for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. On the other side, they prepare to put it to the utmost proof, with every torment which the mind of man ingenious in mischief, can invent. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the trunk.

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One plucks out his nails by the roots singly, another takes a finger into his mouth and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bole of a pipe made red hot, which he smoaks like tobacco. Then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones: they cut circles round his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red hot irons, flashing and searing alternately: they pull off his flesh, thus mangled and wasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood, in the mad phrenzy of fury and horror. After they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them; whilst others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs themselves in every manner that can increase the torture. This often continues for five or six hours together: then they frequently unbind the poor creature to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to recover the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls immediately into so profound a sleep, that they apply the fire to awake him and renew his sufferings.

He is again fastened to the stake, and they renew their cruelty: they stick him all over with small matches, of a wood which easily takes fire, but burns slowly: they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes: and lastly, after having burnt his flesh off his bones with slow fires, after having  
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so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing of human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals, or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, both blind and staggering with pain and weakness; assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, he runs hither and thither, till some of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle; and this shocking scene is succeeded by a feast as shocking.

But this account, for the most part, seems to stagger all credibility, that after so many and such exquisite tortures so long inflicted, any human being upon earth could possibly survive the tenth part, to say no more, of that astonishing load of sufferings! unless my author very much exaggerates in his detail of them—But to proceed:

The women, forgetting the female nature, and on such occasions being transformed into something worse than furies, act their parts in this dreadful catastrophe, and even outdo the men. The principal persons of the country sit round the stake smoaking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smoaks too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his tormentors about indifferent matters. During the whole time of his execution indeed, there seems to be  
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a contest between him and them which shall exceed: they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy, almost, if not quite above human! Not a groan, sigh, nor distortion of countenance escapes him: he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits: he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge which shall attend his death, &c. &c.

The prisoners who have the happiness to please those to whom they are offered, have a fortune altogether opposite to that of those who are condemned: they are adopted into the family; they are accepted in the place of the father, son, or husband that is lost; and they have no other mark of their captivity, but that they are not suffered to return to their own nation. To attempt this would be certain death.

The principal purpose of the war is to recruit in this manner; for which reason, a general who loses many of his men, though he should conquer, is little better than disgraced at home; because the end of the war was not answered. They are therefore extremely careful of their men, and never chuse to attack but with a very undoubted superiority, either in number or situation.

The scalps, which they value so much, are the trophies of their bravery; with these they adorn their houses, and the latter are esteemed in proportion as this sort of spoils are more numerous.

They have solemn days appointed, upon which

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which the young men gain a new name or title of honour from their head men ; and these titles are given according to the qualities of the person and his performances, of which these scalps are the evidence. This is all the reward they receive for the dangers of the war, and the fatigues of many campaigns, severe almost beyond credit. They think it abundantly sufficient to have a name given by their governors, men of merit themselves, and judges of it : a name respected by their countrymen, and terrible to their enemies.

Don Ulloa, in his celebrated voyage to South America, draws a very different, and at the same time, a very melancholy picture of the Indians in the province of Quito, where the cruel usage of their Spanish masters has quite destroyed their former spirit, and love of liberty, and rendered them stupid, lazy, and contemptible.

It is no easy task, says this ingenious Spaniard, to exhibit a true picture of the customs and inclinations of the Indians of Quito, in South America ; and precisely display their genius and real turn of mind ; for if, considered as part of the human species, the narrow limits of their understanding seem to clash with the dignity of the soul ; and such is their stupidity, that in certain particulars, one can scarce forbear entertaining an idea that they are really beasts, and even destitute of that instinct we observe in the brute creation ; while in other respects a more comprehensive judgment, better digested schemes, and conducted with great subtilty, are not to be found than among these people. This dispute may mislead the most discern-



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cerning person ; for, should he form his judgment from their first actions, he must necessarily conclude them to be a people of the greatest penetration and vivacity ; but when he reflects on their rudeness, the absurdity of their opinions, and their beastly manner of living, his ideas must take a different turn, and represent them in a degree little above brutes.

Such is the disposition of the Indians, that if their indifference to temporal things did not extend itself also to the eternal, they might be said to equal the happiness of the golden age, of which the ancient poets have given such enchanting descriptions.

They possess a tranquility immutable, either by fortunate or unfortunate events. In their mean apparel they are as contented as the monarch or prince clothed with the most splendid inventions of luxury ; and so far are they from entertaining a desire for better or more comfortable cloathing, that they give themselves no manner of concern about lengthening their own, though half their bodies continue naked. They shew the like disregard for riches ; and even that authority or grandeur within their reach is so little the object of their ambition, that to all appearance it is the same thing to an Indian, whether he be created an alcalde or forced to perform the office of common executioner.

And thus reciprocal esteem among them is neither heightened nor lessened by such circumstances. The same moderation appears in their food, never desiring more than what suffices ; and they enjoy their coarse simple diet with the same complacency as others do their  
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well furnished tables. It is not indeed to be questioned, but if they had their choice of either, they would prefer the latter: but, at the same time, they shew so little concern for the enjoyments of life, as nearly approaches to a total contempt of them: in short, the most simple and easiest preparation seems best adapted to their humour.

Nothing can move them, or alter their minds; even interest here loses all its power: it being common for them to decline doing some little act of service, though offered a very considerable reward. Fear cannot stimulate, respect induce, or punishment compel them: they are indeed of a very singular turn of mind; proof against every attempt to rouse them from their natural indolence, in which they seem to look down with contempt on the wisest of mortals; so firmly bigotted to their own gross ignorance, that the wisest measures to improve their understanding, have been rendered abortive; and so fond of their simplicity and indolence, that all the efforts and attention of the most vigilant have miscarried. Some particular instances will more clearly evince this.

The Indians are in general remarkably slow, but very persevering; and this has given rise to a proverb, when any thing of little value in itself requires a great deal of time and patience, "That it is only fit to be done by an Indian." In weaving of carpets, curtains, quilts, and other stuffs, being unacquainted with any better method, at passing the woof, they have the patience every time to count the threads one by one; so that two or three years is requisite to finish a single piece. This slowness, undoubtedly,

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doubtedly, is not altogether to be attributed to the genius of the nation; it flows in some measure for want of a method better adapted to dispatch; and, perhaps, with proper instructions, they would make considerable progress, as they readily comprehend whatever is shewn them relating to mechanics: of this the antiquities, still remaining in the province of Quito, and over all Peru, are undeniable testimonies.

This indifference and dilatoriness of the Indians is blended with sloth, its natural companion; and their sloth is such, that neither their own interest, nor their duty to their masters, can prevail on them to undertake any work. Whatever, therefore, is of absolute necessity to be done, the care of it is left to the Indian women. These spin, and make the half shirts and drawers, which constitute the whole apparel of their husbands: they cook the matalotage, or food universally used among them; they grind the barley for machea, roast the maize for the cameha, and brew the chicha. In the mean time, unless the master has been fortunate enough to get the better of the husband's sloth, and take him to work, he sits a-squat on his hams, (this being the usual posture of all the Indians,) and looks on his wife while she is doing the necessary works of the family; but, unless to drink, he never moves from the fire-side, till obliged to come to table, or wait on his acquaintance.

The only domestic labour they do, is to plow their chacarita, or little spot of land, in order to the sowing of it: but the latter, together with the rest of the culture, makes another part, which is also done by the wife and children.

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dren. When they are once settled in the above posture, no reward can make them stir ; so that if a traveller has lost his way, and happens to come to any of these cottages, they hide themselves, and charge their wives to say that they are not at home, when the whole labour only consists in accompanying the traveller a quarter of a league, or perhaps less, to put him on his way ; and for this small service he would get a rial, or half a rial, at least. Should the traveller alight and enter the cottage, the Indian would still be safe ; for having no light but what comes through a hole of the door, he could not be discovered ; and even if he should see the Indian, neither entreaties nor offers would prevail on the slothful wretch to stir a step with him : and the case is the same, if they are to be employed in any other business.

That the Indians may perform the works appointed by their masters, and for which they are properly paid, it will be of little signification to shew them their task ; the master must have his eye continually upon them ; for whenever he turns his back, the Indian immediately leaves off working. The only thing in which they shew a lively sensation and alacrity, is for parties of pleasure, rejoicings, entertainments, and especially dancings : but in all these, the liquor must circulate briskly, which seems to be their supreme enjoyment.

With this they begin the day, and continue drinking till they are entirely deprived both of sense and motion.

Such is their propensity to intemperance, that they are not restrained by any dignity of character. The cacique and alcalde never fail to

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be of the company at all entertainments; and they drink like the rest, till the chicha has quite overcome them. It is worthy of notice, that the Indian women, whether maids or married, and also Indian young men, before they are of an age to contract matrimony, entirely abstain from this beastly vice; it being a maxim among them, that drunkenness is only the privilege of masters of families, as being persons, who, when they are unable to take care of themselves, have others to take care of them.

Their manner of celebrating any solemnity is too singular to be omitted: the person who gives the entertainment invites all his acquaintance, and provides chicha sufficient for the number of his guests, at the rate of a jugg for each; and this jugg holds about two gallons. In the court of a house, if it be a large town, or before the cottage if in a village, a table is placed and covered with a Tucuyo carpet, which is only used on such festivities. The eatables consist wholly of camcha, and some wild herbs boiled. When the guests meet, one or two leaves of these herbs, with ten or twelve grains of camcha finish the repast: immediately the women present themselves, with calabashes or round totumos, called pilches, full of chicha for their husbands, and repeat it till their spirits are raised: then one of them plays on the tabor and pipe, whilst others dance, as they call it, though it is no more than moving confusedly from one side to the other, without either measure or order. Some of the best voices among the Indian women, sing songs in their own language. Thus their mirth continues, while kept up by the liquor; which, as has been said, is the soul  
of

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of all their meetings. Another odd circumstance is, that those who do not dance squat themselves down in their usual postures, till it comes to their turn. The table serves only for state, there being nothing on it to eat, nor do the guests sit down at it. When tired with intemperance, they all lay down together, without minding whether near the wife of any other, or their own sister, daughter, or a more distant relation; so shocking are the excesses to which they give themselves up on these solemnities, which are sometimes continued three or four days, till the priests find themselves obliged to go in person, throw away all the chicha, and disperse the Indians, lest they should purchase more.

The day after the festival is called concho, which signifies the day for drinking off the remains of the preceding. With these they begin; and if not sufficient to complete their revel, every one of the guests runs home to his house and fetches a jug, or they club for more. This occasions a new concho for the next day; and thus, if left to themselves, from day to day, till either no more chicha is to be had, or they without either money or credit.

Their burials are likewise solemnized with excessive drinking. The house of mourning is filled with jugs of chicha; and not for the solace of the mourners and their visitors alone, but the latter go out into the streets, and invite all of their nation who happen to pass by, whether married or single of both sexes, to come and drink to the honour of the deceased; and to this invitation they will take no denial. This ceremony lasts four or five days, and sometimes



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more ; strong liquor being their supreme wish, and the great object of all their labours.

If the Indians are thus excessively addicted to intemperance, gaming is a fault with which they cannot be charged. Though these two vices are generally seen together, they seem to have no manner of inclination for play ; nor have they above one game, and that of great antiquity among them : this they call *pasa*, i. e. a hundred, as he wins who first gets that number.

When they set out on a journey, their whole viaticum is a little bag, which they call *gueri-ta*, full of meal or maize, and a spoon ; and this suffices for a journey of 50 or 100 leagues. When hungry or fatigued, they stop at some place where *chicha* is to be had, or at some water, where, after taking a spoonful of their meal into their mouth, they keep it some time, in order the more easily to swallow it ; and with two or three such spoonfuls, well diluted with *chicha*, or with water, they set forward as cheerfully as if risen from a feast.

Their habitations are very small, consisting only of a little cottage, in the middle of which is their fire-place : here both they and the animals they breed, live promiscuously. They have a particular fondness for dogs, and never are without three or four little curs in their huts ; a hog or two, and a little poultry, with some earthen ware, as pots and jugs, and the cotton which their wives spin, constitute the whole inventory of an Indian's effects. Their beds consist of two or three sheep skins, without pillows or any thing else ; and on these they sleep in their usual squatting posture ; and as they never undress, appear always in the same garb.

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Though the Indian women breed fowl and other domestic animals in their cottages, they never eat them; but conceive such a fondness for them, that they will not even sell them, much less kill them with their own hands: so that if a stranger, who is obliged to pass the night in one of their cottages, offers ever so much money for a fowl, they refuse to part with it, and he finds himself under a necessity of killing it. At this his landlady shrieks, dissolves in tears, and wrings her hands, as if it had been an only son; till seeing the mischief past remedy, she wipes her eyes, and quietly takes what the traveller offers her.

Many of them in their journies take their whole family with them, the women carrying on their shoulders such children as are unable to walk. The cottages, in the mean time, are shut up; and there being no furniture to lose, a string or thong of leather serves for a lock. Their animals, if the journey is to last for several days, they carry to the cottage of some neighbour or acquaintance: if otherwise, their curs are left guardians of the whole; and these discharge their trust with such care, that they will fly at any one, except their masters, who offers to come near the cottage. And here it is worth observing, that dogs bred by Spaniards and Mestizoes, have such a hatred to the Indians, that if one of them approaches a house where he is not very well known, they fall upon him, and if not called off, tear him to pieces; for they know them at a distance by their smell: and, on the other hand, the dogs of Indian breed are animated with the same

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rage against the Spaniards and Mestizoes ; and, like the former, smell them at a like distance.

The Indians, except those brought up in cities or towns, speak no other language than their own, called quichua, which was established by the Yncas, with an order for its being propagated all over their vast empire, that their subjects might be able to understand each other ; and therefore it was distinguished by the name of the Yncas language. Some understand the Spanish, and speak it ; yet very few have the good nature to answer in it, though they know at the same time, that the person with whom they are conversing cannot understand them in quichua. Nor is it of any consequence to desire and press them to explain themselves in Spanish ; for this they absolutely refuse : whereas, it is quite otherwise with the Indians who are born and bred in the towns ; for if spoken to in their own language, they are sure to answer in Spanish.

Superstition is general among them ; and they all pretend, more or less, to fortune-telling. This weakness is also of a long standing among them, and which neither the remonstrances of the priests, nor their own experience, can cure radically. Thus they employ little tricks, supposed charms, and strange compositions, in order to attain some visionary happiness, for the success of a favourite scheme, or other weighty concern.

In these presages their minds are so infatuated, that to bring them to a sense of the folly and wickedness of such practices, and solidly to embrace the christian religion, is a work of the greatest difficulty : and even when they have  
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braced it, are so superficial and fickle, that if they attend divine service on Sundays and holidays, it is merely from fear of punishment; for otherwise there would be scarcely one Indian, especially of the meaner sort, among the whole congregation.

In their marriages they run counter to the sentiments of all nations, esteeming what others detest; for they never of their own choice marry a woman who has not been previously known by others; looking on it as a sure sign that she had nothing pleasing in her.

A great part of the barbarism and rusticity in the minds of the Indians must indeed be imputed to the want of culture; for they who, in some parts, have enjoyed that advantage, are found to be no less rational than other men: and if they do not attain to all the politeness of civilized nations, they, at least, think properly.

The Indians of the mission of Paraguay are, among others, remarkable instances of this; who from an ambulatory and savage manner of living, have been reduced to order, reason, and religion. For which purpose schools were set up for instructing the young Indians in Spanish; and such as were found to be of a suitable genius, were taught Latin: so that in all the villages they are not only taught to read and write, but also instructed in mechanic arts: and the artificers here are not inferior to those of Europe. These Indians in their customs and intellects are a different sort of people from those before-mentioned: they have a knowledge of things, a clear discernment of the turpitude of vice, and the amiableness of virtue;

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acting up likewise to these sentiments. Not that they have any natural advantages over the other; for it has been observed, throughout the whole kingdom, that the Indians of its several provinces are alike; so that those of Quito are not more deficient in their understandings than those of Valles or Lima; nor are these more acute or sagacious than the natives of Chili and Arauco.

In confirmation of what has been advanced, we have a general instance in the province of Quito; for all the Indians brought up to handicraft trades in cities and large towns, and who speak Spanish, are far more acute and sensible than those who have spent their lives in little villages; and their behaviour more conformable to the dictates of a rational being. They are men of abilities and skill, having also divested themselves of many of their errors; whence they are denominated *ladino's*, or knowing men; and if they retain any of the culpable practices of the former, it is from the infection of intercourse, or from a mistaken notion, that they should keep them up, as transmitted to them from their ancestors. Among these are chiefly distinguished the barber-surgeons, who bleed with such dexterity, as, in the opinion of very good judges, to equal the most famous in Europe: and their intercourse with persons of a liberal education enlightens their understandings, so that they distinguish themselves to great advantage among their countrymen.

The Indians in general are robust and of a good constitution; and though the venereal distemper is so common in Quito, it is seldom known among them; the principal cause of which

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which unquestionably lies in the quality of the juices of their body not being susceptible to the venom of this distemper. Many, however, attribute it to the quality of the chicha, their common drink.

The disease which makes the greatest havock among them, is the small-pox, which is so fatal, that few escape it; accordingly it is looked upon, in this country, as a pestilence. This distemper is not continual as in other nations, seven, eight, or more years passing without its being heard of: but when it prevails, towns and villages are soon thinned of their inhabitants. This desolation is owing partly to the malignity of the disease, and partly to the want of physicians and nurses.

**INDIES, WEST**, a name given to America, in contra-distinction to the East Indies, in Asia; the former lying W. of Europe, and the latter E. The name owes its origin to a presumption of the first discoverers of America, that they extended and even joined, though distant from each other about half the circumference of the terraqueous globe. See **AMERICA**.

**INNA-QUITO**, one of two spacious plains upon the N. side of Quito, in Peru. See **QUITO**.

**INVERNESS, NEW**, a settlement of Georgia, in North America, so called from its having been principally peopled by Highlanders and servants collected from the town and shire of the same name in the north of Scotland, and carried from thence by captain William Mackintosh, in the year 1738, by order of the Georgia trustees, and under the command of



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captain George Dunbar. It lies in the S. part of the province, on the river Alatomha, about 20 miles from Frederica.

**JOHN'S, ST.** an island in the bay, at the entrance of the river of St. Laurence, in North America. It has Nova Scotia on the S. and W. and Cape Breton on the E.

**JONAS'S, SUND,** the most northern inlet on the western coast of Sir Thomas Smith's bay, lying near the arctic circle, in lat. 76. N.

**IPSWICH, NEW,** a town of Essex county, the most northerly part of the colony of Massachusetts's bay. It lies on the north side of Cape Anne, on the banks of a fine river. The inferior court is kept here the last Tuesday in March, and the superior the third Tuesday in May.

**IRON-CASTLE,** or as the Spaniards call it, St. Philip de todo Fierro, one of the forts of Porto Bello, in South America, which admiral Vernon took and destroyed in 1739.

**IROQUOIS,** the most considerable and best known of all the Indians of North America, as well as the strongest and most powerful.

Their country lies between lat. 41. and 44. N. and extends about 70 or 80 leagues from E. to W. From the source of the river of the Iroquois to that of Richelieu and Sorel; from the lake of St. Sacrement to the fall of Niagara; and upwards of 40 leagues from N. to S. namely, from the spring-head of the river Agniers to the Ohio, which, together with Pennsylvania, forms the southern boundary. It is terminated on the W. by lake Ontario, on the S. W. by lake Eric, on the N. by lake George, and the  
river

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river St. Laurence, and by New York on the N. E.

They are divided into several cantons, the five principal of which are, the Tsonantovans, Goyogoans, Ounotagues, Ounogoats, and Agniez.

These five nations have each a large village, consisting of mean huts, about 30 leagues from one another, mostly seated along the southern coast of lake Ontario. They all speak nearly the same language, and unite in a kind of Swiss democracy. See INDIANS.

ISCA, or rather ICA, with Pisco and Nasca, three towns from which a jurisdiction of Lima in Peru, South America, has its name.

One part of the jurisdiction extends above 60 leagues along the coast to the southward, but intermixed with some deserts; so that the country being sandy, those parts which are beyond the reach of the trenches cut from the rivers, are generally barren: but there are some tracts, which, without the benefit of an artificial watering, are planted with vines, and produce excellent grapes; the root being supplied with moisture from the internal humidity of the earth. Great quantities of wine are made from them, and chiefly exported to Calao, and from thence to Guayaquil, and Panama: also to Guamanga, and other inland provinces. They also extract from these wines great quantities of brandy. Some parts of this jurisdiction are planted with olive trees, which produce excellent fruit either for eating or for oil.

The fields which are watered by the trenches, yield an uncommon plenty of wheat, maize, and fruits. This jurisdiction is remarkable for spacious woods of carob trees, with the fruit of

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which the inhabitants feed vast numbers of asses for the uses of agriculture, both in their own and the neighbouring jurisdictions. The Indians who live near the sea apply themselves to fishing, and, after salting of their fish, carry them to the towns among the mountains, where they never fail of a good market.

JUAN FERNANDES, an island in the South Sea, lying in lat. 33. 40. S. 100 leagues distant from the continent of Chili, and 440 to the N. of Cape Horn. On the E. side of it is a small island, called Goat-island, and on the S. W. a rock, called Monkey Key. It has two bays, where ships may ride in safety, one called East-Bay, and the other Cumberland Bay; but the latter, which is that where commodore Anson's squadron lay, is the most commodious.

The island itself is of an irregular figure, its greatest extent being between four and five leagues, and its greatest breadth hardly five miles. The only safe anchoring at this island is on the north side, in one of the bays above-mentioned: but the middlemost, known by the name of Cumberland Bay, is the widest and deepest, and in all respects much the best. The other two bays, denominated the E. and W. Bays, are scarcely more than good landing-places, where boats may conveniently put their casks on shore. Cumberland Bay is pretty well secured to the southward, lying only exposed from the N. by W. to the E. by S. and as the northerly winds seldom blow in that climate, and never with any violence, the danger from that quarter is not worth attending to.

As this last mentioned bay is by far the most commodious road in the island, so it is advisable for all ships to anchor on the western side

side of it, within little more than two cables length of the beach. Here they may ride in forty fathom of water, and be in a great measure sheltered from a large heavy sea, which comes rolling in, whenever an eastern or a western wind blows. It is however expedient, in this case, to cackle, or arm the cables with an iron chain, or good rounding, for five or six fathom from the anchor, to secure them from being rubbed by the foulness of the ground.

The northern part of this island is composed of high craggy hills, many of them inaccessible, though generally covered with trees. The soil is loose and shallow, so that very large trees on the hills soon perish for want of nourishment.

The southern, or rather S. W. part of the island, is widely different from the rest, being dry, stony, and destitute of trees; but very flat and low, compared with the hills on the northern side. This part of the island is never frequented by ships, being surrounded by a steep shore, and having little or no fresh water. It is also exposed to the southerly winds, which generally blow the greatest part of the year; and about the winter solstice very hard. The trees of which the woods on the northern side of the island are composed, are generally of the aromatic kind, and of various sorts. There are none of them of a magnitude to yield any considerable timber, except the myrtle trees, which are the largest on the island. The top of the myrtle tree is circular, and appears as uniform and regular, as if clipped by art: it bears on its bark an excrescence resembling moss, but tastes and smells like garlic. Here is the pimento, and the cabbage tree, but in no great plenty.

In some places are several hills of a peculiar sort of red earth, exceeding vermilion in colour; which perhaps, on examination, might prove useful for many purposes.

The island abounds with plants of various kinds, especially those usually esteemed as excellent in those scorbutic disorders contracted by salt diet, and long voyages; particularly water-creffes, and purslain, with excellent wild sorrel, and a vast profusion of turneps, and Sicilian radishes.

The woods on the northern parts of the island are free from all bushes and underwood, and affords an easy passage through every part of them; and the irregularities of the hills and precipices, form, by their various combinations, a great number of romantic vallies, most of which have a stream of the clearest water running through them, and at last tumble in cascades from rock to rock, till they fall into the ocean. Some particular spots in these valleys, where the shade and fragrance of the contiguous woods, the loftiness of the overhanging rocks, and the transparency and frequent falls of the neighbouring streams, exhibit scenes of such elegance and dignity, as perhaps are hardly to be equalled in any other part of the globe. In short, the simple productions of unassisted nature may here be said to excel all the fictitious descriptions of the most animated imagination.

This island formerly abounded with vast numbers of goats, being the usual station of the privateers who then frequented those seas: and there are two instances, one of a Mufquito Indian, and another of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, who were left by their re-  
spec-

pective ships, and lived alone upon this island for some years, and consequently were no strangers to its produce.

But the Spaniards being informed of the advantages which the privateers drew from these provisions, endeavoured to extirpate the breed, by putting on shore great numbers of large dogs, which have increased apace, and destroyed all the goats in the accessible part of the country; so that there now remain only a few among the craggs and precipices, where the dogs cannot follow them: these are divided into separate herds of 20 or 30 each, which inhabit distinct fastnesses, and never mingle with one another.

But what is most remarkable, is an amphibious creature to be met with, called a sea lion, (Ulloa terms it a sea wolf) which bears some resemblance to a seal, though much larger. These animals, at their full growth, are from 12 to 20 feet in length, and from 8 to 15 in circumference: they are extremely fat; so that, after having cut through the skin, which is about an inch in thickness, there is at least a foot of fat before you can come at either lean or bones; and the fat of some of the largest have afforded a butt of oil. They are likewise very full of blood; for if they are deeply wounded in a dozen places, there will instantly gush out as many fountains of blood, spouting to a considerable distance. Their skins are covered with short hair, of a light dun colour; but their tails and fins, which serve for feet on shore, are almost black: their fins are divided at the ends, like fingers; the web which joins them not reaching to the extremities, and each of these extremities is furnished with a nail. The  
males



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males have a large snout or trunk hanging down five or six inches below the end of the upper jaw; a particular not found in the females: besides, the males are much larger.

These animals divide their time equally between the land and sea, continuing at sea all the summer, and coming on shore at the setting in of the winter, where they reside during that whole season. In this interval they engender, and bring forth their young; and have generally two at a birth: these they suckle with their milk, they being at first about the size of a full grown seal. During the time of these animals continuance on shore, they feed on the grass and verdure which grows near the banks of the fresh water streams; and when not employed in feeding, they sleep in herds in the most miry places they can find: but they are of a very lethargic disposition, and not easily awaked. Each herd places some of their males at a distance, in the nature of centinels, who never fail to alarm them, whenever any person attempts to molest, or even approach them: and they are very capable of alarming, even at a considerable distance; for the noise they make is very loud, and of different kinds; sometimes grunting like hogs, and at other times snorting like horses in full vigour.

Fish is here in vast plenty, and with the greatest variety; cod of a prodigious magnitude, gropers, large breams, maids, silver fish, congers of a peculiar kind; and above all, a black fish, the most valued of all, and called by some a chimney-sweeper, resembling in shape a carp. Besides the fish already mentioned, crawfish, weighing eight or nine pounds  
a-piece,

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2-piece, of a most excellent taste, are found here in great abundance.

**JUCATAN** or **YUCATAN**, one of the seven provinces of the audience of Mexico, in North America. It is a peninsula, surrounded on the W. and N. by the gulph of Mexico, between the bay of Campeachy on the S. W. and that of Honduras on the S. E. having the little province of Tabasco on the S. W. and that of Vera-paz in the audience of Guatemala on the S. where it is joined to the continent by an isthmus not 40 leagues broad. This, in all respects, is a very noble country: it extends from lat. 17. to 21. 30. N. and from long. 91. to 95. W.

This climate is pretty warm in summer, which begins about April, and ends in September. It rarely rains here during the winter season, though the weather is tolerably cool, except in January and February, which are almost as hot as in the middle of summer. It is, however, a very healthy country, especially a large mountainous tract, extending from Salamanca on the W. to the eastern boundary, and where the natives live to a vast age. The south side of this ridge is ill peopled, and worse cultivated, for want of water; but the north part is very populous, being rendered pleasant by gentle breezes; though the sun is very hot. The days and nights are nearly equal all the year. The soil, when properly cultivated, produces great quantities of corn, cotton, and indigo. All sorts of cattle, wild beasts, honey, wax, and fowl, are here in great plenty; and on the coast are found large pieces of amber: but as no mines were ever discovered in this country,

## J U L

country, the Spaniards are not fond of making settlements here; so that it abounds mostly with Indians subject to the Spaniards, who employ them in making salt in the bay of Campeachy, where they are forced to endure all the extremities of the weather, without so much as a hut to shelter them: they likewise keep their cattle, and do every other servile office for them. This peninsula has very few rivers, but wells without number; and wheresoever they dig up the land, abundance of shells are found, which, with the lowness of the country, and shallowness of the sea about it, has induced many to think that the greatest part of it was once under water.

The Spaniards tell us, that when they first came into this country, they found some shadow of baptism, which the natives called a second birth; and looked upon it as the ground-work of all goodness and a security against all the snares of evil spirits. The age for this ceremony was betwixt three and twelve; and none but the baptized were allowed to marry.

The capital of Yucatan is Campeachy; in the bay of which, and of Honduras, the former lying on the W. and the latter on the E. side of this province, the English cut their logwood. See CAMPEACHY and HONDURAS.

**JULIAN. ST.** an harbour on the coast of Patagonia, in South America, where ships bound to the Pacific Ocean usually touch for refreshment. Lat. 48. 51. S. long. 65. 10. W.

KAP-

## K A T

### K.

**KAPPAS**, a savage tribe of Illinois Indians, in Louisiana: they lie a little above the Southouis. This nation was formerly very numerous, before the discovery of the Mississippi. Opposite to their village are the melancholy wrecks of Mr. Law's grant, of which the French company are proprietaries. To this settlement nine thousand Palatines were intended to have been sent. There is not, perhaps, in all Louisiana, a country more proper for producing all sorts of grain; and it abounds in pasture for cattle: but Mr. Law, as well as the greatest part of the other grantees, were badly served.

**KATHERINE, ST.** an island of the Brazils, in South America, reckoned by the natives to be no where above two leagues in breadth, though about nine in length. It extends from lat. 27. 35. to 28. S. and long. 49. 45. W. of London. Though it be of a considerable height, yet it is scarcely discernible at the distance of ten leagues, being then obscured under the continent of Brazil, whose mountains are exceeding high: but on a nearer approach, it is easy to be distinguished, and may be readily known by a number of small islands lying at each end, and scattered along its E. side.

The best entrance to the harbour is between the N. E. point and the small island of Alvo-redo, where ships may pass under the guidance of their lead, without the least apprehensions of danger.

The north entrance of the harbour is in breadth about five miles; and the distance from thence

## K A T

thence to the island of St. Antonio, is eight miles; and the course from the entrance to St. Antonio, is S. S. W. half W. About the middle of the island the harbour is contracted by two points of land, to a narrow channel, no more than a quarter of a mile broad, and only two fathom water; being navigable but for barks and boats, though it is defended by a battery on the point of land, on the island side, and three other forts are carrying on for the security of the harbour. The first, called St. Juan, is built on a point of St. Katherine, near Parrot island; the second, in form of a half moon, on the island of St. Antonio; and the third, which has some appearance of a regular fortification, is on an island near the continent, where the governor resides.

The soil of this island is truly luxuriant, producing fruits of most kinds spontaneously, and the ground is covered over with one continued forest of trees, of a perpetual verdure, which, from the exuberance of the soil, are so entangled with briars, thorns, and underwood, as to form a thicket absolutely impenetrable, except by some narrow pathways which the inhabitants have made. These, with a few spots cleared for plantations along the shore facing the continent, are the only uncovered parts of the island. The woods are extremely fragrant, from the many aromatic shrubs and trees with which they abound: and the fruits and vegetables of all climates thrive here, almost without culture, and are to be procured in great plenty; so that here is no want of pine-apples, peaches, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, melons, apricots, nor plantains.

There

## K A T

There are, besides, great abundance of onions and potatoes. The provisions of other kinds are, however, inferior to their vegetables. There are small wild cattle to be purchased, somewhat like buffaloes; but these are very indifferent food, their flesh being of a loose texture, and generally of a disagreeable flavour, probably owing to the wild calabash on which they feed. There is likewise great plenty of pheasants, but much inferior to those in England. The other provisions of the place are monkeys, parrots, and fish of various sorts, which abound in the harbour, and are all exceeding good, and easily caught; there being a great number of small sandy bays very convenient for drawing a net.

The water, both on the island and the opposite continent is excellent, and preserves at sea as well as that of the Thames; for after it has been in the cask a day or two, it begins to purge itself, and stinks most intolerably, and is soon covered over with a green scum; but this in a few days subsides to the bottom, and leaves the water as clear as crystal, and perfectly sweet.

There are many inconveniencies attending the island of St. Katherine, partly from its climate, but more from its new regulations, and the late form of government established there. With regard to the climate, the woods and hills which surround the harbour, prevent a free circulation of the air; and the vigorous vegetation which constantly takes place there, furnishes such a prodigious quantity of vapour, that all the night and a great part of the morning, a thick fog covers the whole country, till dissipated by the sun, or dispersed by a brisk sea breeze.

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## K I N

breeze. This renders the place close and humid, and probably occasioned the many fevers and fluxes commodore Anson's Squadron were there afflicted with.

To these exceptions must be added, that all the day they are pestered with great numbers of moschettoes, not much unlike the gnats in England, but more venomous in their stings: and at sun-set, when the moschettoes retire, they are succeeded by an infinity of sand-flies, which, though scarcely discernible to the naked eye, make a mighty buzzing; and wherever they bite, raise a small lump in the flesh, which is soon attended with a painful itching, like that arising from the bite of an English harvest bug.

KICAPOUS, a savage people of Canada, in North America, who, with the Masiontins, inhabit a very fine country, especially that which extends itself S. to the Illinois river.

KING'S, or PEARL-ISLAND, a small island in the bay of Panama, in South America: it belongs to Spain, and is famous for its pearl fishery, and lies in lat. 7. 12. N. long. 81. 36. W.

KILLISTINONS, a people of Canada, in North America, otherwise called Cristinaux, or Creeks.

KING WILLIAM'S-ISLAND, a denomination given by Dampier to an island of New Guinea. It lies in lat. 21. min. S. is about two leagues and an half in length, very high, and extremely well covered with woods. The trees are of different sorts, most of them unknown to Europeans; but all very green and flourishing: many of them had blossoms, and of various colours, diffusing a very fragrant smell.

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## K I N

The captain saw one of a smooth body, without knot or limb, about 60 or 70 fathom high: it was three of his fathoms round, and kept its magnitude, without any sensible diminution to the top.

The mould of this island is black, but not deep, it being very rocky. On the ridge and top of the island there are many palmetto trees, whose heads the captain could discover above all the rest; but he could not see their bodies.

**KING'S-COUNTY**, in New York, N. America, lies opposite to New York, on the N. side of Long-island. The inhabitants are all Dutch, and having a good soil near our markets, are generally in easy circumstances. The country, which is very small, is fertile in every part, and contains several pleasant villages.

**KINGSTON**, a pretty well built and populous town, in the province of New York, situated on the banks of Hudson's, or Iroquois river, about ninety miles from its mouth. It is inhabited by English and Dutch, but the houses are straggling, except about a hundred that are pretty compact; and these indeed are the chief part of the town. The river *Cesopus* from New Jersey falls into Hudson's river, near the town, by means of which there is a good communication between the two provinces.

**KINGSTON**, a town of Jamaica, one of the Antillies islands in the West Indies. It stands on the N. side of Port Royal bay, and is now the capital of the island; at least the place where most of the shipping of Jamaica load and unload: it is at present a separate parish of itself, but formerly belonged to that of St. Andrews:

it

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it is about five miles from Port Royal by water, but not less than 15 by land, and withal a very bad road to it. All the way round by land from Spanish Town, on the N. W. it is 19 miles, and only 12 another way; namely, six by water, and six more by land.

This town was built in 1692, from a plan of colonel Lilly's, after the great earthquake which destroyed Port-royal. It has the harbour of the latter place on the S. W. and Sir William Beeston's lands on the W. and N. This is a pretty town, containing 11 or 1200 houses, well situated, and daily increasing. It is laid out into little squares, with wide regular streets and cross streets at right angles; being intended to be a mile long, and half a mile broad. It is the residence of the most considerable merchants, whose ships load and unload here: this renders it a place of vast trade; and there are never less than 2 or 300 vessels in the bay before it, insomuch that it almost vies with Port Royal. The harbour is spacious, and the ships lie land locked: but the peninsula which covers them from the sea being low and narrow, they are not altogether safe from storms. It musters 10 companies of foot, and two troops of horse, being in all about eleven hundred men. Here is one church, two Jewish synagogues, and a quaker's meeting-house. It sends three representatives to the assembly. Here are held the quarter sessions, besides a court of common-pleas every two months, and a receiver general, naval officer, secretary, and surveyor of the island, are obliged to keep offices here. Lat. 17. 40. N. long. 75. 52. W.

LABRA-

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**LABRADOR, TERRA DE**, one of the northern countries of America, called also **NEW BRITAIN** and **ESKIMAUX**. It lies to the S. W. of Groenland. It has Hudson's Streights and part of the Atlantic Ocean on the N. E. and the latter also on the E. On the S. E. it is divided from Newfoundland by the streights of Belleisle, on the S. it has the gulph and river of St. Laurence, with part of Canada; and on the W. Hudson's Bay. It extends from lat. 50. to 63. N. and from long. 51. to 79. W. It is almost of a triangular form, but we have no knowledge of the inland parts of the country, and only an imperfect one of the coast. The great poverty and ferocity of the people who live near the sea shore, with the excessive coldness of the climate, have deterred Europeans from settling any colonies here. The natives hunt for furs, in which they carry on a traffic with the Europeans. This, with the coast on Hudson's Bay, and the neighbouring country, was ceded by France to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713.

Among all the people known in America, none are so conformable to the idea conveyed by the word savages as the Eskimaux, who are, in all respects, a very brutal people. See **ESKIMAUX**.

**LABRADOR-LAKES**, the name of several collections of water in Cape-Breton, which empty themselves eastward into the sea, by two channels of unequal breadth, formed by the isle of Verderonne, or la Boularderie, which is about seven or eight leagues long.

LAM.

## L A M

LAMBAYEQUE, a town on the road from Guayaquil to Lima, in Peru. It consists of about 1500 houses, built of different materials; but in general of bajareques, or unburnt bricks: some are of cane, plaistered over with clay both on the inside and outside. The meanest among them, which are the habitations of the Indians, consist entirely of cane. The number of its inhabitants amounts to about 3000, of which there are some very considerable and opulent families: but the generality are poor Spaniards, Mulattoes, Mestizoes, and Indians. The parochial church is built of stone, large, and beautiful, and the ornaments of it very splendid. It has four chapels called Ramos, with an equal number of priests, who take care of the spiritual concerns of the Indians, and also attend by turns on the inhabitants.

This town was not very populous before the families which inhabited the city of Sana removed hither, on its being sacked by Edward Davis, an English adventurer, who carried away every thing valuable, and what remained was swept away by a sudden inundation of the river of the same name.

Lambayeque is now the residence of a corregidor, having under his jurisdiction, besides many other towns, that of Morrope. One of the two officers of the revenue appointed for Truxillo, also resides here. The walls of the place are washed by a river of the same name; and when the waters are high, is crossed over a wooden bridge: but it is generally forded, and is sometimes quite dry.

The neighbourhood of the Lambayeque, as far as the industry of its inhabitants has improved

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proved it, by canals cut from the river, abounds in several kinds of vegetables and fruits; some of the same kind with those known in Europe, and others of the Creole kind, being European fruits planted there; but undergone considerable alterations from the nature of the climate.

About 10 leagues from it, are espaliers of vines, from the grapes of which they make wine; but neither so good, nor in such plenty, as in other parts of Peru. Many of the poor people here employ themselves in cotton works; as embroidered handkerchiefs, quilts, mantelets, and the like.

Lambayequé lies four leagues from Morrope, in lat. 6. 41. 37. S. long. 76. 15. W.

LAMPA, a jurisdiction of Cusco, in Peru, S. America. It begins about 30 leagues S. of the city of Cusco, and is the principal province among those included under the name of Callao. Its plains are interrupted with small hills; but both abound in good pasture: and accordingly this province is in particular remarkable for its quantity of cattle, with which it carries on a very profitable trade: but the air being every where cold, the only fruits are papas and quineas. Another very important advantage is, its silver mines, which are very rich, and constantly worked.

LANCASTER BAY, a sound or inlet on the western coast of Sir Thomas Smith's Bay. The furthest part lies in lat. 74. 20. N. the most northerly is called Alderman Jonas's sound, and lies in lat. 76. N.

LAPIS LAZULI ROCK, a small rocky island, almost covered with the sea, near the coast of Nova-Scotia. It lies about three fourths of a



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league from the isle Monano, and shews the passage into St. John's river, on the north side of Fundy-bay, and La Plate.

**LARICAXAS**, a province of La Paz, and audience of Charcas, in Peru. It lies adjacent to the territories of the jurisdiction of La Paz, and to the N. of that city, extending 118 leagues from E. to W. and about 30. from N. to S. The temperature of the air is different in different parts; and some of its productions are the same with those of Carabaya, on which it borders to the northward.

The whole province abounds in gold mines, the metal of which is of so fine a quality, that its standard is 23 carats, and three grains.

In this province is the celebrated mountain of Sunchuli, where, about 56 years ago, was discovered a gold mine, remarkably rich, and of the standard above-mentioned. But when in its highest prosperity, it was unfortunately overflowed; and notwithstanding prodigious sums were expended in endeavouring to drain it, all the labour and charges were thrown away, the works being injudiciously carried on.

**LATACUNGA**, **ASSIENTO OF**, the first jurisdiction to the southward of that of Quito, in Peru.

The word asiento implies, a place less than a town, but larger than a village. It stands in a wide plain, having on its east side the eastern cordillera of the Andes, from which projects a very high mountain; and at a small distance from its foot is situated Latacunga, in lat. 55. min. 14 sec. 30 thirds S. On its W. side is a river; which, though sometimes fordable, upon  
any

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any increase of the waters, must be passed over the bridge.

This assiento is large and regular, the streets broad and strait, the houses of stone, arched, and well contrived; but by reason of the dangerous consequences so often resulting from earthquakes, they are without any story. This precaution the inhabitants were taught to observe by a dreadful destruction of all the buildings, on the 20th of June, 1699. This concussion was general over all the province of Quito; and its effects, in many other places, equally melancholy. Out of 600 stone houses, the number of which this assiento then consisted, only a part of one, and the jesuits church, were left standing; and even these were so greatly shattered, that there was a necessity for pulling them down. But the greatest misfortune was, that most of the inhabitants were buried under their ruins; the earthquake beginning at one in the morning, a time of universal silence and secrecy, and continued its concussions, at short intervals, for the greatest part of the day.

The stone of which the houses and churches are built, is a kind of pumice, or spongy stone, ejected from volcanoes, which have formed inexhaustible quarries in the neighbourhood. It is so light, that it will swim in water, and from its great porosity, the lime cements the different pieces very strongly together: for which reason, and from their lowness, the houses are now able to support themselves, during a concussion, much better than before that earthquake, when few of them were without a story: and

## L A T

should they happen to be thrown down, the crash, in all probability, would be much less fatal.

This jurisdiction contains 17 principal villages. The air of the assiento is the colder from the place being only six leagues from the mountain of Cotopaxi; which, as it is not less in height or extent than those of Chimborazo and Cayamburo, so, like them, it is covered with ice and snow. The combustible substances within the bowels of this mountain first declared themselves in 1533, when Sebastian and Belalazar, who undertook the conquest of this province had entered it, and proved very favourable to the enterprize: for the Indians, possessed with the truth of a prediction of their priests, that on the bursting of this volcano, and the invasion of a foreign army, they would be deprived of their country, and reduced under the government of an unknown prince, were so struck with the concurrence of the bursting of the volcano, and the invasion of a foreign army, that the spirit which universally began to shew itself in the preparations every where made for a vigorous resistance, entirely left them, and the whole province was easily conquered; all its caciques submitting to the king of Spain.

The large plain in which the assiento stands, is full of fragments of rocks, ejected at the supposed ominous eruption; and some of them to the distance of five leagues from its foot. A second, but less dreadful eruption, happened in the year 1743.

The temperature of the air is very different in the several villages of this jurisdiction; being hot in those which lie in the valleys, temperate in such as are situated on the plains: whilst the

the air in those which border on the mountains, like that of the assiento, is cold, and sometimes to an excessive degree. The villages are in general larger and more populous than those of the other jurisdictions in the same province: their inhabitants are Indians, Mestizoes, and some few Spaniards.

Besides the parochial church, which is served by two priests, one for the Spaniards, and the other for the Indians, this assiento has convents of Franciscans, Augustines, Dominicans, the Fathers of Mercy, and a college of Jesuits.

The churches of these religious are well built, decently ornamented, and kept very neat. The inhabitants, by the nearest computation, amount to between 10 and 12000, chiefly Spaniards and Mestizoes. Among the former are several families of eminent rank and easy circumstances. The Indians live in a separate quarter, contiguous to the country.

In this assiento all kinds of trades and mechanic arts are carried on; and, as in all the other parts of its jurisdiction, it has a considerable number of manufactories of cloth, bays, and tucuyos.

Great quantities of pork are salted here for sending to Quito, Guayaquil, and Riobamba, being highly valued for the peculiar flavour given it in the pickling.

All the neighbouring country is sown with clover, and interspersed with plantations of willows, the perpetual verdure of which gives a chearful aspect to the country, and heightens the pleasantness of the assiento.

The inhabitants of Pugili, and Saquifili, are noted for making earthen ware; as jars, pans,

## L E W

pitchers, &c. which are greatly valued all over the province of Quito. The clay of which they are made is of a lively red, remarkably fine, emitting a kind of fragrancy, and the workmanship very neat and ingenious.

**LEMAIRE**, see **MAIRE STREIGHT**.

**LEON**, a town of the province of Panuco, in Mexico. It has rich mines, and lies 30 leagues N. of Mechoacan, and 55 N. W. of the city of Mexico.

**LEWIS**, the principal town of Suffex, one of the lower counties of Pensylvania, in North America. It is large and handsome, and situated on the beautiful bank of a river, the mouth of which forms the harbour. Before Lewis is Cape Hinlopen, or Cape William; and 20 miles below that, Cape James, the furthest boundary of Pensylvania.

**LEWISBURG**. See **LOUISBOURG**.

**LEWIS**, the chief port of Granada, one of the Carribbee islands in the West Indies, and belonging to Great Britain. It stands in the middle of a large bay on the W. side of the island, with a sandy bottom, where a thousand ships, from 3 to 400 tons may ride safe from storms. The harbour is remarkably capacious, being sufficient for 100 sail of 1000 tons to moor in. Near the harbour is a large round bason, parted from it by a sand-bank, which, if cut, would be capable of holding a very great number of vessels: but by reason of this bank, great ships are obliged to pass within 80 paces of one of the two little mountains which are at the mouth of the harbour, and about half a mile asunder. Upon one of these a fort has been erected by a French engineer, with a  
half

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half moon in front, and other regular works, all of good stone. The fort between the harbour and the bason is of wood, 25 feet square, and encompassed with a strong palisadoe of entire trees. At the two corners towards the sea are two little wooden pavilions, in one of which the commander resides. M. Parquet, its first proprietor, lived in a great wilderness encompassing the mountain, near the harbour, at the foot of which are magazines built of bricks and timber. The church, which is near the fort, is built of canes laid upon forks, and the inside has the same mean appearance. In Parquet's time, at every 6th cottage there was a little sentry-box erected, two stories high, to which the inhabitants of every six habitations retired in the night, to prevent their being surpris'd by the savages.

**LIMA**, the capital of Peru, in South America. It is also called *Los Reyes*, or the city of the kings, and is still the emporium of this part of the world. The following account of this famous city was written before the dreadful earthquake, which happened on the 28th of October, 1746.

The city of Lima was founded by Don Francisco Pizarro on the 18th of January 1535. Its site is in the spacious and delightful valley of Rimac, the true name of the city itself, the name of Lima being only a corrupt pronounciation of that Indian word; and accordingly both the valley and river still retain the name of Rimac, which is derived from an idol to which the Indians and their Yncas used to sacrifice. This idol being supposed to return answers to the prayers offered it, they called



## L I M

it, by way of distinction, Rimac, i. e. the speaker.

Lima, according to several observations made for that purpose, stands in lat. 12. 2. 31. S. and its long. is 75. 52. W. The variation of the needle is 9. 2. 30. easterly.

Its situation is one of the most advantageous that can be imagined; for, being in the centre of that spacious valley, it commands the whole without any difficulty. To the northward, at a considerable distance, is the cordillera, or chain of the Andes, whence some hills project into the valley; the nearest of which to the city are those of St. Christopher and Amancaes. The perpendicular height of the former, according to a geometrical mensuration by Don Juan, and M. de la Condamine, in the year 1737, is 134 toises: but father Feuillee makes it 136 toises and one foot, which difference doubtless arises from not having measured with equal precision the base on which both founded their calculations.

The height of the Amancaes is little less than the former, and stands about a quarter of a league from the city.

The river of the same name, flows by the walls of Lima; and when not increased by the torrents from the mountains, is easily fordable: but at other times, besides the increase of its breadth, its depth and rapidity render fording impossible; and accordingly a very elegant and spacious stone bridge has been built over it, having at one end a gate, the beautiful architecture of which is equal to the other parts of this useful structure. This gate forms the entrance into the city, and leads to the grand

grand square, which is very large, and finely ornamented. In the center is a fountain equally remarkable for its grandeur and capacity. In the middle of it is a brazen statue of Fame, and on the four right angles are four small basons. The water is thrown out through the trumpet of the statue, and likewise through the mouths of eight lions, which surround it, tending greatly to heighten the beauty of the whole work. The east side of the square is filled by the cathedral and the archiepiscopal palace, higher than any other building in the city. Its principal foundations and the bases of its columns and pilasters, together with the capital front facing the west, are of free-stone: the inside resembles that of the cathedral of Seville, but is not so large: the outside is adorned with a very magnificent frontispiece, rising into two lofty towers; and in the center is the grand portal: round the whole runs a grand gallery, with a wooden balustrade, resembling brass in colour, and at proper distances are several pyramids, which greatly augment the magnificence of the structure. In the north side of the square is the viceroy's palace; in which are the several courts of justice, together with the offices of the revenue, and the state prison. This was formerly a very remarkable building, both with regard to its largeness and architecture; but the greatest part of it being thrown down by the dreadful earthquake with which this city was visited on the 20th of October, 1687, it now consists only of some of the lower apartments erected on a terrace, and which are the residence of the viceroy and his family.

On the W. side, which faces the cathedral, is the council-house, and the city prison. The

south side is filled with private houses, which, like the former, have only a single story: but the fronts being of stone, their uniformity, porticos, and elegance, are a great embellishment to the square, each side of which is 80 toises.

The form of the city is triangular; the base, or longest side, extending along the banks of the river. Its length is 1920 toises, or exactly two thirds of a league: its greatest breadth from N. to S. that is, from the bridge to the angle opposite to the base, is 180 toises, or two fifths of a league. It is surrounded with a brick wall, which answers its original intention; but is without any manner of regularity. This work was begun and finished in the year 1385: it is flanked with 34 bastions, but without any platforms or embrasures; it being intended only to inclose the city, and render it capable of sustaining any sudden attack of the Indians. It has in its whole circuit seven gates and three posterns.

On the side of the river, opposite to the city, is a suburb, called St. Lazaro, which has of late greatly increased. All the streets of this suburb, like those of the city, are broad, parallel, or at right angles; some running from N. to S. and others from E. to W. forming squares of houses, each 150 yards in front, the usual dimensions of all these squares in this country, whereas those of Quito are only 100. The streets are paved, and along them run streams of water, conducted from the river a little above the city; and being arched over, contribute greatly to its cleanliness, without the least inconveniency.

The houses, though mostly low, are com-

modious, and make a good appearance: they are all of canes and clay: they indeed appear to be composed of more solid materials, both with regard to the thickness of the principal walls, and the imitation of cornishes on them. And that they may the better support themselves under the shocks of earthquakes, of which this city has had so many dreadful instances, the principal parts are of wood, mortised into the rafters of the roof; and those which serve for walls, are lined both inside and outside, with wild canes and osiers, so that the timber work is entirely inclosed. These osiers are plaistered over with clay, and white-washed, but the fronts are painted in imitation of freestone: they afterwards add cornices and porticos, which are also painted of the same stone colour. The roofs are flat, and covered only so far as is necessary to keep out the wind and intercept the rays of the sun. The pieces of timber of which the roofs are formed, and which on the inside are decorated with elegant mouldings, and other ornaments, are covered with clay to preserve them from the sun: and this slender covering is sufficient, as no violent rains are ever known here. Thus the houses are in less danger than if built of more compact materials; for the whole building yields to the motion of the earthquakes; and the foundations, which are connected with the several parts of the building, follow the same motion: so that by yielding to the concussion, though they may be damaged, they are not so easily thrown down.

The wild canes, which serve for the innermost part of the walls, resemble in length and bigness those known in Europe, but are with-

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out any cavity; the wood of them being very solid and little subject to rot. The bajuco is also a kind of plant, growing wild in the forests, and on the banks of rivers: it is strong and flexible.

Towards the E. and W. parts of the city, but within the walls, are a great many fruit and kitchen gardens; and most of the public houses have gardens for entertainments, being continually refreshed with water, by means of the canals.

The whole city is divided into five parishes; namely, Sagrario, St. Anne, St. Sebastian, St. Marcello, and St. Lazaro. The latter extends itself five leagues to the valley of Carabaillo, so that the many large plantations in that space belong to it: chapels are therefore erected for celebrating mass, that the people may perform their duty without the fatigue and trouble of travelling to Lima. Here are also two chapels of ease, that of St. Salvador in the parish of St. Anne, and that of the orphans in the Sagrario. There is also in the Circado, one of the quarters of the town, a parish of Indians, under the inspection of the Jesuits.

The convents are very numerous, there being four of Dominicans, one of which, the college of St. Thomas, is appropriated to literature; three of Franciscans, one in the suburb of San Lazaro; three of Augustines, one a literary college, and another a noviciate; three belong to the order of Mercy, among which is a college.

The Jesuits have six houses; namely, St. Paul, their principal college, St. Martin, for secular students, St. Anthony, a noviciate, the house of possession under the invocation of Nuestra

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Senora de los Dolores, a college in the Circado, where the Indians are instructed in the precepts of religion, and that of the Chacarilla, appointed for the exercises of St. Ignatius, where all seculars desirous of performing them, are admitted. They are also allowed the liberty of beginning when most convenient for themselves, and are handsomely entertained by the college, during the eight days of their continuance. But it must be observed, that of all these convents the casas grandes are now the most considerable; all the others besides being small, have but few members, and small revenues.

Besides the preceding nineteen convents and colleges, here are also an oratory of St. Philip Neri, a monastery of the order of St. Benedict, and a convent of the order of Agonizantes. In the suburb of San Lazaro, is a convent of St. Francis de Paula, a modern foundation.

There are also in Lima three other charitable foundations; namely, St. Juan de Dios, for the relief of persons recovering from sickness, and two of Bethlemites; one without the city, founded for the relief of sick Indians, and the other within the city, called that of the incurables, being appropriated to persons who labour under diseases of that kind.

This opulent city has also nine other hospitals, each appropriated to some peculiar charity; as for Spaniards only, poor ecclesiastics, mariners, negroes, Indians, women, and lepers.

Here are also 14 nunneries, the number of people in which would be sufficient to people a small town. The five first are regulars, and the other nine recolets.

Lastly,



Lastly, here are four other conventual houses, where some few of the sisters are not recluses, though most of them observe that rule: that of San Joseph among these, is a retreat for women who desire to be divorced from their husbands. To these must also be added, a house constituted in the manner of convents, for poor women, with an ecclesiastic, who is their chaplain.

Here is also an orphan-house, divided into two colleges, the one for boys, and the other for girls; besides several chapels in different parts of the city, which was always equally conspicuous for its zeal for religion, and its remarkable splendor.

All the churches, both conventual and parochial, as also the chapels, are large, and constructed partly of stone, and adorned with paintings and other decorations of great value; particularly the cathedral, the churches of St. Dominic, St. Francis, St. Augustine, the Fathers of Mercy, and that of the Jesuits, are so splendidly adorned, as to surpass description; an idea of it being only to be obtained from the sight. The riches and pomp of this city, especially on solemn festivals, is astonishing. The altars, from their very bases to the borders of the paintings, are covered with massive silver, wrought into various ornaments. The walls of the churches are also hung with velvet, or tapestry of equal value, adorned with gold and silver fringes: all which, in this country, is remarkably dear: and on these are suspended pieces of plate in various figures. If the eye be directed from the pillars, the walls, and the ceiling to the lower part of the church, it is  
equally

equally dazzled with glittering objects presenting themselves on all sides: among which are candlesticks of massive silver, six or seven feet high, placed in two rows along the nave of the church; embossed tables of the same metal, supporting smaller candlesticks; and in the intervals between them, pedestals, on which stand the statues of angels. In fine, the whole church is covered with plate, or something equal to it in value; so that divine service in these churches is performed with a magnificence scarcely to be imagined: and the ornaments, even on common days, with regard to their quantity of riches, exceed those which many cities of Europe pride themselves with displaying on the most solemn occasions.

If such immense riches be bestowed on the body of the church, how can imagination itself form an idea of those more immediately used in divine worship, such as the sacred vessels, the chalices, ostensoria, &c. in the richness of which there is a sort of emulation between the several churches. In these the gold is covered with diamonds, pearls, and gems, so as to dazzle the eye of the spectator. The gold and silver stuffs for vestments and other decorations, are always of the richest and most valuable among those brought over by the register ships; as are also the fringes, laces, &c. In fine, whatever is employed in decorating the churches, is always the richest of the kind that can possibly be procured.

The principal convents are very large, with convenient and airy apartments. Some parts of them, as the outward walls which inclose them, are of unburnt bricks; but the building  
itself

itself of quinchas, or baxareques. The roofs of many of the churches are arched with bricks, others only with quinchas; but of such curious architecture, as entirely to conceal the materials: so that the frontispieces of principal gates have a majestic aspect. The columns, frizes, statues, and cornices, are of wood, finely carved; but so nearly imitating the colour and appearance of stone, as only to be known by the touch. This ingenious imitation does not proceed from parsimony, but necessarily, in order to avoid as much as possible the dreadful devastation of earthquakes, which will not admit of structures built with ponderous materials.

The churches are decorated with small cupolas of a very pretty appearance; and though they are all of wood, the sight cannot distinguish them from stone. From the foundation the towers are of stone, for the height of a toise and a half, or two toises; and from thence to the roof of the church, of brick; but the remainder is of wood painted of a free-stone colour, terminating in a statue, or image, alluding to the name of the church. The height of these may be nearly known from that of St. Dominic, which, by a geometrical mensuration, was found to be between 50 and 60 yards; a height, which though small in proportion to the largeness of the structure, is a necessary caution both with regard to the shocks of earthquakes, and the weight of the bells, which in size and number exceed those in Spain; and on a general ringing produce a very agreeable harmony.

All the convents are furnished with water from the city, though not from that of the rivulets

vulets which run through the streets in covered channels ; but brought from a spring by means of pipes : while, on the other hand, both the monasteries and nunneries are each obliged to maintain a fountain in the street, for the public use of poor people, who have not the conveniency of water in their houses.

The viceroy, whose power extends over all Peru, usually resides at Lima. But the province and audience of Quito have been lately dismembered from it.

This government is only triennial ; though at the expiration of that term, the sovereign may prolong it. This office is of such importance, that the viceroy enjoys all the privileges of royalty. He is absolute in all affairs, whether political, military, civil, criminal, or relating to the revenue ; having offices and tribunals under him, for executing the several branches of government : so that the grandeur of this post is in every particular equal to the title. For the safety of his person, and to maintain the dignity of his office, he has two bodies of guards ; one of horse, consisting of 160 private men, a captain, and a lieutenant : their uniform is blue, turned up with red, and laced with silver. This troop consists entirely of picked men, and all Spaniards. The captain's post is esteemed very honourable. These do duty at the principal gate of the palace ; and when the viceroy goes abroad, he is attended by a piquet guard, consisting of eight of these troopers. The second is that of the halbardiers, consisting of 50 men, who are likewise all Spaniards, dressed in blue uniform and crimson velvet waistcoats, laced with gold.

These

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These do duty in the rooms leading to the chamber of audience, and private apartments. They also attend the viceroy when he appears in public, or visits the officers and the tribunals. The only officer of this body is a captain, whose post is also reckoned very eminent. Both captains are nominated by the viceroy: besides these, there is another guard within the palace, consisting of 100 men, a captain, lieutenant, and sub-lieutenant, being a detachment from the garrison of Callao. These are occasionally employed in executing the governor's orders, and the decrees of the tribunals, after they have received the sanction of his assent.

The viceroy, besides assisting at the courts of justice, and the councils relating both to the finances and war, gives every day public audience to all sorts of persons: for which purpose there are in the palace three very grand and spacious rooms. In the first, which is adorned with the portraits of all the viceroys, he receives the Indians and other casts: in the second, he gives audience to the Spaniards: and in the third, where, under a rich canopy, are placed pictures of the king and queen then reigning, he receives those ladies who desire to speak to him in private, without being known.

The affairs relating to the government are expedited by a secretary of state, with an assistant properly qualified for such an arduous post. From this office are issued the orders for passports which must be had from every corregidor in his jurisdiction. The secretary has also the power of filling all juridical employments as they become vacant, for the term of two years; as also those of the magistracy, who at the expiration

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piration of their term, have not been replaced by others of his majesty's nomination. In a word, this office may be said to be the channel by which all affairs relating both to war and government are transacted.

All causes relating to justice are tried in the court of audience, from the decrees of which there is no appeal to the supreme council of the Indies, unless after notorious injustice, or a second trial, as the viceroy himself presides in it. This is the principal court of Lima, and is held in the viceroy's palace in the three saloons appropriated to it. In one they hold deliberations, and in the other two the causes are tried, either publicly, or privately: criminal causes are tried in a fourth apartment.

Next to the tribunal of audience is the chamber of accounts: here all public acts of the revenue are passed: here also the distribution and management of the royal revenue are regulated.

Lastly, the royal treasury, the officers of which have the superintendance of all the king's revenue of what kind soever in most parts of the kingdom.

The corporation of Lima consists of regidores or aldermen, a sheriff, and two royal judges, all noblemen of the first distinction. These have the direction of the police, and the ordinary administration of justice.

The next tribunal is that of commerce, in which all mercantile disputes and processes are decided.

Lima has also a corregidor, whose jurisdiction extends to all Indians, both within the city and five leagues round it.

The cathedral chapter, besides the archbishop,  
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sists of five dignitaries, &c. His suffragans are the bishops of Panama, Quito, Truxillo, Guamanga, Arequipa, Cusco, St. Jago, and Conception: the two last are in the kingdom of Chili.

Here are also tribunals of inquisition and crusado.

Lastly, here is a mint, where the gold and silver are coined.

In the university and colleges the happy genius of the natives is improved by divine and human learning, and the students soon give elegant specimens of their future acquisitions. They are in this much more indebted to nature than to art or application.

The principal of these seminaries is the university of St. Mark, with the colleges of St. Toribio, St. Martin, and St. Philip. In the former are chairs for all the sciences, some of the professors of which have gained the applause of the literati of Europe.

The university makes a stately appearance, and its inside is suitably decorated. It has a large square court with a vaulted piazza round it: along the sides are the halls for lectures, and in one of the angles is the public theatre, adorned with the portraits of the great men educated here, in frames of fine sculpture, and richly gilt, &c.

The magnificence of the inhabitants of Lima on public solemnities is displayed with a peculiar dignity; so that among all those observed in America, the public entrance of the viceroy is the most splendid, and in which the amazing pomp of Lima is particularly displayed.

Nothing

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Nothing is seen but rich coaches and calashes, laces, jewels, and splendid equipage, in which the nobility carry their emulation to an astonishing height.

Besides the ceremony of this public entry, attended by the several bodies of the city, civil and ecclesiastic, in a very grand procession, and very sumptuous collations, &c. there are also other solemnities, some of which are annual; and on these occasions the riches and liberality of the inhabitants are no less conspicuous, particularly on New-years day, and on Twelfth day in the morning.

The inhabitants of Lima are composed of whites or Spaniards, negroes, Indians, Mestizoes, and other casts proceeding from the mixture of these three.

The Spanish families are very numerous: Lima, according to the lowest computation, containing 16 or 18000 whites. Among these are reckoned a third or fourth part of the most distinguished nobility of Peru, and many of these dignified with the style of ancient and modern Castilians, among which are no less than 45 counts and marquisses. The number of knights belonging to the several military orders is also very considerable: besides these, there are many families no less respectable, and living in equal splendor; particularly 24 gentlemen of large estates, but without titles, though most of them are of ancient families. One of these traces his descent from the Yncas. His name is Ampuero, from one of the Spanish commanders at the conquest of this country, who married a coya, or daughter of the Ynca.

All these families live in a manner suitable

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to their rank, having estates equal to their generous disposition, keeping a great number of slaves and other domestics: and those who affect making the greatest figure have coaches, whilst others content themselves with calashes or chaises, which are so common, that no family of any substance is without one. These carriages indeed are more necessary here than in other cities, on account of the numberless droves of mules continually passing through Lima, covering the streets with their dung, which being soon dried, turns to a nauseous dust, scarcely supportable to such as walk on foot. These chaises, which are drawn by one mule, and guided by a driver, have only two wheels with two seats opposite to each other, and will occasionally serve for four persons.

They are very slight and airy, but on account of the gildings and other ornaments, cost sometimes 800 or 1000 crowns.

The number of them is said to amount to 5 or 6000; and that of coaches is also very considerable, though not equal to the former.

The funds to support these expences are their large estates and plantations, civil and military employments, or commerce, which is here reckoned no derogation to the greatest families.

Commerce is so far from being considered as a disgrace at Lima, that the greatest fortunes have been raised by it; those on the contrary being rather despised, who, not being blessed with a sufficient estate, or through indolence, neglect to have recourse to it for improving their fortunes.

This resource being introduced by a vain desire of the first Spaniards to acquire wealth,  
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is now the real support of that splendor in which those families live: and whatever reluctance the military gentlemen might originally have to commerce, it was removed by a royal proclamation, by which it was declared that commerce in the Indies should not exclude from nobility or the military orders.

Some of the eminent families have been long since settled at Lima, whilst the prosperity of others is of a later date.

The negroes, mulattoes, and their descendants, form the greater number of the inhabitants, and of these is the greatest part of the mechanics; though here the Europeans also follow the same occupations, which are not reckoned disgraceful at Lima, as they are at Quito. Since gain is in this place the universal passion, the inhabitants pursue it by means of any trade, without regard to its being followed by mulattoes; interest here preponderating against any other consideration.

The third and last class are the Indians and Mestizoes; but these are very small in proportion to the multitudes of the second class, and the magnitude of the city. They are chiefly employed in agriculture, making of earthen ware, and bringing of all kinds of provisions to market; domestic services being principally performed by negroes and mulattoes, either slaves or free, though generally by the former.

The usual dress of the men differs very little from that worn in Spain; nor is the distinction between the several classes very great; for the use of all sorts of cloth being allowed, every one wears whatever he can purchase; so that it is not at all uncommon to see a mulatto or  
any

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other mechanic dressed in a tiffue, equal to any thing that can be worn by a more opulent person.

They all greatly affect fine cloaths; and it may be said, that the finest stuffs are more generally seen at Lima, than in any other place; vanity, and ostentation being under no restraint.

Thus the great quantities brought in the galleons and register-ships, though they sell here vastly beyond their prime cost in Europe, find a vent, the richest of them being used as cloaths, and worn with a carelessness little suitable to their exorbitant price. But in this article the men are greatly exceeded by the women.

But what is still more remarkable, the ladies carry their taste for laces to a prodigious excess: nor is this emulation confined to persons of quality, it has spread through all ranks, except the lowest class of negroes. The lace is sewed to their linen, which is always of the finest sort, though very little of it is seen, the greatest part being almost covered with lace. These laces too must be all of Flanders fabric, no women of rank deigning to look on any other.

Their dress is very different from the European: it consists of a pair of shoes, a shift, a petticoat of dimitty, an open petticoat, and a jacket, which in summer is of linen, in winter of stuff. To this some add a mantelet, that the former may hang loose. The difference between this dress and that worn at Quito is, that at Lima it is much shorter, the petticoat not reaching lower than the calf of the leg, from which, nearly to the ankle, hangs a border of very fine lace, through which the  
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ends of the garters are discovered, being embroidered with gold or silver, and sometimes, though not commonly, set with pearls. The upper petticoat, which is of velvet or some rich stuff, is fringed all round, and not less crouded with ornaments, which are always exquisitely fine. The shift-sleeves, which are a yard and an half in length and two yards wide, when worn for ornament, are covered with rolls of lace, variegated in a very elegant taste. Over the shift is worn the jacket, the sleeves of which are excessively large, of a circular figure, and consist of rows of lace, or slips of cambric or lawn, with lace disposed betwixt each, as are also the shift-sleeves. The body of the jacket is tied on the shoulders with ribbands, and the round sleeves of it, being tucked up to the shoulders, are so disposed with those of the shift, as to form four wings. In short, the whole dress taken together makes a very elegant figure. They who use a close vest, fasten it with clasps, but wear over it the loose jacket.

In the summer they have a kind of veil, the stuff and fashion of which is, like that of the shift and body of the vest, of the finest cambric or lawn, richly laced. But in winter the veil worn in their houses is of bays. When they go abroad, full dressed, it is adorned like the sleeves. They also use brown bays finely laced and fringed, and bordered with slips of black velvet. Over the petticoat is an apron of the same stuff as the sleeves of the jacket, hanging down to the bottom of it. Hence some idea may be formed of the expence of such a dress; nor will it appear strange that the marriage-



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shift should cost a thousand crowns, and sometimes more.

One particular upon which the women here extremely value themselves, is the size of their feet, a small foot being esteemed one of the principal beauties. From their infancy they are accustomed to wear strait shoes, some of which do not exceed five inches and an half, or six inches in length ; so that in women of a low stature they are still less.

Their shoes have little or no sole, one piece of cordouan serving both for that and the upper leather ; and of an equal breadth and roundness at the toe and heel, so as to form a long figure of eight : but the foot not complying with this, brings it to a greater regularity. These shoes are always fastened with diamond buckles, or something very brilliant, according to the ability of the wearer ; for the shoes are made in such a manner that they never loosen of themselves, nor do the buckles hinder their being taken off. It is unusual to set these buckles with pearls. The shoemakers take care to make them in a manner very little calculated for service. The usual price is three half crowns a pair, while those embroidered with gold or silver cost from eight to ten crowns. The latter however are but little worn, as rather enlarging than diminishing the appearance of a small foot.

They are fond of white silk stockings, made extremely thin, that their leg may appear the more shapely.

What has been already mentioned is only the more common dress of these ladies ; a still higher

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higher idea of their magnificence will be had from knowing the ornaments with which they are decorated in their visits, and on public occasions.

Their hair being naturally black, and reaching below their waists, they tie up behind in six braided locks, through which a golden bodkin, a little bent, is inserted, and a cluster of diamonds at each end. On this the locks are suspended, so as to touch the shoulder. On the forehead and upper part they wear diamond aigrets, and the hair is formed into little curls, hanging from the forehead to the middle of the ear, with a large patch of black velvet on each temple.

Their ear-rings are of brilliants, intermixed with tufts of black silk, covered with pearls. These are so common an ornament, that, besides the necklaces, they also wear about their neck rosaries, the beads of which are pearl, either separate or set in clusters, to the size of a large filbert; and those which form the cross are still greater.

Besides diamond-rings, necklaces, girdles, and bracelets, all very curious with regard to water and size, many ladies wear other jewels set in gold or in tombage.

Lastly, from their girdle before is suspended a large round jewel, enriched with diamonds, much more superb than the bracelets. A lady covered with the most extensive lace, and glittering from head to foot with jewels, is supposed to be dressed at the expence of not less than 30 or 40,000 crowns. A splendor still more astonishing, as it is so very common!

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A fondness for expence appears no less in the strange neglect and small value which they seem to set on their rich apparel, by wearing them in a manner the most careless, and by that means bringing on themselves fresh charges in repairing the old, or purchasing new jewels, especially pearls, on account of their fragility.

The most common of the two dresses, when they go abroad, is the veil and long petticoat; the other is a round petticoat and mantalette. The former for church, and the latter for taking the air or diversions; but both richly embroidered with silver or gold.

On Holy Thursday they are dressed in the long petticoat, as on that day they visit the churches, attended by two or three female Negro or Mulatto slaves, dressed in an uniform like pages.

With regard to their persons, they are in general of a middling stature, handsome, genteel, and of very fair complexions without the help of art; and they have usually an enchanting lustre and dignity in their eyes. These personal charms are heightened by those of the mind; an easiness of behaviour, so well tempered, that whilst it invites love it commands respect. The charms of their conversation are beyond expression, their ideas just, their language pure, and their manner inimitably graceful. These are the allurements by which great numbers of Europeans, forgetting the fair prospects which they have at home, are induced to marry and settle here.

One objection against them, is, that being too well acquainted with their own excellencies, they

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they are tainted with a haughtiness which will scarcely stoop to the will of their husbands; yet by their address and insinuating complaisance they so far gain the ascendancy over them as to be left to their own discretion. With regard to the independance they affect, it is no more than a custom long established in the country: the husbands therefore conform to the manners of the country; and this complaisance is rewarded by the discretion and affection of their ladies, which are not to be paralleled in any other part of the world.

They are so excessively fond of perfumes, that they always carry ambergris about them; putting it behind their ears, and in several parts of their cloaths. Not content with the natural fragrancy of flowers, which are also a favourite ornament, they scatter perfumes even on their noses. The most beautiful flowers they place in their hair; and others, which are most valuable for their odours, they stick in their sleeves. The flower most in use is the chirimoya, which is of an exquisite scent, though of a mean appearance.

To this passion for flowers it is owing, that the grand square, every morning, on account of the vast quantity of beautiful vegetables brought thither, has the appearance of a spacious garden, which gratifies the smell and sight abundantly. The ladies resort thither in their calashes: and if their fancy happen to be pleased, they make but little scruple with regard to their price. A stranger has the pleasure of seeing assembled here not only the ladies, but every body of rank, whose health and avocations will admit of it.

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The lower classes of women, even to the very Negroes, affect, according to their abilities, to imitate their betters, not only in the fashion, but also in the richness, of their dress. None here are seen without shoes, as in Quito. A desire of being distinguished by an elegant dress is universal. Their linen is always starched to a great degree, in order to display the costly patterns of their laces. After this universal passion, their next care is cleanliness, of which the uncommon neatness of their houses is a sufficient proof.

They are naturally gay, sprightly, and jocular, without levity; remarkably fond of music: so that even among the lowest you are entertained with pleasing and agreeable songs. For the gratification of this passion they have in general good voices, and some of them are heard with admiration. They are very fond of balls, where they distinguish themselves equally by the gracefulness and agility of their motions. In short, the reigning passions of the fair at Lima, are shew, mirth, and festivity.

The natural vivacity and penetration of the inhabitants of Lima, both men and women, are greatly improved by conversing with persons of learning resorting thither from Spain; to which the custom of forming assemblies has also a great tendency.

Though the natives have too great a share of pride, they are not wanting in docility, when proper methods are taken. They instantly shew their reluctance to obey a command given with haughtiness; but when delivered with mildness, equally obsequious. They are remarkably brave, and of such unblemished honour, as never

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ver to dissemble an affront received, or give one to others; so that they live together in a cheerful and social manner. The Mulattoes being less civilized, and having but slender notions of the turpitude of vice and the excellence of virtue, are haughty, turbulent, and quarrelsome; yet the mischievous consequences of these vices are less common than might naturally be expected in such a populous city.

The manners and dispositions of the nobility correspond with their rank and fortune. Courtesy shines in all their actions; so that the reception which they give to strangers is equally free from fawning flattery and a haughty reserve. Thus the Europeans, who visit them, are charmed with their probity, politeness, candour, and magnificence.

The temperature of the air in Lima differs very widely from that of Carthagena, though in the same latitude with it, namely, the one in the northern, and the other in the southern hemisphere: for as that of Carthagena is hot to a degree of inconvenience, this of Lima is perfectly agreeable; and the difference of the four seasons is sensible; all of them are moderate, and none of them troublesome.

Spring begins towards the close of the year, that is, towards the end of November, or beginning of December; but is to be understood only of the heavens, as then the vapours, which filled the atmosphere during the winter, subside, the sun appears again, and the country now begins to revive. This is succeeded by summer, which, though hot from the perpendicular direction of the sun's rays, is far from being insupportable, the heat being moderated



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by the S. winds, which at this season always blow, though with no great force. At the close of June, or beginning of July, the winter begins, and continues till November or December, the autumn intervening between both. About this time the S. winds begin to blow stronger, and bring the cold with them, not indeed equal to that in countries where snow and ice are known, but so keen, that the light dresses are laid by, and cloth or other warm stuffs are worn.

The cold at Lima is owing to the winds, which, passing over the frozen climes of the S. pole, bring along with them part of the frigorific matter from those gelid regions. But as a sufficient quantity of those particles could not be conveyed over such an immense space, as is between the frozen and torrid zone of its hemisphere, nature has provided another expedient; for during winter the earth is covered with so thick a fog, as entirely to intercept the sun's rays; so that the winds being propagated under the shelter of this fog, retain the particles they contracted in the frozen zone. Nor is this fog confined to the country of Lima; it extends, with the same density, northwards; thro' all the country of Valles, at the same time filling the atmosphere of the sea.

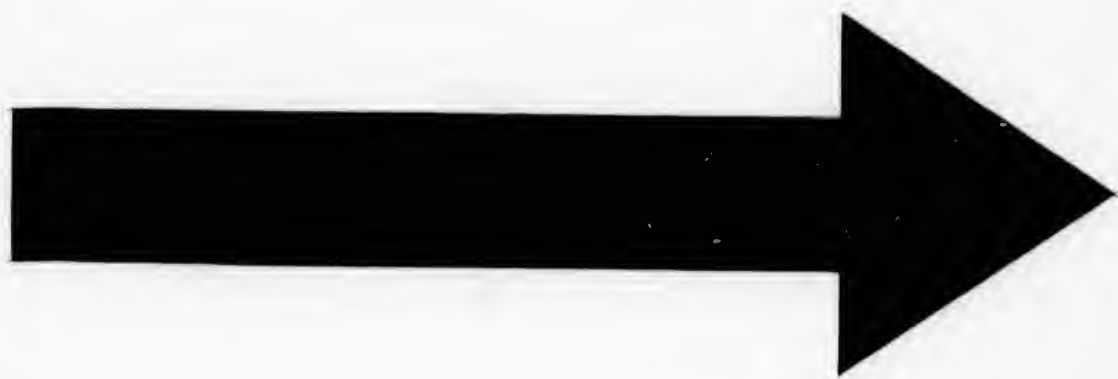
This fog seldom fails to cover the earth every day, and with a density that obscures objects at any distance. About ten or eleven it begins to disperse, but is not totally, though it is then no impediment to the sight, intercepting only the sun's rays by day, and those of the stars by night, the sky being continually covered, whatever height the vapours float at in the atmosphere.

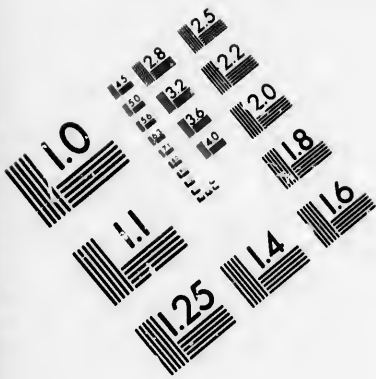
## L I M

sphere. Sometimes, indeed, they are so far dispersed as to admit of seeing the disk of the sun, yet still precluding the heat of his rays.

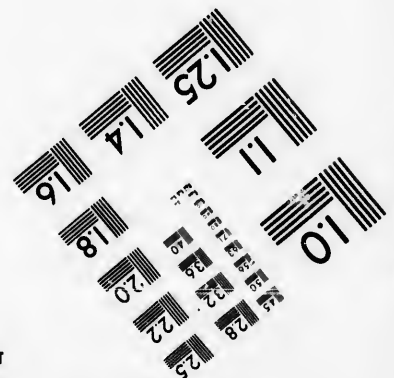
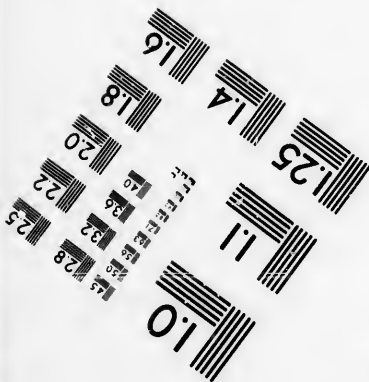
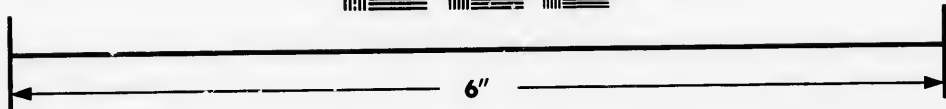
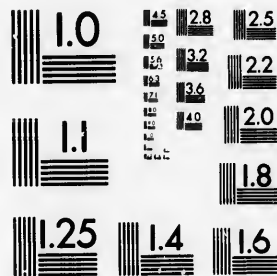
It is not unworthy of observation on this head, that at the distance only of two or three leagues, the vapours are much more dissipated from noon to evening than in the city; the sun fully appearing, so as to moderate the coldness of the air. Also at Callao, which is only two leagues and an half from Lima, the winter is much more mild, and the air clearer during that season. For the days at Lima are very melancholy and disagreeable, not only on account of the darkness; but frequently during the whole day the vapours continue in the same degree of density and position, without breaking, or being elevated above the earth.

It is in this season only that the vapours dissolve into a very small mist or dew, called garua, and thus every where equally moistens the earth; by which means all those hills, which, during the other parts of the year, offer nothing to the sight but rocks and wastes, are clothed with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the most beautiful colours, to the great joy of the inhabitants; who, as soon as the severity of winter abates, resort into the country, which exhibits so elegant an appearance. These garuas never fall in quantities sufficient to damage the roads, or incommode the traveller. A very thin stuff will not soon be wet through. But the continuance of the mist during the whole winter, without being exhaled by the sun, renders the most arid and barren parts fertile. For the same reason, they





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## L I M

turn the disagreeable dust in the streets of Lima, into a mud, which is rather more offensive.

The winds which prevail during the winter, are nearly, tho' not exactly, south: sometimes shifting a little to the S. E. between which and the S. they always blow. This was observed to happen commonly during two winters residence; the one at Lima in 1742, and the other at Callao in 1743. The first was one of the most severe that had ever been felt, and the cold general in all that part of America, S. to Cape Horn. In Chili, Baldivia, and Chiloe, the cold was proportional to the latitudes: and at Lima it occasioned constipations and fluxes; which swept away such numbers, that it seemed like a pestilence. And tho' disorders of this kind are very common in the winter-season, they are rarely attended with the danger which then accompanied them.

As an extraordinary singularity is observed in the kingdom of Peru; namely, that it never rains; or, to speak more properly, that the clouds do not convert themselves into formal showers; and as rain is seldom or never seen at Lima, in particular; so that place is equally free from tempests; that those who have never visited the mountains, nor travelled into other parts, as Guayaquil and Chili, are absolute strangers to thunder and lightning, nothing of that kind being known here. Accordingly the inhabitants are extremely terrified, when they first hear the former, or see the latter. But it is very remarkable, that what is here entirely unknown, should be so common at 30 leagues distance, or even less, to the E. of Lima, it being



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ing no further to the mountains, where violent rains and tempests are as frequent as at Quito.

The winds, tho' settled in the S. and S. E. points, are subject to variations, but almost imperceptible. They are also very gentle, and even in the severest winter never known to do any damage by their violence; so that if this country were free from other inconveniencies and evils, its inhabitants would have nothing to desire, in order to render their lives truly agreeable. But with these signal advantages, nature has blended inconveniencies which greatly diminish their value, and render this country even inferior to those on which nature has not bestowed such great riches and fertility.

It has been observed, that the winds generally prevailing in Valles, throughout the year, come from the S. But this admits of some exceptions; which, without any essential alteration, implies, that they sometimes come from the N. but so very faint as scarcely to move the vanes of ships, and consist only of a very weak agitation of the air, just sufficient to indicate that the wind is changed to the S. This change is regular in winter, and with it the fog immediately begins. This breath of wind is so particular, that from the very instant it begins, and before the mist is condensed, the inhabitants are unhappily sensible of it by violent head-achs; so as easily to know what sort of weather is coming on, before they stir out of their chambers.

One of the inconveniencies of Lima, during the summer, is that of being tormented with fleas and bugs, from which the utmost care is

not

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not sufficient to free the inhabitants: Their prodigious increase is partly owing to the dust of that dung with which the streets are continually covered; and partly to the flatness of the roofs, where the same dust, waisted thither by the winds, produces these troublesome insects, which are continually dropping through the crevices of the boards into the apartments; and by that means render it impossible for the inhabitants, notwithstanding all their pains, to keep their houses free from them. The mosquitos are very troublesome, but much less so than the former.

The next, and indeed a most dreadful circumstance, is that of earthquakes, to which this country is so subject, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehensions of being, from their suddenness and violence, buried in the ruins of their own houses. Several deplorable instances of this kind have happened in this unfortunate city, and lately proved the total destruction of its buildings. These terrible concussions of nature are not regular, either with regard to their continuance or violence: but the interval between them is never of a length sufficient to obliterate the remembrance of them.

These earthquakes, though so sudden, have their presages. One of the principal of which is a rumbling noise in the bowels of the earth, about a minute before the shocks are felt: and this noise does not continue in the place where it was first produced; but seems to pervade all the adjacent subterraneous parts. This is followed by dismal howlings of the dogs, which seem to have the first perception of the approaching

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ing danger. The beasts of burden, passing the streets, stop; and by a natural instinct spread open their legs, the better to secure themselves from falling. On these portents the terrified inhabitants fly from their houses into the streets with such precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked; fear, and the urgency of the danger, banishing at once all sense of decency. Thus the streets exhibit such odd and singular figures, as might afford matter of diversion, were this a thing possible in so dreadful a moment.

This sudden concourse is accompanied with the cries of children, waked out of their sleep, blended with the lamentations of the women, whose agonizing prayers to the saints increase the common fear and confusion. The men are also too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror; so that the whole city exhibits one dreadful scene of consternation and horror. Nor does this end with the shock, none venturing to return to their houses, thro' fear of a repetition, which frequently demolishes those buildings which had been weakened by the first.

By attending to the exact time of five particular shocks in the year 1742, between the 9th of May and 14th of October, they were found to happen indifferently at half-ebb, or half-flood, but never at high or low water; which sufficiently confutes what some have confidently advanced, namely, that earthquakes always happen during the six hours of ebb, but never during the flood.

The nature of this country is so adapted to earthquakes, that all ages have seen their terrible devastations.

Since

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Since the year 1582, there have happened about fifteen concussions, besides that on the 28th of October 1746, at half an hour after ten at night, five hours and three quarters before the full of the moon; which began with such violence, that, in little more than three minutes, the greatest part, if not all the buildings, great and small, in the whole city, were destroyed; burying under their ruins those inhabitants who had not made sufficient haste into the streets and squares, the only places of safety in those terrible convulsions of nature. At length the dreadful effects of the first shock ceased, but the tranquillity was of short duration; concussions returning so repeatedly, that the inhabitants, according to the account sent of it, computed two hundred in the first twenty-four hours; and to the 24th of February the following year, 1747, when the narrative was dated, no less than four hundred and fifty shocks were observed: some of which, if less permanent, were equal to the first in violence.

The fort of Callao, at the very same hour, tumbled into ruins. But what it suffered from the earthquake in its buildings, was inconsiderable, when compared with the terrible catastrophe which followed. For the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and suddenly turned Callao and the neighbouring country into a sea. This was not however totally performed by the first swelling of the waves. For the sea retiring further, returned with still greater impetuosity, the stupendous water covering both the walls, and other  
buildings

## L I M

buildings of the place; so that whatever had escaped the first, was now totally overwhelmed by those terrible mountains of waves: and nothing remained, except a piece of the wall of the fort of Santa Cruz, as a memorial of this terrible devastation. Here were then twenty-three ships and vessels, great and small, in the harbour, of which nineteen were absolutely sunk, and the other four, among which was a frigate, called St. Fermin, carried by the force of the waves to a considerable distance up the country.

This terrible inundation extended to other parts on the coast, as Cavallos and Guanape: and the towns of Chancay, Guaura, and the valleys della Baranco, Sape, and Pativilca, underwent the same fate as the city of Lima.

The number of persons who perished in the ruins of that city, before the 31st of the same month of October, according to the bodies found, amounted to 1300, besides the maimed and wounded, many of which only lived a short time, and that in torture. At Callao, where the number of inhabitants amounted to above 4000, 200 only escaped; and twenty-two of these by means of the abovementioned fragment of a wall.

According to an account sent to Lima after this accident, a volcano in Lucanas burst forth the same night, and ejected such quantities of water, that the whole country was overflowed: and in the mountain near Patas, called Conversiones de Caxamarquilla, three other volcanoes burst, discharging frightful torrents of water; and in the same manner as that of Carguayrasso.

Some

## L I M

Some days before this deplorable event, subterraneous noises were heard at Lima; sometimes like the bellowings of oxen, and at others the discharge of artillery. And even after the earthquake, they were still heard during the silence of the night: a convincing proof this, that the inflammable matter was not totally exhausted, nor the cause of the shocks absolutely removed.

Though the summer here, as has been already observed, is considerably warm; yet is it not productive of venomous creatures, which in this country are not known. And the same may be said of all Valles; though there are some parts, as Tumbes and Piura, where the heat is nearly equal to that at Guayaquil. This singularity therefore can proceed from no other cause than the natural drought of the climate.

The distempers most common at Lima, are malignant, intermitting, and catarrhus fevers, pleurifies, and constipations: and these rage continually in the city. The small-pox is also known here, as at Quito, but is not annual; but when it prevails, great numbers are swept away by it. Convulsions likewise are very common, and no less fatal. This disorder, though unknown at Quito, is frequent all over Valles, but more dangerous in some parts than in others.

This distemper is divided into two kinds; the common or partial, and the malignant or arched convulsions. They both come on, when nature is struggling in the crisis of some acute distemper: but with this important difference, that those attacked with the former, often  
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recover, tho' the greater part die on the 3d or 4th day, the term of its duration: while those who have the misfortune of being attacked by the latter, sink under it in two or three days, it being very extraordinary for any to recover.

The spasms, or convulsions, consist in a total inactivity of the muscles, and a constriction of the nerves of the whole body, beginning with those of the head. Add to this a pungent humour dispersing itself thro' all the membranes of the body, and causing insupportable pains: so that the groaning patient labours under inconceivable tortures, which are still increased on his being moved, tho' with the greatest care and gentleness, from one side to the other. The throat is so contracted that nothing can be conveyed into the stomach. The jaws are also sometimes so closely locked, that it is impossible to open them. Thus the miserable patient lies without motion, and tortured in every part of his body, 'till nature, quite exhausted, falls a victim to this deleterious distemper.

In the partial kind, the pulse is no more affected than in the distemper which preceded it; and commonly abates the violence of a fever: but in the malignant kind augments it, the circulations being quickened. The patient usually falls into a lethargy, but which does not remove the torturing sensation of the punctures, often so insupportable, that the miserable patient violently turns himself, and thus augments his agonies.

The malignant or arched spasm is, even in the first stage, so violent, as to cause a contraction of the nerves of the vertebræ, from the  
brain

## L I M

brain downwards: and as the distemper increases, the nerves become more and more constricted, that the body of the patient inclines backward into an arch, and all the bones become dislocated.

It is common, at the beginning of this distemper, to be totally convulsed: so that every part is affected, and during the continuance is deprived of all sensation; 'till nature being intirely spent, the lethargic fits succeed; and it is generally in one of these that the patient breathes his last.

The usual method of treating this distemper, is, by keeping both the bed and the chamber very close, even with a fire in it, that the pores being opened by the heat, the transpiration may be the more copious. Laxative clysters are often injected. External applications are also made, to soften the parts, and open the ducts. For the same intention, cordials and diuretic draughts are prescribed; also the bath: but the latter only at the beginning of the first stage.

The women of Lima are subject to a distemper extremely painful, very contagious, and almost incurable; namely, a cancer in the matrix: which even at the beginning is attended with such excruciating pains, that their lives are one continued series of groans.

This distemper comes on so imperceptibly, as not to be indicated by the countenance or pulse, 'till at its height. And such is the contagion of it, that it is contracted only by sitting in the same chair commonly used by an infected person, or wearing her cloaths. But what is most surprising, is, that it has not been known to affect the men, husbands usually living with their

wives

## I. I P

wives 'till the last stage of the distemper. One cause assigned for this malady is their excessive use of perfumes, which they always carry about them.

Slow or hectic fevers also prevail greatly in these countries, and are likewise contagious: but more from a want of proper care in the furniture and apparel of their persons infected, than any malignancy of the climate.

The venereal disease is equally common in this country. It is indeed general in all that part of America; and little attention is given to it till arrived to a great height.

It would be natural to think, that a country, where rain is seldom or never known, must of necessity be totally barren: whereas Lima enjoys a fertility to be envied, producing all kinds of grain, and a vast variety of fruits. Here industry and art supply that moisture which the clouds seem to withhold, and the soil is by this means rendered remarkably fruitful amidst a continual drought.

It was one of the principal cares of the yncas to cut and dispose in the most advantageous manner, trenches or small canals, in order to conduct the waters of the rivers to nourish every part; and render large fields capable of producing grain. The Spaniards finding these useful works ready executed to their hands, took care to keep them in the same order. And by these are watered the spacious fields of wheat and barley, large meadows, plantations of sugar canes, and olive tree, vineyards, and gardens of all kinds, which yield uncommon plenty.

LIPES, a jurisdiction of the archbishopric of Plata in Peru, contiguous to that of Porco,  
and

## L O B

and extending about thirty-five leagues. The air is extremely cold; so that grain and fruit thrive very little here; but it abounds in cattle, common to such provinces where the heaths and mountains are of a height to render the air continually cold. Here are also mines of gold, but at present neglected. That of St. Christopher de Acochala was formerly one of the most famous silver mines in Peru, the metal in some parts of it being cut out with a chissel; but it is now no longer worked, probably for want of hands.

*LOBOS de la Mar*, or the Isle of Lobos, the name of several islands in the Pacific ocean; but two of the largest have the name, to distinguish them from others, called Lobos de la Terra, from their not being above two leagues from the land. They both lie in the kingdom of Peru, in lat. 6. 50. S. about sixteen leagues from the continent, and are about six miles in length.

Near the eastermost is another island, about half a mile long, with some rocks and breakers all round it, near the shore, especially on each side of the entrance into the road, where the shore is bold, and has no visible danger. There is a passage for boats to windward to come into the road, which is situated on the leeward side of these islands, and a sound between them. It is not half a mile broad, but double that in depth, has from ten to twenty fathom water, and good anchorage. No ships can come in, but to leeward of the islands. On the eastermost of them is a round hommock, and behind it a small cove, where the water is smooth, deep, and very convenient for careening ships.

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## L O N

The soil is a hungry, white, clayish earth, mixed with sand and rock.

**LONDON, New**, a county of New England in N. America. It is the first from that of Hertford upon the coast. The east parts of it are pleasant and fruitful; but the west swampy and mountainous.

**LONG-ISLAND**, sometimes called Nassau-  
island, a large island in the province of New-York. It has Staaten-island, and that in which New-York lies, on the N. and N. W. the colony of Connecticut on the N. and the Atlantic ocean on the E. and S. It is not above 18 miles in breadth, but 120 in length, stretching itself along Fairfield-county in New-England, near the mouth of Hudson's river, being furnished every where with convenient harbours. A channel of 100 miles long, and 12 broad, divides it from the continent. It contains the counties of Suffolk, Richmond, and Queen's county. The trade which the English drive here is in furs and skins; tobacco, as good as that of Maryland; horses, beef, pork, peas, wheat, and all sorts of English grain, which here yield a very great increase. These they send to the sugar-colonies, and have sugar, rum, cotton, and indigo in return. The soil is likewise so good, that all other fruits and vegetables thrive here, together with flax, hemp, pumkins, melons, &c. In the middle of it is Salisbury plain, sixteen miles long and four broad, without a stick or a stone on it.

There being an excellent breed of horses in this island, the militia regiment is cavalry: and there are races on the plain twice a year for a silver

## L O R

silver cup, to which the gentry of New-England and New-York resort. There are also two or three other plains, each about a mile square, which are very convenient to the neighbouring towns.

Several islands lie off the coast, particularly the eastern; but none of them are inhabited.

They have also here a whale-fishery, sending the oil and bone to England, in exchange for cloaths and furniture. The other fisheries here are very considerable.

LOREMBEC. See LOUISBOURG.

LORETTO, a small village of Christian Indians, three leagues N. E. of Quebec in Canada, N. America. It has its name from a chapel built according to the model of the Santa Casa at Loretto in Italy; from whence an image of the holy virgin has been sent to the converts here, resembling that in the famous Italian sanctuary. It was not possible to chuse a wilder place for the mission than this: and father Charlevoux tells us, that the concourse of the faithful is very considerable; and that a solid piety reigns among the inhabitants of this desert.

They are savages indeed, adds that father, but retain no more of their original than what is worthy of esteem; namely, the simplicity and rectitude of the first ages of the world; an incredible innocence of manners, pure christianity, uncorrupted by the contagion of the world; and often acts of the most heroic virtue. Nothing is more affecting than to hear them sing in chorus, the men on the one side, and the women on the other, the prayers of the church and hymns, in their own language.

The



## L O U

The fervour and modesty which they shew in all their religious exercises, are remarkable.

This village was formerly much better peopled: but diseases, and other causes unknown, have insensibly diminished the number of its inhabitants.

Peace and subordination reign here in perfection: and all this village seems to form but one large family, modelled by the purest maxims of the Gospel. This is still the more astonishing to any who know to what lengths these people, especially the Hurons, naturally carry their ferocity and independance.

LORETTO, *Lady of*, a place at the district of St. Dennis, in the isthmus of California; the Indians call it Concho. Here is a small fort erected by the missionaries, consisting of four bastions, and surrounded by a deep ditch.

LOUDON, *Fort*, a castle erected in the country of the Cherokees, and lately taken by those perfidious savages.

LOVE-COVE, a fine opening to the westward of Whale-cove, in New N. Wales, and the Artic countries of America, and supposed to be the passage into the S. sea.

LOUIS, *Fort*, a settlement erected by the French near the mouth of the river Coza, in Florida, about twenty leagues N. E. of the nearest mouth of the Mississippi, and the usual residence of the principal governor of Louisiana.

From this garrison the French used to send detachments for securing the several stations among the Indians in the inland parts. The Ullibalys or Allibamous, Chicazas, and Chattas, the most considerable nations bordering on the  
Coza

## L O U

Coza and Mississippi, kindly entertained the English residing among them several years, and carried on a safe and peaceable trade with them, 'till about the year 1715; when by the intrigues of the French, they were either murdered, or obliged to make room for these new invaders, who unjustly possessed and fortified the same stations, in order to curb the natives, and cut off their communication with the English traders: by this means they engrossed a profitable trade, for above 500 miles, of which the British subjects were a few years ago the sole masters.

LOUISBOURG, the capital of the island of Cape Breton in N. America. Its harbour is one of the finest in that country, being almost four leagues in circuit, and six or seven fathom water in every part of it.

The anchorage, or mooring, is good, and ships may run a-ground without any danger. Its entrance is not above 300 toises in breadth, formed by two small islands, and is known twelve leagues off at sea, by Cape Lorembec, situated near the N. E. side of it. Here is vast plenty of cod, and the fishery may be continued from April to the close of December.

It was taken from the French by the English fleet, under Sir Peter Warren, and our American forces, commanded by Sir William Pepperel, in the year 1745, but afterwards restored to France, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

It was again taken by the English, under the command of Admiral Boscawen and Lieutenant-General Amherst, on the 27th of July 1758, and its fortifications since demolished; so that

it

## L O U

it would be superfluous to describe works which have now no existence.

The town of Louisbourg stands on a point of land on the S. E. side of the island; its streets are regular and broad, consisting for the most part of stone houses, with a large parade at a little distance from the citadel; the inside of which is a fine square, near 200 feet every way. On its N. side, while possessed by the French, stood the Governor's house and the church; the other sides were taken up with barracks, bomb-proof; in which the French secured their women and children during the siege. The town is near half an English mile in length, and two in circuit.

The harbour is more than half an English mile in breadth, from N. W. to S. E. in the narrowest part; and six miles in length, from N. E. to S. W. In the N. E. part of the harbour is a fine careening wharf to heave down, and very secure from all winds. On the opposite side are the fishing stages, and room for 2000 boats to cure their fish.

In winter, the harbour is totally impracticable, being entirely frozen, so as to be walked over: that season begins here at the close of November, and lasts till May or June: sometimes the frosts set in sooner, and are more intense; as particularly in 1745, when by the middle of October, a great part of the harbour was already frozen.

The principal, if not the only, trade of Louisbourg, is the cod-fishery, from which vast profits accrued to the inhabitants; the plenty of fish being remarkable, and at the same time

## L O U

better than any about Newfoundland. Their wealth consisted in their storehouses, some within the fort, and others along the shore; and in the number of fishing barks. One inhabitant maintained forty or fifty, with three or four men to each, with a settled salary, but were obliged to deliver a certain number of standard fish. So that the cod-storehouses never failed of being filled against the time the ships resorted hither from most of the ports of France, with provisions and other goods in exchange for this fish, or the inhabitants consigned it to be sold in France: vessels also from the French colonies of St. Domingo and Martinico, brought sugar, tobacco, coffee, rum, &c. and returned loaded with cod: and any surplus, after Louisbourg was supplied, found a vent in Canada; the return from which was made in beavers skins and other fine furs.

Louisbourg was not, however, the only port where the French vessels loaded with cod, greater numbers going themselves to fish at Newfoundland, off the coast of Petit Norde, and on the Banks.

Besides the inhabitants of Louisbourg, great numbers of French were settled along the coasts of the neighbouring islands, particularly that of St. John, where besides their dwellings, they had storehouses and fishing tackle: which being the most profitable occupation, and the gain less uncertain, very few applied themselves to the cultivation of the lands, which is indeed during the winter covered with snow, sometimes to the depth of three or four feet, and not dissolved till the summer is pretty  
far

## L O U

far advanced; so that husbandry seemed to want a requisite time for the products to attain their proper maturity.

Louisbourg lies in lat. 45. 50. N. and long. 52. 47. W. from the meridian of the Lizzard; or 58. 35. from that of London, or 61. from that of Paris.

LOUISIANA, or NEW FRANCE, a country of N. America, of pretty large extent. It is bounded on the S. by the Gulph of Mexico; on the N. by the river Illinois, and the territories of the Paniasus, Paoducas, Osages, Tirononte, Tecagas, Chavanons, and other wild Indians; on the E. by part of Florida, Georgia, and Carolina; and on the W. by New Mexico, and New Spain. It stretches from N. to S. about 15 degrees; namely, from lat. 25. to 40. N. and from E. to W. about ten or eleven degrees; that is, from long. 86. to 96. or 97. for the limits are not precisely fixed. M. de Lisle gives it a much greater extent, especially on the N. side, which he joins to Canada: so that part of it is bounded by New-York, Pensylvania, Virginia, &c. and on the W. by the rivers Bravo and Salado.

Notwithstanding the several attempts of the Spaniards and French to make settlements in this country, which generally miscarried, it appears that the latter had hardly any tolerable settlements in it till 1720, except that of Isle Dauphine, on the banks of the Mobile, about 70 leagues E. of the mouth of the Mississippi. They have indeed increased their settlements since, both along some of the coasts, and the banks of the Mobile and Mississippi: but they

## L O U

seem to be still inconsiderable, that of Isle Dauphine and Fort Lewis excepted.

The inhabitants of Louisiana differ in general from those of Canada, in being more sprightly and active, less thoughtful and morose; their Chiefs are more absolute, and their government more polite. They knew nothing of any instruments made of iron and steel, much less of fire-arms, 'till the coming of the French, all their cutting tools being very ingeniously made of sharp flints, and they used them with equal dexterity. Their principal ornaments are bracelets, pendants, and collars; some of pearl, but spoiled for want of knowing how to bore them.

Several of the rivers which overflow at certain seasons, render the country very pleasant and fertile. Nothing is more delightful than the meadows, which are well adapted to agriculture. In some parts the ground yields three or four crops: for the winter consists only in heavy rains, without any nipping frosts.

All the trees known in Europe flourish here, together with a great variety of others unknown to us; such as the tall cedars, which distil an odoriferous gum; and the cotton-tree, which is here of a prodigious height.

The whole country abounds with variety of game, fowl, cattle, and every thing necessary for life.

Louisiana abounds with rivers, the principal of which, besides the Mississippi, are, St. Francis, the river of Oxen, the Black river, and the Mobile, which waters one of the finest countries in the world, and forms at its mouth a noble bay.

The



## L O X

The eastern parts of Louisiana, belonging to the English, are impowered by the royal patents to extend their colonies of Carolina, Virginia, and Pennsylvania, as far as they please; so that the French must be circumscribed within very narrow limits, if not obliged to evacuate the whole country.

**LOXA**, or **LOJA**, a city of Quito in S. America. It is the capital of a jurisdiction of the same name, and lies 215 miles E. of Payta, in lat. 5 deg. 10 min. S. long. 77 deg. 10 min. W. Besides two churches, it has several religious foundations; as, a college of jesuits and an hospital, with fourteen villages in its district.

The jurisdiction of the same name produces the famous specific for intermitting fevers, known by the name of *Cascarilla de Loja*, *Quinquina*, or *Jesuits bark*. Of this specific there are several kinds, but one more efficacious than the others. Its best species has been minutely described by the ingenious botanist M. Jusieu, who at the same time instructed the Indians employed in cutting it, how it might be sent unimixed to Europe. He also instructed them how to make an extract of it; which is now generally used in all kinds of fevers. The usual height of the tree is about two fathoms and an half. The Indians cut it down, after which they bark it, and dry the quinquina.

The jurisdiction of Loja has also a great advantage in breeding cochineal, an insect from which the dyers extract their beautiful scarlets. It is produced on a plant known by the name of *nopal*, or *nopalleca*, the Indian fig-tree. The insect, in several circumstances, is analo-

## L O X

gous to the silk-worm, particularly in the manner of depositing its eggs. The method of killing the cochineal is with hot water, fire, or the rays of the sun; but the last seems to bid fairest for performing it in the most perfect manner. The insects destined for propagation are put into a box well closed, and lined with a coarse cloth; and in this confinement they lay their eggs, and afterwards die: at the proper season the insects are removed to the nopal, from the most succulent juice of which they extract their nourishment, by means of their proboscis, without any visible injury to the plant.

The principal countries where the cochineal insects are bred, are Oaxaca, Flascala, Chulula, Nueva Galicia, and Chiapa, in the kingdom of New-Spain. But in Oaxaca alone they are gathered in large quantities, and form a branch of commerce; whereas in others the inhabitants take but little trouble, and the insects breed wild, and are called grana sylvestre, but in England generally known by the name of cochineal mesticque.

The inhabitants of Loja, called Lojanos, do not exceed 10,000 souls, though formerly far more numerous. In this jurisdiction numerous droves of horned cattle and mules are bred, to supply the others of the province, and even that of Piura. The carpets also manufactured here are of a remarkable fineness.

The decline of the gold-mines of the town of Zeruma, which is to be imputed to the negligence of those concerned in working them, has been very disadvantageous to the whole department of Loja, and consequently diminished the number of its inhabitants.

LUCANAS,

## L U C

**LUCANAS**, a jurisdiction in the diocese of Guamanga, in Peru. It begins about twenty-five or thirty leagues S. W. of Guamanga. Its temperature is cold and moderate. The parts where the former prevails, large droves of all sorts of cattle are bred; and those of the latter, are fertile in grain, herbs, and fruits. It likewise abounds in valuable silver mines, the chief riches of Peru; and by that means is now the centre of a very large commerce; great numbers of merchants resorting hither with their goods; and others for purchasing such provisions as their own countries do not afford.

**LUCAYA**, or **BAHAMA ISLANDS**, a cluster of islands in the Atlantic ocean, discovered by Columbus in his long search after America. See **BAHAMA**.

**LUCIA**, *St.* by the French called *Sainte Alouisie*, from its being discovered on *St. Lucia's* day; one of the Caribbee islands, six miles S. of Martinico, and twenty-one N. W. of Barbadoes. It is about twenty-three miles long, and twelve broad. Here are several hills, two of which being very round and steep, are called the pins-heads of *St. Lucy*, and said to be volcanos. At the foot of them are fine valleys, having a good soil, and well watered. In these are tall trees, with the timber of which the planters of Martinico and Barbadoes build their houses and wind-mills. Here is also plenty of cocoa and suttic.

The air is reckoned healthy, the hills not being so high as to intercept the trade-winds, which always fan it from the E. by which

## L U M

means the heat of the climate is moderated, and rendered agreeable.

In St. Lucia are several commodious bays and harbours, with good anchorage; particularly one, called the Little Careenage, at which the English not long since intended to have built a fort. Here vessels might safely careen, and lie secure in all sorts of weather.

This island has been possessed and quitted by the English and French alternately, more than once. But at last the Courts of both nations agreed, about the year 1722, that St. Lucia, together with St. Vincent, and Dominica, should be evacuated, 'till the right to them was amicably determined. But it soon appeared incontestably to belong to the English. In consequence of which King George I. granted St. Lucia and St. Vincent to the late Duke of Montague, who sent thither at a vast expence, Captain Uring, his Deputy-Governor, &c. with planters, arms, tools, and all the necessaries for that purpose, on board seven ships, under convoy of the Winchelsea man of war, and were landed safe in St. Lucia; but, after a short stay, were obliged, by a superior force from Martinico, to reembark, and the island to remain neutral 'till the several claims on both sides were decided. But the French have since taken possession of it, and built several fortifications, in breach of the treaty. It lies in lat. 13. 45. N. long. 61. W.

**LUMLEY'S INLET**, a gulph of the North-main, in the Arctic countries of America. It lies on the eastern coast, and is situated E. of Whitebear-bay.

LYN,

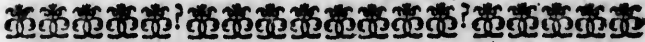
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**LYN**, a market town of Essex county, and Massachuset Proper, in New-England. It lies at the bottom of a bay, S. of Marble-head, and near a river, which at the breaking up of winter, and the melting of the ice and snow, runs into the sea with a very rapid current.



## M A C

**MACHANGARA**, a river formed by the junction of several streams, issuing from the S. and W. sides of the Panecillo, or sugar-loaf mountain, on the S. W. side of Quito, in Peru. It washes the south parts of that city, and has a stone-bridge over it.

**MACAS**, the southern district of Quixos, a government of Peru, in S. America. It is bounded on the E. by the government of Maynas; on the S. by that of Bracamoros and Yaguarfongo; and on the W. the E. Cordillera of the Andes divides it from the jurisdictions of Riobamba and Cuenca. Its capital is the city of Macas, the name commonly given to the whole country.

The vicinity of Macas to the Cordillera causes a sensible difference between its temperature, and that of Quixos. Thus winter begins here in April, and lasts 'till September, which is the time of summer between the Cordilleras. But at Macas the fine season is in September; and is the more pleasant on account

## M A C

count of the winds, which, for the most part, are then northerly. The atmosphere is clear, the sky serene, and the earth clothed in its various beauties; at which the inhabitants rejoice, the horrors of winter being past, which are here very dreadful.

It produces, in great plenty, grain and fruits, which require a hot and moist temperature. But one of the principal occupations of the country people here is in cultivating tobacco, which being excellent in its kind, is exported in rolls to Peru. Sugar-canes thrive well here, and consequently cotton. But the dread of the wild Indians, who have often ravaged the country, intimidates the inhabitants so that they plant no more than serves for present use.

Among the vast variety of trees which crowd the woods, is the storax, whose gum is exquisitely fragrant, but scarce; the trees growing at some distance from the villages; and it is dangerous going into the forests, by reason of the Indians: the same may be said with regard to the mines of ultra marine, from which very little is extracted, but a finer colour cannot be imagined.

The territory of Macas likewise produces cinnamon trees, said to be of a superior quality to those of Ceylon. The blossom also, both in taste and fragrancy, far exceeds that of the East Indies.

Great quantities of copal are exported from Macas, as likewise wild wax; but the latter is of small value. For, besides being reddish, it never hardens; and the candles made of it, when burnt, give a very disagreeable smell.

MACHALA,



## M A D

**MACHALA**, a town of Guayaquil, on the coast of Tumbes, in Peru; at present in a declining state.

The jurisdiction of the same name produces great quantities of cocoa, reckoned the best in all Guayaquil. In its neighbourhood are great numbers of mangles, or mangrove trees, whose spreading branches and thick trunks cover all the plains; which, lying low, are frequently overflowed. This tree divides itself into very knotty and distorted branches, and from each knot a multitude of others germinates, forming an impenetrable thicket. The wood of the mangrove-tree is so heavy, as to sink in water; and when used in ships, &c. is found very durable, being subject neither to split or rot.

The Indians of this jurisdiction pay their annual tribute in the wood of the mangrove-tree.

**MADERA**, one of the largest rivers that falls into the famous Maranon, or River of Amazons, in S. America. In 1741 the Portuguese sailed up this stream, 'till they found themselves near Santa Cruz de la Sierra, betwixt lat. 17. and 18. S. From this river downwards the Maranon is known among them by the name of the River of Amazons; and upwards they give it the name of the River of Solimoes.

**MADRE DE POPA**, a town and convent of Terra Firma, in S. America, situated on the river Grande. The pilgrims in S. America resort in great numbers to this religious foundation, which is there in almost as great reputation as the Santa Casa, or Holy House of Loretto, is in Europe; great numbers of miracles being said to have been wrought here by the  
Holy

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Holy Virgin, in favour of the Spanish fleets and their sailors, who are therefore very liberal in their donations at her shrine. It lies fifty-four miles E. of Carthagena, lat. 10 deg. 51 min. N. long. 76 deg. 15 min. W.

MAGDALENA, a large river, the two principal sources of which are at no great distance from the city of Popayan in Terra Firma, S. America. Belcazar, by going down this river, found a passage to the N. sea; and returned to Old Spain, in order to solicit the title of governor of the country which he had discovered, conquered, and peopled. This river, after uniting its waters with the Cance, takes the name of Grande, and falls into the N. sea below the town of Madre de Popa.

MAGDALEN, CAPE OF, a promontory in the centre of Canada, N. America, where there is an iron mine, which promises great advantages, both with regard to the goodness of the metal, and the plenty of the ore.

MAGELLAN STREIGHTS, a passage into the S. sea, lying between lat. 52. and 54. S. and between long. 76. and 84. W. It is upwards of 300 miles in length, from Cape Virgin in the Atlantic, to Cape Desire in the Pacific ocean; in some places several leagues over, and in others not half a league. These streights were discovered, and passed through, in the year 1520, by Ferdinando Magellan, a Portuguese, in the service of the Crown of Spain, while in quest of a W. passage to the E. Indies: which he accordingly performed; but was unfortunately killed in the Molucca islands. His ship, however, returned by the Cape of Good Hope, and was the first vessel ever known to  
have.

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have surrounded the globe. It is said to have many safe harbours in it, with narrow entrances, and vast large bays, encompassed with high mountains, sheltering them so close on all sides, that ships may safely ride in them without the least anchor, whatever weather is without.

Admiral Drake also passed these streights, in his voyage round the world.

Later navigators into the S. sea, particularly Commodore, now Lord, Anson, passed round Cape Horn : but dreadful storms have often been felt in weathering that southern promontory.

MAGELLANIA, or TERRA MAGELLANICA, a vast tract of land, extending from the province of Rio de la Plata, quite to the utmost verge of S. America ; namely, from lat. 35. to 54. S. The river Sinfondo divides the W. part from the S. of Chili : the northern part of it also borders on Chili, and Cuyo or Chicuito on the W. the South sea bounds it, in part, on the W. the North ocean wholly on the E. and the Streights of Magellan on the S.

Magellan himself made no great discoveries in this country, except the two Capes, of Virgins and Desire. But with regard to the gigantic stature of its inhabitants, which all posterior adventurers mention, their accounts seem founded either on mistake or falsehood.

The two principal nations discovered by the missionaries, are, the Chunians and Huillans. the former inhabit the continent, and several islands, to the northward of the Huillans, who inhabit the country near Magellan Streights. The soil is generally barren, hardly bearing

any

## M A M

any grain, and the trees exhibit a dismal aspect; so that the inhabitants live miserably in a cold, inhospitable climate. The Huillans are not numerous, being hunted like wild beasts, by the Chunians, who sell them for slaves. How many other nations there may be in this vast continent cannot be known; much less their genius or manner of living.

The eastern coasts of Magellan are in general low, abounding with bogs, and have several islands near the shore; the most remarkable of which is the Isle of Penguins, so called from a bird of that name, which abounds on it. But whether peopled or not is unknown.

The islands S. of the Magellan Straights are Terra del Fuego; as there is a volcano in the largest of them emitting fire and smoke, and appears terrible in the night.

MAGUELON, the most westerly of the three islands of St. Peter, lying off Newfoundland, in N. America. This is not so high as the other two; and its soil very indifferent. It is about three quarters of a league in length.

MAINE, a province of New-England, in N. America, by others made only a county in the province of New Hampshire. Maine is bounded on the N. E. by Nova Scotia; on the S. by Massachuset-bay, and on the S. W. and N. W. by New Hampshire.

This and Cornwall being two frontier counties, and chiefly exposed to the Indians, most of the towns are defended by regular block-houses, which are kept in good repair.

MAMARUMI, a place in the road from Guayaquil to Quito, in S. America, where there is a very beautiful cascade. The rock  
from

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from which the water precipitates itself, is nearly perpendicular, and fifty toises or fathoms high; and on both sides edged with lofty and spreading trees. The clearness of the water dazzles the sight, which is delighted at the same time with the large volume of water formed in its fall. After which it continues its course in a bed, along a small descent, and is crossed over by a bridge.

**MANCORA**, a place in the road from Guayaquil to Truxillo, in Peru, situated on the sea-coast. Through it, during winter, runs a rivulet of fresh water, to the great relief of the mules that travel this way. But in summer the little remaining in its channel is so brackish, as to be hardly tolerable. Its banks are so fertilized by the water, that such numbers of large algarbals are produced, as form a shady forest.

**MANITOUALIN**: See **MANTOVALIN**.

**MANSFIELD ISLAND**, a small island in the mouth of Hudson's Bay, in N. America.

**MANTA**, a bay of Guayaquil, in S. America, formerly famous for a considerable pearl-fishery; but it has been totally discontinued for some years.

This bay has its name from the great numbers of large fish, called mantas, the catching of which is the common employment of the inhabitants.

The method of carrying on this fishery is as follows: they throw into the water a log of wood, about eighteen feet long, and near a foot in diameter; on one end they place their net, and on the other an Indian stands in an erect position, and with a single oar rows his tottering

## M A R

tottering bark to the distance of half a league from the shore, where he shoots his net: another Indian follows on a similar log, takes hold of the rope fastened to one end of the net, and, when fully extended, they both make towards the land, hauling the net after them. It is astonishing to observe with what agility the Indians maintain an equilibrium on these round logs, notwithstanding the continual agitations of the sea, and their being obliged to mind the oar and net at the same time. They are indeed excellent swimmers; so that if they happen, which is very seldom, to slip off, they are immediately on the log again, and in their former position.

**MANTOVALIN**, an island in the lake Huron, in Canada. It lies along the northern coast, is upwards of thirty leagues long, and about four or five broad.

**MARACAIBO**, or **MARACAYA**, a small, but rich, city of Venezuela, a province of Terra Firma, in S. America, situated on the western banks of the lake of the same name, about eighteen miles from its mouth, and seventy-three S. W. of Coro. It is extremely well built, has several stately houses, very regular, and adorned with balconies, from which there is a prospect of the lake, which has the appearance of a sea. Here are about 4000 inhabitants, of which 800 are able to bear arms. It has a Governor subordinate to the Governor of Terra Firma. Here is a large parochial church, an hospital, and four convents. Vessels from twenty-five to thirty tons are continually coming hither, with manufactures and merchandises from the places

near



## M A R

near the lake, which are afterwards put on board Spanish ships that come hither to buy them. Ships are built at Maracaibo, which trade all over America, and even into Spain, this place being very commodious for ship-building. It lies 338 miles E. of Rio de la Hacha. Lat. 10. 51. N. long. 70. 15. W.

MARACAIBO LAKE, or rather gulph, a large collection of waters, on which the town abovementioned is situated. It is near 208 miles long, and, in some parts, 50 in breadth, running from S. to N. and emptying itself into the N. sea; the entrance of which is well defended by strong forts; but Sir Henry Morgan passed by them, plundered several Spanish towns on the coast, and defeated a squadron which had been sent to intercept him.

As the tide flows into this lake, its water is something brackish, notwithstanding the many rivers it receives. It abounds with all sorts of fish, some of which are very large. By the navigation of this lake the inhabitants of Venezuela carry on a trade with those of New-Granada. The lake becomes narrower towards the middle, where the town is erected.

MARANHAO, or MARAGNANO, a captainship of Brasil, in S. America; so called from an island of the same name. It is contiguous to Para, and has that of Siara on the E. the ocean on the N. and the Tupuyos, a barbarous nation of Indians, on the S. This Indian nation is very numerous, and divided into several tribes and languages, extending themselves a great way from E. to W. all along the S. side of this and some other captainships. Indeed the breadth of the Portuguese territory,  
from

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from S. to N. is inconsiderable, not daring to penetrate too far into the country of the hostile natives: though its extent from E. to W. is computed to be about 80 leagues: and this is the case with all the other provinces of Brasil. Some make this and Para to be but one government, stretched as far W. as the River of Amazons: the coasts of Maranhao Proper, however, begin on the W. of the Bay of Piranga; but, according to our more modern maps, at the Cape of Cuma, W. of the island of St. Lodovigo de Maranhao, and extend themselves E. to the river or barrier of Vermelhas, about five leagues.

Along these coasts are the islands of Sipotuba, and Igarapoe, with San Lodovigo, besides many smaller ones: and besides the three noted rivers of Maracu, Topocoru, and Mony, which unite their streams in the bay of that island, there are four others, which run the same northern course through this province; namely, Paragues, Paramiri, Camuffimiri, and the Barreiras Vermelhas, which divides this from Siara.

**MARANHAO ISLAND**, a small island at the mouth of the three rivers abovementioned, on the N. side of the province of the same name; it is oblong, 45 miles in circuit, very fertile, and well inhabited. The French, who seized on it in 1612, built a town here, called St. Louis de Maragnan: but the Portuguese have since recovered it out of their hands. It is now very strong, and hath a stout castle built on a rock, towards the sea, which commands a very convenient harbour. It is the see of a Bishop, under the archbishopric of St. Salvador de la Baya.

## M A R

**Bayá.** The island itself is very difficult of access by reason of the rapidity of the three rivers which form it: so that vessels must wait for proper winds and seasons to visit it. Besides the town aforesaid, here are two others, but less considerable; namely, St. Andero, on the most northern point, and San Jago, on the southern. The natives have about 27 hamlets, called Oc or Tave, each consisting only of four large huts, forming a square in the middle; but from 300 to 500 paces in length, and about 25 or 30 feet in depth; all being built of large timber, and covered from top to bottom with leaves: so that each may contain 2 or 300 inhabitants.

The island is neither plain, nor very mountainous; but pleasantly intermixed with low hills and dales, watered by rivers and small streams. As it is only two degrees S. of the equator, the days and nights, seasons, &c. are nearly the same during the whole year. The air is serene, seldom incommoded with storms, excessive drought or moisture, except in the time of the periodical rains, which last from February to June. The land is fertile and rich, producing every thing in perfection, without labour or manure. The inhabitants go naked, but paint their faces and bodies of various colours, adorning their heads and arms with a variety of feathers. The children are born white, but are anointed with oils, which gradually turn their skins brown, or of an olive hue. They are strong and healthy, live to a great age, and are seldom afflicted with diseases. Bows and arrows are their only weapons, with which they are very dexterous: but they

## M A R

they are fierce and cruel, especially to their prisoners.

The continent of Maranhao, about three or four leagues from this island, is inhabited by the Tapouytapare and Toupinambois nations, who are wild and fierce, and divided into 15 or 20 such hamlets as have been described above. Contiguous to these are the territories of Cuma and Gayeta, inhabited by nearly the same people; the two former have about 30 or 40 villages, and live in a country whose soil is richer than that of the island where the Portuguese are mostly settled.

These two nations are at continual war with the Tapouyes, whose plantations they at last destroyed, being assisted by the Portuguese, who have since settled some of their own people in that territory. The Dutch made some fruitless attempts both against the captainship and island, but the French had better success.

Its capital, of the same name, or Marignan, has a harbour at the mouth of the river St. Mary, on the Atlantic ocean: 495 miles N. W. of Cape St. Roque, lat. 2. 27. S. long: 44. 36. W.

MARANON, the same with the River of the Amazons. See AMAZONS.

MARBLEHEAD, a town of Essex county, and Massachuset Proper, in New-England. It lies four miles to the S. of Salem, has a small harbour, but a rocky shore. Here the Society for propagation of the Gospel have a missionary.

MARGARETTA, or SANTA MARGARITA DE LAS CARACCAS, an island of Terra Firma, in

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in S. America, from which it is parted by a strait, 68 miles W. of Paria, or New-Andalusia. Columbus discovered it in his third voyage, anno 1498. It is about 50 miles long, and 24 broad. The climate is said to be unhealthy, from the frequent fogs with which the island is covered.

It produces Indian corn, with the usual fruits of the torrid zone. The N. parts are high land, and have a soil proper for sugar-canes, tobacco, &c. Here are several sorts of animals, particularly wild hogs, with fish and fowl. It is subject to Spain. Lat. 11. 46. N. long. 64. 12. W.

MARIGALANTE, one of the Caribbee islands of America, in the Atlantic ocean; so called from the ship's name in which Columbus discovered it, in 1493. It is of an elliptical figure, five leagues and an half from N. to S. and four from E. to W. It lies near Guadalupe: both which are now in the possession of the British Crown, having been taken from the French in the year 1759. Lat. 16. 32. N. long. 60. 51. W.

MARTHA'S VINEYARD, an island near Rhode-Island, on the coast of New-England, in N. America, 76 miles S. of Boston. Its inhabitants, as well as those of Nantucket, follow the fisheries, in which they have great success. Lat. 41. 12. N. long. 70. 20. W.

MARTHA, ST. a province of Terra Firma, and S. America. It is bounded on the N. by the N. sea; on the E. by Rio de la Hacha; on the S. by New-Granada; and on the W. by the territory of Carthagen. It is about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth, is a mountain-

## M A R

mountainous country, and reckoned the highest land in the world.

MARTHA, ST. a city in the province last-mentioned, in S. America, with a harbour on the N. sea, at the mouth of the Guayra; about 124 miles N. E. of Carthagen. Lat. 11. 55. N. long. 74. 56. W.

MARTINICO, one of the largest of the Caribbee, or windward islands. It belongs to the French, and is the seat of their Governor-general of the islands. It is about 60 miles long, and 30 in breadth, and lies 40 leagues to the N. W. of Barbadoes. It has several lofty mountains, especially in the inland parts; from which a number of rivulets flow into the valleys on every side, beautifying the island, and rendering it remarkably fruitful. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified, that our attempts upon it in the late wars always failed.

The soil is very fruitful, abounding in the same productions as are common to our islands in that part of the world. Sugar is the principal commodity, of which great quantities are made. Indigo, cotton, pimento or allspice, ginger, cocoa, aloes, plantains, and other fruits common to the torrid zone, are produced here; together with great quantities of coffee.

The air at Martinico is hotter than at Guadaloupe; but the hurricanes less frequent and violent than in that and some others of the Caribbee islands.

It has no less than 40 rivers, some of which are navigable a great way up the country, and never dry; but at times overflow their banks, and sweep away houses and trees with their current.



## M A R

current. Besides these there are a great variety of streams, which, in the rainy season, water the dales and savannas. Some of the hills are cultivated, and others covered with woods, which afford shelter to wild beasts, and abundance of serpents and snakes. The tobacco growing on the steep declivities is preferable to that in the valleys.

Besides the disturbances occasioned here by frequent revolts of the native savages, a dreadful earthquake shook it, October 29, 1727, which continued for 11 hours with very little intermission; and shocks were felt for several days after.

Martinico, nevertheless, is at present in a flourishing condition. Besides many fortifications filled with strong garrisons of regular troops from France, it can muster 10,000 fighting men of militia, and 40 or 50,000 negroes, who are dispersed among the plantations over the whole island.

Martinico, it is observed, became the more populous by the cruelty of Lewis XIV. who caused a great number of his Protestant subjects to be transported hither as slaves. Another particular which has increased the number of its inhabitants, is, that the greatest part of the French ships trading to America, put in here for refreshments; by which means most of the families which retire from France, settle here.

The town of Martinico is the residence of many merchants, and is much frequented by shipping, especially from Nantes, whose cargoes are sure of a quick sale here. The harbour is also a safe retreat, in the hurricane-season, and at the same time to windward of all

## M A R

islands, a circumstance of great advantage to ships bound to Europe. The church is only a wooden structure. Lat. 14. 33. N. long. 60. 54. W.

**MARTIN, ST.** one of the Caribbee islands of America, situated in the Atlantic ocean, between Anguilla on the N. W. and St. Bartholomew on the S. E. and about 15 miles from each. It is about seven leagues in length, and four in breadth; with commodious bays and roads on the N. W. side. Here are good salt-pits, and lakes of salt water, which run a great way within the island: but has no fresh water but what falls from the clouds, and is saved by the inhabitants in cisterns. The salt lakes abound in good fish, particularly turtle; and the saltwater-pools are frequented by vast numbers of birds. In the woods are wild hogs, turtle doves, and parrots innumerable. Here are several trees, producing gums; and plenty of the candle-tree, splinters of which, when dry and lighted, emit a very fragrant smell. Its tobacco, which is reckoned the best in all the Caribbee islands, is the principal commodity and trade of the inhabitants.

The Spaniards formerly kept a garrison here in a fort; but about the year 1650, they blew up the fort, burned their houses, and abandoned the place. Then the Dutch and the French shared the island between them, and they lived very amicably. The French had, however, the best part of the island; but the spot where the Spanish fort stood fell to the Dutch, who erected fine houses, with large store-houses, and purchased a considerable number of negroes. But in 1689, the French were attacked and plundered

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plundered by Sir Timothy Thornhill; and in July 1744, driven out intirely by the English, who still continue in possession of it. The Dutch part continues in a pretty good state, but has no tolerable port; a road only, where ships are much exposed, is the best anchoring place in that part of the island: besides, St. Martin lies so far to leeward, as renders the trading to the windward islands very difficult. Lat. 18. 6. N. long. 62. 30. W.

MARYLAND, one of the British colonies of N. America; it was always reckoned part of Virginia, 'till K. Charles I. made a grant of it to George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, of Ireland; who dying before the patent was made out, his son finished it in 1632. The settlement of the colony cost a large sum, and was made, at first, with about 200 persons, all Roman Catholics, and most of them of good families: but the proprietary very wisely introduced a general toleration for all Christians: a measure that greatly tended to the flourishing state of the colony.

It is divided, by the north extremity of Chesapeak bay, into two parts, called the eastern and western shores; and lies between lat. 38. and 40. N. and between long. 74. and 78. W.

Maryland is bounded by Pensylvania on the N. by another part of the same province, and the Atlantic ocean on the E. by the Apalachian mountains on the W. and by Virginia on the S. It is about 140 miles long, and nearly the same in breadth.

The lands next the sea are low, but rise gradually 'till they terminate in the Apalachian mountains. Great part of the country was covered

## M A R

covered with wood, 'till cut and cleared by the planters ; but interspersed with savannahs and meadows, watered with several small streams and springs.

This colony, as it had for a long time, with Pennsylvania, the honour of being unstained with any religious persecution ; so neither they nor the Pennsylvanians have ever, 'till very lately, been harrassed by the calamities of any war, offensive or defensive, with their Indian neighbours ; but have always lived in the most exemplary harmony with them. Indeed, in a war which the Indians carried on against Virginia, they, by mistake, made an incursion into the territories of Maryland ; but were soon sensible of their error. The present war has indeed changed every thing : and the Indians, thro' the perfidious insinuations of the French, were taught to laugh at all their ancient alliances.

Maryland, like Virginia, has no considerable town, and for the same reason ; namely, the number of its navigable creeks and rivers. Annapolis, however, is the seat of government ; it is small, but beautifully situated on the river Patuxent : and here is the principal custom-house.

The people of Maryland are of the same established religion as those of Virginia, that of the church of England : but the clergy are here provided for in a much more liberal manner.

At present the people of Maryland chiefly cultivate tobacco, as they do in Virginia ; and the planters live in farms scattered about the country, and have the like conveniency of ships  
coming

## M A R

coming up to their very doors, by means of Chesapeak bay, and its navigable rivers.

Their tobacco, called Oroonoko, which is stronger than that of Virginia, and on that account greatly in demand in the eastern and northern parts of Europe, where it is preferred to the sweet-scented tobacco of James and York rivers, in Virginia, amounts to about 40,000 hogsheds. The white inhabitants are about 40,000, and the negroes upwards of 60,000.

The number of ships trading hither from England, and other parts of the British dominions, were computed at 100 sail above 40 years ago; but from the increase of the inhabitants, a much greater number must be now employed.

There is little or no woollen manufacture followed by any of the inhabitants, except what is done in Somerset county. Their common drink is cyder, which is very good; and, when properly made, not inferior to the best white wine. They have rum from Barbadoes, wine from Madera and Fial, also beer, malt, and various sorts of wines from England. Plenty of good grapes grow wild in the woods, but no wine is made from them.

Most of the Indians live on the eastern shore. Some of them indeed come over to the other side in winter, to hunt for deer, in which they greatly delight: and it is very rare that any of them will embrace the life or worship of the Christians. But their number is now inconsiderable, occasioned by the perpetual discords among themselves.

## M A S

The chief rivers are Patowmack, Patuxent, and Severn, on the western shore; and on the other side, Chiptouk, Chester, Saffapas, &c.

The province of Maryland is divided into 11 counties; six on the western, and five on the eastern side of the bay of Chesapeak. Those on the western side, are St. Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Anne, Arundel, and Baltimore counties. On the eastern side of the bay, are Somersset, Dorchester, Talbot, Kent, and Cecil counties.

Lord Baltimore is both the governor and proprietary of Maryland; and the family is now of the Protestant persuasion.

MASSACHUSETTS, the principal subdivision of New-England, in N. America. It is bounded on the N. by New-Hampshire; on the E. and S. by the Atlantic ocean and Connecticut; and on the W. by New-York. Its length is 112 miles, and its breadth 38; producing Indian corn in abundance, though but little other grain. Here is plenty of mutton, beef, pork, fowl and fish, with flax and hemp; and the inhabitants are employed in manufactures of linen, woollen, and leather. They build great numbers of ships, having plenty of timber and other materials for that purpose. They have copper and iron mines, and some of the latter is manufactured; but their fabrics in general, particularly those of hats, are discouraged by the mother country. They furnish the sugar-islands with salt provisions, in return for which they take sugar and molasses. They have stills for making rum; and some sugar bake-houses are lately erected.

The



## M A S

The government is a mixture of royal and charter kind: for the King appoints the Governor, the Assembly nominates the Council: nor will they fix the Governor's annual salary, the better, as they think, to keep him in dependence on themselves.

This is, by far, the most powerful among the British colonies, having a sufficient number of mariners to man a large fleet; and being able to raise about 20,000 soldiers, in case of necessity.

The bulk of the people are of the Independent persuasion; but several among them have lately come over to the Church of England. See ENGLAND, NEW.

There is also a large and deep bay in the same country, called Massachusetts Bay.

MASSEDAN, a bay between Aquapulco, and Aquacara, a port near the Cape of California, in N. America, where Sir Thomas Candish lay, after passing the Magellan Straights.

MASQUE POCONA, a jurisdiction of Charcas, in Peru, extending above 30 leagues. Its air is hot, but not too great for vines.

The city of the same name, where the Bishop of Santa Cruz de la Sierra resides, is very thinly inhabited; but there are, in other parts of the jurisdiction, several populous towns. The valley in which it stands is above eight leagues in circuit, producing all kinds of grain and fruits: and the woods and uncultivated mountains afford great quantities of honey and wax, which constitute a principal branch of its trade.

MASQUES, or CHILQUES and MASQUES, a jurisdiction of Cusco, in Peru, which begins

## M A Y

about seven or eight leagues from Cusco, extending above 30 in length. See **CHILQUES**.

**MATANE**, a river of Canada, the mouth of which is capable of receiving vessels of 200 ton. All this coast of the river St. Lawrence, especially near Matane, for upwards of 20 leagues, abounds in cod, and might employ above 500 shalops, or fishing-smacks, at a time. The fish is ve. 7 fine, and fit for exportation to the Streights, Spain, and the Levant. Great numbers of whales have been seen here floating upon the water, which may be struck with the harpoon, and prove a very valuable fishery.

**MATTA DE BRASIL**, a town in the captainship of Pernambuco, in Brasil; about nine leagues from Olinda. It is very populous, and in its territory they cut great quantities of Brasil wood, which is sent to Europe.

**MATTHIAS, St.** the westernmost of the two islands discovered by Dampier, on the coast of New Britain, and southern countries of America. It is about nine or ten leagues in length, mountainous and woody, but interspersed with several savannahs, and some spots which seemed to be cleared.

**MAYEN'S ISLAND**, or **JOHN MAYEN'S ISLAND**, an island lying S. W. of Spitzbergen, in 71. 23. N. lat. The sea which washes its coast was formerly frequented by abundance of whales; but these fishes removing further N. the island has been forsaken. A very high mountain beginning near its northern extremity, called Beerbergen, or Bear-mountain, extends quite across the island, and may be seen 30 miles at sea. Here are several good bays,  
and

## M E C

and the land is habitable, abounding with fish and deer. But the vast quantities of ice floating on all sides, especially towards the E. render it absolutely inaccessible in spring.

**MAYNAS**, a government, formerly the eastern limit of the jurisdiction of Quito, in Peru, and joining on the E. to the governments of Quixos and Jaen de Bracamoros. In its territory are the sources of those rivers which, after rapidly traversing a vast extent, form, by their confluence, the famous River of the Amazons; known also by the name of Marañon. The shores of this, and the many other rivers which pay it the tribute of their waters, environ and pervade the government of Maynas. Its limits, both towards the N. and S. are little known, extending far into the countries of the wild Indians; and is separated from the possessions of the Portuguese, by the famous line of demarcation, or the boundary between those countries belonging to Spain and Portugal.

Its capital is San Francisco de Borja, the residence of the Governor, but the Superior resides at Santiago de la Laguna.

There are several missions in the government of Maynas, and diocese of Quito, particularly 12 on the river Napó, and 24 on the Marañon; many of them both large and populous.

**MECHOACAN**, a province in the audience of Mexico, in N. America. It is bounded on the N. by part of Panuco, and the provinces of Zacatecas and Guadalajara; on the E. by another part of Panuco and Mexico Proper; on the S. by the latter and the South sea, which, together with Xalisco, bounds it also on the W.

## M E C

and N. W. It extends 70 leagues along the coast, and still farther inland.

The climate is extremely good, and the soil remarkably fruitful. In this province are mines of silver, and a few of gold and copper. Among its numerous productions are the cacao, or chocolate-nut, the root mechoacan, several odorous gums and balsams, sarsaparilla, ambergris, vanillas, cassia, &c.

The natives, now incorporated with the Spaniards, learn all kinds of trades; and are particularly curious in making cabinets, and weaving silk: but their greatest art is in making images of small feathers, equal to the most exquisite painting. The country is infested with foxes, squirrels, lions, wild dogs, and tygers. But it has also a numerous breed of excellent horses for the saddle or harness; and produces plenty of honey and wax; and the sea and rivers are stored with excellent fish.

Mechoacan was formerly a kingdom, but the Spaniards have reduced it into a bishopric, in which are about 200 towns of converted natives. The greatest part of the trade in this province is carried on by land, there being hardly any sea-ports deserving that name.

MECHOACAN, an episcopal city, and the capital of the province of the same name, situated on a large river, abounding in fish, near the west side of a lake, about 120 miles W. of Mexico. It is a large place, beautifully decorated with a fine cathedral, and handsome houses belonging to rich Spaniards, who own the silver mines at Guanaxoato or Guaxasiata.

MENDOZA,

## M E S

**MENDOZA**, a jurisdiction in the kingdom of Chili, in S. America. It has a town of the same name, and lies on the east side of the Cordillera, about 50 leagues from Santiago, in a plain adorned with gardens, well supplied with water by means of canals. The town contains about 100 families, half Spaniards, and the other half Casts, together with a college of jesuits, a parochial church, and three convents. In this jurisdiction are also the towns of St. Juan de la Frontera, situated on the east of the Cordillera, and about 30 leagues north of Mendoza; and St. Lewis de Loyola, about 50 east of Mendoza: the latter is very small, but has a parish-church, a Dominican convent, and a college of Jesuits.

**MERIDA**, the capital of Jucatan, a province in the audience of Mexico, in N. America. It is the seat of the Governor, and the see of a Bishop, and lies near the north side of the province, between the gulphs of Mexico and Honduras; 45 miles south of the ocean, and 135 north-east of the city of Campeachy. Lat. 21. 38. N. long. 90. 36. W.

**MERIDA**, a town of New Granada, a province of Terra Firma, in S. America, situated near the limits which divide it from Venezuela. The soil round this place abounds with fruit of all sorts, and there are also gold-mines in the neighbourhood. It lies about 54 miles from the lake of Maracabo, and 260 N. E. of St. Fé. The inhabitants carry their fruit and other merchandise to Truxillo.

**MESASSIPPI.** See **MISSASIPPI.**

## M E X

MESTIZOS, a name given to those inhabitants of Spanish America, whose fathers were Spaniards, and mothers Indians.

META INCOGNITA, a tract of land which Sir Martin Forbisher, in his third voyage to discover a north-west passage, in 1578, took possession of in the name of Queen Elizabeth; but has never been thought worth looking after since.

MEXICO, called also New Spain, a large province of N. America, subject to the crown of Spain. It forms a powerful empire, and is subdivided into two parts, Old or South Mexico, and New or North Mexico.

MEXICO, OLD, is bounded on the W. by New Mexico; on the N. and N. E. by the gulph of Mexico; on the S. E. by Terra Firma; and on the S. W. by the Pacific ocean, or South sea. It is upwards of 2000 miles in length, and from 71 to 550 in breadth, occasioned by its indentures by several bays on the north coast, and the gulph of California on the west.

It is, in general, a mountainous country, chains of high hills running through it from S. E. to N. W. Its eastern shore is a flat, plain country, full of morasses, and overflown in the rainy season; but so covered with thickets of bambou, mangroves, and bushes, that the logwood-cutters make their way through it with their hatchets. The barren trees are continually verdant, and those that are fructiferous blossom and bear almost the whole year round. The cochineal insect, for dying of scarlet, is bred here in great quantities. They have pine-apples,



## M E X

apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs and cocoa-nuts, in the greatest plenty and perfection.

The present inhabitants are native Indians, Spaniards, Creols, Mestizoes, negroes, and Mulattoes.

Mexico is governed by a Viceroy from Old Spain, who is despotic. The forces in this country are not considerable, nor are there many fortified towns, and even those have been taken and plundered by buccaneers of small force.

The revenues which the King of Spain draws from this country are prodigious, arising from the fifth part of gold and silver taken from the mines, the customs, excise, and other imposts, and the rents and services by which all lands are holden of the crown.

This is the first country which the Spaniards settled on the continent of America; and it still continues their principal colony. It is excessively hot, lying mostly within the torrid zone, and on the east coast extremely unhealthy, and encumbered with woods, which extend a considerable way into the water. The inland country is more agreeable, and the air of a better temperament.

The number of horned cattle is, in a manner, infinite, many of them running wild; and a very considerable trade is carried on in their hides and tallow; but their flesh turns to little account in commerce, by reason of the extreme heat. Swine are equally numerous, and their lard is much in request, and used instead of butter all over the country. Sheep are numerous, but their wool is of no great consideration

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## M E X

in their trade, being hairy and short. Cotton is here very good, and in great plenty, of which there are large manufactures, and is the general wear of the inhabitants; the woollens and linens of Europe being worn only by persons of some condition. Some provinces produce silk; but not in such abundance or perfection as to form a remarkable part of their export. The gold and silver of this country engross the principal attention of the inhabitants. The commodities of most importance in foreign commerce, are cochineal, indigo, and cacao; also sugar, tobacco, and logwood.

The trade of Mexico may be considered as consisting of three great branches, by which it communicates with the whole world: namely, the trade with Europe by La Vera Cruz; the trade with the East Indies by Acapulco, and the commerce of the South sea by the same port.

Old Mexico is divided into three districts, or governments, called audiences, as having sovereign courts; which, though under the inspection of the Viceroy, decide in all civil or criminal matters. These are, 1. Guadalajara, containing the provinces of Cinaloa, Culiacan, Chamephan, Xalisco, Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, and New Biscay. 2. Mexico, including the provinces of Mechoacan, Mexico Proper, Panuco, Flascalá, Guaxaca, Tabasco, and Yucatañ. 3. Guatimala, which comprehends the provinces of Chiapa, Soconusco, Guatimala Proper, Vera Paz, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Ricca, and Veragua.

Mexico audience is bounded on the N. by New Mexico; on the E. by the North sea, or gulph

## M E X

gulph of Mexico; has the South sea on the S. and S. W. and on the S. E. side it joins the provinces of Chiapa and Soconusco in the government of Guatimala. It lies between lat. 17. and 23. N. wholly in the torrid zone. Its extent, from the remotest point of Panuco on the N. E. to that of Mechoacan on the S. W. from sea to sea, is 200 leagues; and much the same from the North part of Mechoacan on the N. W. to Chiapa on the S. E. yet it is hardly 60 leagues from sea to sea across Guaxaca; but this dimension is exclusive of the peninsula of Jucatan.

The province called Mexico Proper has Flascala on the E. Mechoacan on the W. Panuco on the N. and the Pacific ocean on the S. It is 315 miles from S. to N. and 200 where broadest, on the coast; but narrower towards the N.

MEXICO, a royal city, archiepiscopal see, and the capital of the province of the same name, and of the whole kingdom of Mexico in N. America. It stands on an island in the middle of a spacious lake, and is accessible only by causeways of a considerable length. It is of a square form, and about seven miles in circuit; some reckon the number of inhabitants to be about 70 or 80,000. It is greatly admired for straight and spacious streets and squares, its cool situation in such a hot climate, and its natural strength. It contains 29 convents, 22 nunneries, and a great number of parish-churches, besides the cathedral.

It is the residence of the Viceroy, the seat of the first Audience, and one of the richest and most splendid cities in the world. And tho' it has

## M E X

no sea-port, nor any communication with the sea by navigable rivers, it enjoys a prodigious commerce, and is itself the centre of all that is carried on between America and Europe on one hand, and between America and the East Indies on the other. The goods from Acapulco to La Vera Cruz, or from La Vera Cruz to Acapulco, for the use of the Philippines, and, in a great measure, for the use of Peru and Lima, pass through this city, and employ an incredible number of horses and mules. Hither all the gold and silver is brought to be coined; here the King's fifth is deposited; and all that immense quantity of plate wrought, which is annually sent into Europe. The shops glitter on all sides with gold, silver, and jewels, besides great chests piled up to the ceilings, waiting for an opportunity of being sent to Old Spain, &c. The city itself is regularly built, and the houses handsome, though not lofty. The ornaments of the churches are extravagantly rich, though the taste of their architecture is comparatively poor. It is 170 miles W. of the gulph of Mexico, and 190 N. from Acapulco. Lat. 20. 15. N. long. 103. 12. W.

MEXICO, NEW, including California, is bounded by unknown lands on the N. by Florida on the E. by Old Mexico on the S. and by the Pacific ocean on the W. It is a temperate, and, in some parts, a fruitful country; though California is a mountainous, craggy, and barren tract, both in the outer and inner coasts towards the gulph: and notwithstanding the indefatigable pains of the Jesuit missionaries, among the natives of this country, for  
convert-

## M I A

converting them to Christianity, by feeding them regularly every day, and using all the endearing methods to win them, they seem still to retain their pristine brutality: of which they have given several instances; for after seizing upon a horse belonging to one of the missionaries, killing and feasting on him, in a ring round the carcase, they not long after proceeded to a more shocking extremity, and barbarously massacred the fathers Caranco and Tamaral, with many more persons, some of whom were natives attached to the missionaries, who fell into their hands, having totally ruined four other missionaries, the remaining twelve or thirteen narrowly escaping the same fate. The fathers, by their surveys, have found California to be a peninsula, joined to New Mexico on the N. E. near which are pearl-fisheries; and these seem to be the chief thing valuable; though the paltry natives cannot be made to labour in quest of that treasure, or any thing else. See CALIFORNIA.

In Mexico are rich silver mines, the principal of which are those of St. Barbe.

MIAMIS, a savage nation of Canada, in N. America, at the bottom of lake Michigan, where they have a village at Chicagou, the residence of the Chief, or Cacique, who can raise between 4 and 5000 warriors, and never goes abroad without a guard of 40 soldiers, who keep sentry day and night round his hut or cabin, while he is there. He seldom appears in person to his subjects, but contents himself with signifying his orders to them by one of his officers.

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## M I C

The chieftains of the Miamis are more respected, however, and less easy of access, than those among the most part of the other savages.

MICHIGAN, one of the five principal inland lakes of Canada, in N. America. Between a point of the neighbouring continent at Michillimakinac, a Huron settlement, extending itself S. and opposite to another, which looks N. is formed a streight, through which the lake Huron communicates with the lake Michigan.

This is an incommodious place for a settlement, the cold being excessive; owing undoubtedly to the usual agitation by very tempestuous winds in the waters of the three lakes among which it lies; the least, namely, Michigan, being 300 leagues in circuit, without reckoning the bay Des Puants, 28 leagues more in depth inland, that empties itself into it.

The inequality of the tides disturbs very much the navigation of these lakes: for they are observed to keep no sort of regularity, and they are pretty strong in some places. Near the little island of Michillimakinac they rise and fall once in 24 hours, at full and new moon, always running into lake Michigan. It is no less certain that, independently of these tides, there is a current which is continually directed from lake Huron into the other; a phenomenon apparently occasioned by springs, such as are frequently to be met with in the open sea.

This current, however, does not hinder the natural course of the Michigan, which discharges its waters into the lake Huron, as well as the Superior lake. The first of these two currents,



## M I C

currents, namely, that of lake Huron into lake Michigan, is more perceptible when the wind blows from the opposite quarter; namely, from the S. at which time flakes of ice are seen to be carried from the former into the latter, with as much velocity as a ship before the wind. This is known to be the case exactly in the streights of Bahama.

In the channel by which the Superior lake throws its waters into the Huron lake, there are currents in great numbers under water, and so strong as sometimes to carry away the fishermen's nets: from which it is conjectured, that this large lake discharges a part of its waters into that of Michigan by means of subterraneous channels, which it has hollowed for this purpose, in the same manner as it is thought the Caspian sea communicates with the Euxine; and the latter again with the Mediterranean. All this is the more likely, as the Superior lake receives into it at least 40 rivers; 10 or 12 of which are as large as the streight itself, and would not give out so much water, by a great deal, as it receives, had it no other outlet than this channel.

The same thing may be said of Michigan, which, besides the waters of the great lake, receives also into its bosom a vast number of rivers, many of which are very large, and have a long course. For, besides the visible discharge of its waters into the lake Huron, it must necessarily have hollowed also a subterraneous passage for itself, as has been said already of the Superior lake. A discovery which has been made on this head corroborates the conjecture; namely, that all the rocks which are found at a certain

## M I C

tain depth in the streight called the Sault, or Fall of St. Mary, are perforated, or porous, like sponge, and many of them even hollow, in the form of grottos; and apparently owing to the currents which have been already mentioned.

In sailing from Michillimakinac to the river St. Joseph, at the bottom of lake Michigan, it is found, though the wind is contrary, that a vessel will go about eight or ten leagues in a day: and this proves that the currents must increase her velocity. The same thing has been observed at entering the bay Des Puans. There is no doubt but that this bay, which has no visible outlet but on one side, discharges itself into lake Michigan; and that the Michigan, which is circumstanced in the same manner as that bay, empties its waters into the lake Huron: and the rather as Michigan and the bay receive several rivers into their bosoms, especially the Michigan lake, to which there is an accession of a very great number, some of them not inferior in magnitude to the river Seine in France. Yet these currents are perceivable only in the middle of the channel, by a kind of eddy, or counter-current, on both sides of their banks, of which an advantage is made by coasting along near the shore, as those are obliged to do who sail in canoes made of bark.

At first they run five leagues to the W. in order to gain lake Michigan, and afterwards steering to the S. which is the only course vessels have to take for 100 leagues (the extent of this lake from N. to S.) till they come to the river St. Joseph.

Nothing

## M I D

Nothing exceeds the beauty of the country which separates lake Michigan from lake Huron.

**MICHILLIMAKINAC**, a small island in the Huron lake of Canada, in N. America. It lies in lat. 43. 30. N. Here is only a middling village, in which, however, a pretty good trade in peltery is said to be carried on, as being the pass, or the place of rendezvous, for several savage nations; but this traffic is since removed, we are told, to Hudson's bay, by the channel of the river Bourbon.

The situation, however, of Michillimakinac is very advantageous for the purposes of commerce. It lies between three great lakes; namely, Michigan, which is 300 leagues in circuit, without saying any thing of the great bay Puans that empties itself into it; lake Huron, which is 350 leagues in circuit, and is in the form of a triangle; and lastly, the Superior lake, which is 500. All three are navigable for the largest barks: and the two first are separated only by a small streight, in which there is also abundant water for the same vessels to navigate through without obstruction over all lake Erie, as far as Niagara. There is indeed a communication between lake Huron and the Superior lake, only by means of a canal of 22 leagues in length, but very much interrupted by cataracts or water-falls: yet so as not to hinder canoes from coming to unload at Michillimakinac, all that they can bring from the Superior lake. See **SUPERIOR**, and the other lakes under their proper names, also **CANADA**.

**MIDDLETON**, a pretty good town of Monmouth, the most southern county of East Jersey,

## M I S

sey, in N. America. It consists of an hundred families, with out-plantations of 30,000 acres. The shore near this place, winding like a hook, and being sandy, is denominated Sandyhook. It lies 26 miles S. of Piscataway.

MISASSIPPI, MESCHASIPPI, or MISSISSIPPI, a country of N. America. It is bounded on the N. by Canada; on the E. by the British plantations; on the S. by the gulph of Mexico; and it has New Mexico on the W.

A large river, of the same name with the preceding country, rising in Canada, runs to the southward, till it falls into the gulph of Mexico. It is navigable; and said to run upwards of 2000 miles, in a very winding course; to which, as well as the neighbouring country, the French lay claim; and have even possessed themselves of part of it ever since the year 1712.

Upon founding the entrance into the Mississippi, it was found to have 16 feet water upon the bar. After which the Neptune, a ship just arrived from France, was immediately sent, and she easily sailed up the river as far as New Orleans.

From Fort Crevecoeur the Mississippi was entered by the Sieur Dacan and Father Hennepin, who sailed up it as far as lat. 46. N. where they were stopped by a pretty high water-fall for the whole breadth of the river, called by them Sault de S. Antoine de Padoue, or St. Antony of Padua's Leap. The source of the Mississippi is still unknown; but it runs almost quite through N. America. The lake Assiniboils is very far from the places where these two voyagers were: and it is certain, that the French

## M I S

French had at that time no settlement on the banks of the river which they failed down.

The French court, under the regency of the Duke of Orleans, raised the expectations of the nation so high, with regard to the immense riches which were to be acquired by planting it in 1719, under the name of the Mississippi company, and almost coeval with the South sea scheme in England, that every one was ready to throw his money into the stocks, which that company sold at 2000 per cent. But the government seized upon most of the money: so that the adventurers were ruined. This at that time put a stop to the planting of the country here; but it has been encouraged very much since.

It receives a great number of large rivers in its course, as the Ohio, almost equal to the Danube; the Ouabache, scarcely inferior to it, with the great rivers Alibama, Mobile, &c. some of which bring down such prodigious quantities of mud and slime, that it can hardly clear itself in the course of 20 leagues. It breeds vast numbers of crocodiles and other amphibious creatures. It hath plenty of waterfowl, and the country on both sides is pretty fertile, and inhabited by a great variety of nations.

It discharges itself by two branches, which form an island of a considerable length. Its mouths lie between lat. 29. and 30. N. and long. 89. and 90. W. being filled with several other smaller islands.

The country on each side these two mouths is quite wild and uninhabitable, on account of the frequent inundations, as well as barrenness

of

## M O N

of the soil, producing nothing but rushes, canes, and some kinds of trees, great part of which lie rooted up by the force of the water. But a few leagues higher, towards the island, it is represented as a delightful country, covered with vines, and all sorts of fruit-trees: the ground producing plenty of Indian corn, pulse, and other grain; and yielding, it is said, two crops in the year.

**MOBILE**, a river of Canada, in N. America, and one of those considerable streams which fall into the Mississippi. On its banks is the French settlement of Dauphin island, about 70 leagues E. of the latter river. This and Fort Louis, which is nine leagues N. of it, are now the most considerable settlements of that nation.

**MOHAWKS**, one of the five nations of the Iroquois, in alliance with Great Britain. Their country lies between New York and the lake Ontario, in N. America.

Of the same name is also a river, which runs through the Mohawks country.

**MONA**, one of the Antilles islands, not far from Hispaniola, and due East from St. Domingo, in the way to Porto Rico; not above three leagues in circuit: but is said to have an excellent climate and soil, bearing oranges, much the largest and finest in America, besides other fruit. Here is plenty of good water, and the island is pretty populous.

**MONQUEGUA**, a jurisdiction of the diocese of Arequipa, in Peru, S. America. It lies about 40 leagues S. of the city of Arequipa, and 16 from the coast of the South sea. It extends at least 40 leagues in length, and in so happy a climate, that it is adorned with large vineyards,



## M O N

yards, from the produce of which considerable quantities of wine and brandy are made : and these constitute its whole commerce ; supplying all the provinces bordering on the Cordilleras, as far as Potosi, by land-carriage, while they are exported by sea to Callao, where they are highly valued. Here are also papas and olives.

The principal town, of the same name, is inhabited by Spaniards ; and among these are several opulent and noble families.

**MONTE CRISTO**, a town in the jurisdiction of Guayaquil, which formerly stood in the bay of Manta, and was called by that name. It had then a considerable commerce, by vessels passing from Panama to the ports of Peru. But having been pillaged and destroyed by some foreign adventurers, the inhabitants removed to the foot of Monte Christo, where it now stands.

**MONTE VIDEO**, a city of Buenos Ayres, and La Plata, in S. America. It stands in the bay of the same name.

**MONTREAL**, a town of Canada, in N. America. It stands in an island of the same name in the river St. Laurence, and 60 leagues (others say 100 miles) S. of Quebec. It is a well-peopled place, of an oblong form, the streets very open, and the houses well built. The fortifications are pretty strong, being surrounded by a wall, flanked with 11 redoubts, which serve instead of bastions; the ditch is about eight feet deep, and of a proportionable breadth, but dry, encompassing the town, except that part which lies towards the river. It has four gates, one of them very small. It has also  
a fort

## M O N

a fort or citadel, the batteries of which command the streets of the town from the one end to the other; and over the river St. Peter is a bridge.

The bank of the river St. Laurence, on which the town of Montreal is built, rises insensibly from the water's edge to the opposite part of the town; which is divided into two parts, called the Lower, and the Upper town; though the ascent in passing from the former to the latter is scarcely perceivable. The merchants in general reside in the lower town; and here is also the place of arms, the nunnery hospital, and royal magazines. But the principal structures are in the upper town; among which are the Recollets convent, the parish-church and free-school, the jesuits church and seminary, the palace of the governor, and the houses of most of the officers belonging to the garrison. The Recollets convent is a spacious structure, and their community very numerous. The parish-church is large and well built, of hewn stone; and the free-school, which joins to it, very commodious, but not magnificent. The Jesuits seminary is small, but their church is well ornamented. The Governor's palace is a large building: and the same may be said of several others in the town of Montreal. The nunnery-hospital is a commodious structure, and served by religious sisters, who originally came from La Fleche, a town of Anjou, in France. Their salon in this building is grand and well furnished; and their church is well built, neat, and convenient.

Without the town, on the other side of St. Peter's river, are several elegant houses; particularly

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cularly one belonging to M. de Calliere, and the general hospital, called les Freres Charrons, from its being established by a gentleman of that name. who had associated with him several persons of piety and learning, for founding so useful a charity, and furnishing the country-parishes with school-masters, for the instruction of the Indian children. He had the pleasure of seeing the general hospital established before his death, which happened in the year 1719, though his brethren had deserted him some time before. The place formerly belonged to the French: but the English took it from them in 1760, having before made themselves masters of Quebec, and are now in possession of most of the country. Lat. 46. 10. N. long. 75. 12. W.

The island of Montreal, in which the town of the same name is built, is about ten leagues long and four broad, being very fruitful in corn, and abounding with elegant plantations. It has its name from a mountain of great height, situated about the middle of the island, which it seems to overlook, like a monarch from his throne, and thence acquired the appellation of the Royal mountain, a name which has been since given to the town itself, which was originally called Ville Marie.

The river St. Laurence is here about a league in breadth, and its banks interspersed with trees and seats, containing several islands: some of which are inhabited, and others in their natural state, exhibiting to the eye the most beautiful prospect. Indeed the banks of the river from Quebec to Montreal are pretty well settled. The farms lie pretty close all the way, and several gentlemen's seats shew themselves at intervals.

## M O N

The river is not navigable at Montreal, on account of several cataracts and rocks, which obstruct the passage

Though the lands of Montreal produce Indian corn in abundance, and all the vegetables of Europe flourish in it : yet the French have never been able to establish any staple commodity to answer their demands on their mother-country. Their trade with the Indians produces all their returns to that market. The furs of the beaver, with those of foxes and racoons, the skins of deer, and all the branches of the peltry, together with what corn and lumber they can send to the West-Indies, constitute their whole stock of merchandise. And these have been found sufficient to render their lives agreeable in this fruitful country.

They have wine, brandy, cloth, linen, and wrought iron from Europe : and the Indian trade requires brandy, tobacco, a sort of duffil-blankets, guns, powder and ball, kettles, hachets, tomahawks, with several sorts of toys and trinkets. The Indians supply the peltry : and the French have traders whom they call Coureurs de Bois, who, like the original inhabitants, traversing the vast lakes and rivers which intersect this country, in canoes made of bark, with incredible patience and industry, carry their goods into the remotest parts of America, and dispose of them to nations entirely unknown to us. This in return brings the market home to them, as the Indians are by this means encouraged to trade with the French themselves at Montreal: For which purpose people from all parts, even those who dwell above a thousand miles distant, come to the fair at Montreal, which is annually holden in June ; and it sometimes continues for three months

## M O N

months together. Many solemnities are observed on this occasion ; guards are planted in proper stations, and the Governor himself assists in person to preserve order among such a vast concourse of savage nations. Nor are all these precautions sufficient, as the savages too often find means of intoxicating themselves with spirituous liquors, which produces a temporary madness, during which they are guilty of the most enormous excesses.

Notwithstanding this trade has for many years past been carried on at Montreal ; yet many of the tribes of savages actually pass by our settlement of Albany in New York, where they might purchase the goods they want considerably cheaper than at Montreal. Yet they travel on above 200 miles further to buy the some commodities at second hand, after their price is enhanced by the expence of so long a land-carriage, at the Montreal-fair. For the French have found by experience, that it is cheaper for them to purchase their goods of the New-York merchants, than to have them from their own country: so that the French have found some secret of conciliating the affections of the savages, which our traders seem strangers to, or at least take no care to put it in practice.

**MONTSERRAT**, one of the Caribbee islands, and among the smallest of them in the Atlantic ocean in America. Columbus discovered it in 1493. It is of an oval form, about three leagues long, and the same in breadth, being 18 or 20 in circuit. Its mountains are covered with cedars, acajous, &c. Its valleys are well watered and fruitful : but the climate and soil, the latter being light and sandy, though highly fertile, are

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much the same with those of the other islands; as are also its animals and trade. Its chief produce is indigo, but of a very inferior kind, besides some sugar, and the commodities derived from the cane. It is so surrounded with rocks that the riding before it is very precarious and dangerous on the approach of a tornado, having properly no haven. It contains about 5000 Europeans, who are masters of 10 or 12,000 African slaves.

On the 29th and 30th of June 1733, a hurricane happened here, the whole damage of which, exclusive of the shipping, was reckoned not less than 50,000l. currency.

In Queen Anne's wars the French plundered and wasted this island for ten days. But by the 11th article of the Utrecht treaty, it was stipulated that satisfaction should be made the English sufferers: but it does not appear what it was they obtained, nor indeed whether they had any at all. It lies 30 miles S. W. of Antigua, and is subject to Great Britain. Lat. 17. 10. N. long. 62. 100 W.

Moose river factory, an English settlement in New South-Wales, and the northern countries of America, which has been erected ever since 1740. It is built near the mouth of the river of Moose, in lat. 51. 28. on a navigable river, which at 12 miles distance from the fort is divided into two branches; the one comes from the southward, and the other from the S. W. Upon the southern branch thrive all sorts of grain, as barley, beans and pease do at the factory, tho' exposed to the chilling winds from the ice in the bay. Upon the southern part above the falls grows naturally along the river a kind of wild  
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oats, and rye like rice. In the woods, at the bottom of the bay at Moose and Albany, as well as at Rupert's river, are very large timber-trees of all kinds, oak, ash, &c. as well as pine, cedar and spruce. They have exceeding good grafs for hay; and they may have every where within land, pulse, grain and fruit trees, as in the same climate in Europe.

The ice breaks up at Moose factory in the beginning of March, but higher up about the middle of that month. The river is navigable for canoes a great way up among the falls. At a considerable distance there is one fall of 50 feet; but above that it is deep and navigable a great way. The climate above the fall is very good.

MORROPE, a town in the road between Quito and Lima, in South America. It consists of between 70 and 80 houses, containing about 160 families, all Indians: near it runs the river Pozuelos, its banks being cultivated and adorned with trees. The instinct of the beasts used to this road is surprising; for even at the distance of four leagues they smell its water, and accordingly pursue the shortest road. Morrope is 28 or 30 leagues distant from Sechura, all that way being a sandy plain, the track continually shifting.

MOSKITO, or MUSKITO, a country of Mexico in North America, between Truxillo and Honduras. Lat. 13 and 15. N. and long 85. and 88. W. It is bounded by the North-sea on the N. and E. by Nicaragua on the S. and by Honduras on the W. The Spaniards indeed reckon this a part of the province of Honduras, tho' they have no settlements in the Moskito country.

When

## M Y R

When the Spaniards first invaded this part of Mexico, they barbarously massacred most of the natives, whence proceeds the insuperable aversion of such of them as escaped into the inaccessible mountains against the Spaniards: and for that reason they have always readily joined with any Europeans that come upon their coast in enterprises against the Spaniards, particularly with the English, who frequently come among them.

The Moskito Indians being excellent marksmen, are employed by the English to strike the manatee fish; and many of them sail in English vessels to Jamaica.

When the Duke of Albemarle was governor of the last-mentioned island, these people put themselves under the protection of the crown of England, and their King received a commission from him. Since which time, when their King dies, the next male heir goes to Jamaica, and receives a commission accordingly; but before that he is not acknowledged as such by his countrymen.

Lately offers have been sent by us into the Moskito country, in order to have colonies settled among them.

MOUNTJOY, a manor of Newcastle county, and Pennsylvania, where the first limestone found in America was dug. This whole county is remarkable for its excellent gravel, a thing very rarely to be met with on the continent of America.

MYRTLE ISLAND, an island in the bay of Nassau in Florida. See NASSAU Bay.

*End of the* SECOND VOLUME.



